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TIL VA TA'LIMGA INTEGRATIV YONDASHUV:
POST-METOD DAVRI

Nafisa Nasrullayeva | f.f.d., dotsent

**O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI
OLIIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI**

**OLIIY TA'LIM TIZIMI PEDAGOG VA RAHBAR KADRLARINI QAYTA
TAYYORLASH VA ULARNING MALAKASINI OSHIRISHNI TASHKIL
ETISH BOSH ILMIY - METODIK MARKAZI**

**“TIL VA TA'LIMGA INTEGRATIV YONDASHUV: POST-METOD
DAVRI” MODULI BO'YICHA**

O'QUV – USLUBIY MAJMU'A

Qayta tayyorlash va malaka oshirish kursi yo'nalishi: Filologiya va tillarni
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Tuzuvchi:

N.Z.Nasrullayeva – filologiya fanlari doktori, dotsent

Taqrizchi:

A.Pardayev – filologiya fanlari doktori, professor

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I. IShChI O'QUV DASTURI

Kirish

“Til va ta’limga integrativ yondashuv: Post-metod davri” moduli O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2012 yil 10 dekabrda qabul qilingan “Chet tillarni o‘rganish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish chora-tadbirlari to‘g‘risida”gi PQ-1875-sonli qarorlarida 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. Modul hozirgi kunda ta’lim jarayonida muhim hisoblangan xorijiy til o‘rganuvchilarning bilim, ko‘nikma va malakalarini – kompetensiyasini integrativ yondashuv asosida shakllantirish, til o‘qitish tamoyillari, Post-metod davri, kommunikativ yondashuvda til o‘qitish, vazifaga asoslangan yondashuv orqali til o‘qitish, mustaqil ta’lim ko‘nikmalarini shakllantirish, darsni tashkil etishda milliy standartning roli, darsni shakllantirishda dars maqsadlarini o‘rgatish, o‘quv materiallarini tanlashdagi strategiyalar, o‘quv materiallar yaratishda asosiy tamoyillar, o‘quv materiallarini extiyojga moslash, o‘zgartirish, autentik materiallarni qo‘llash kabi masalalarini qamraydi.

Modulning maqsadi va vazifalari

“Til va ta’limga integrativ yondashuv: Post-metod davri” modulining maqsadi: tinglovchilarda xorijiy til darslarini tashkil qilishda o‘qitish tamoyillari, Post-metod davri, kommunikativ yondashuvda orqali til o‘qitish, vazifaga asoslangan yondashuv orqali til o‘qitish, mustaqil ta’lim ko‘nikmalarini shakllantirish yo‘llarini o‘rgatish, o‘quv materiallarini tanlashdagi strategiyalar, o‘quv materiallar yaratishda asosiy tamoyillar, autentik materiallarni tanlash va qo‘llash orqali ta’lim samaradorligiga erishish.

“Til va ta’limga integrativ yondashuv: Post-metod davri” modulining vazifalari:

- Ta’lim samaradorligini oshirishda o‘qitish tamoyillari, Post-metod davri, vazifaga asoslangan yondashuv orqali til o‘qitish, mustaqil ta’lim olish va uning ahamiyati haqida tushuncha va bilimlarga ega bo‘lish;
- darsni tashkil etishda milliy standartning roli hamda darslarni shakllantirishda dars maqsadlarini o‘rgatish;
- xorijiy tillar o‘qitishning zamonaviy metodlarini o‘rganish orqali o‘quv materiallarining qiyinchilik darajasini aniqlash va tahlil qilishni o‘rganish;
- o‘quv materiallarini tanlashdagi strategiyalar, o‘quv materiallar

yaratishda asosiy tamoyillar, o'quv materiallarini ehtiyojga moslash, o'zgartirish, autentik materiallarni qo'llash.

Modul bo'yicha tinglovchilarning bilimi, ko'nikma va malakalariga qo'yiladigan talablar

“Til va ta'limga integrativ yondashuv: Post-metod davri” modulini o'zlashtirish jarayonida amalga oshiriladigan masalalar doirasida tinglovchilar:

- Ta'lim samaradorligini oshiruvchi omillardan bo'lgan integrativ yondashuv, Post-metod davri va uning ahamiyati haqida tushuncha va **bilim**ga ega bo'lishga erishish.

- Samarali mashg'ulot tashkil etuvchi kommunikativ yondashuvda til o'qitish, vazifaga asoslangan yondashuv orqali til o'qitish hamda mustaqil ta'lim ko'nikmalarini rivojlantirish bo'yicha tinglovchilarda **ko'nikmalarini** shakllantirish lozim.

- Zamonaviy metodlarni o'rganib chiqish va o'quv materiallarining qiyinchilik darajasini aniqlash va taxlil qilish, o'quv materiallarini tanlashdagi strategiyalar, o'quv materiallar yaratishda asosiy tamoyillar, o'quv materiallarini ehtiyojga moslash, o'zgartirish, autentik materiallarni qo'llash va amaliyotga tadbiq etishga o'rgatish bo'yicha **malakalar** shakllantiriladi.

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

“Til va ta'limga integrativ yondashuv: Post-metod davri” fani mazmuni o'quv rejadagi “Til va ta'limga integrativ yondashuv”, “Tilshunoslik nazariyasining til amaliyotiga integratsiyasi”, “Texnologiyaga asoslangan til o'qitish” kabi o'quv modullari bilan uzviy bog'langan holda oliy ta'lim muassasalari ingliz tili o'qituvchilarining mutaxassislik bo'yicha tayyorgarlik darajasini oshirishga xizmat qiladi.

Modulning oliy ta'limdagi o'rni

Modulni o'zlashtirish orqali tinglovchilar ta'lim jarayonida muhim ahamiyat kasb etuvchi zamonaviy metodlarni o'rganish va tahlil qilish integrativ yondashuv orqali xorijiy til o'qitish, kommunikativ yondashuvda til o'qitish, vazifaga asoslangan yondashuv orqali til o'qitish, mustaqil ta'lim ko'nikmalarini shakllantirish bo'yicha zaruriy bilim, ko'nikma va malakalarni o'zlashtiradilar.

Modul bo'yicha soatlar taqsimoti:

| № | Modul mavzulari | Tinglovchining o'quv yuklamasi, soat | | | |
|--------------|--|--------------------------------------|----------------------------|----------|-------------------|
| | | Hammasi | Auditoriya o'quv yuklamasi | | |
| | | | jami | jumladan | |
| | | | | Nazariy | Amaliy mashg'ulot |
| 1. | Til o'qitish tamoyillari. Post-metod davri. | 4 | 4 | 2 | 2 |
| 2. | Kommunikativ yondashuvda til o'qitish. Vazifaga asoslangan yondashuv orqali til o'qitish. | 4 | 4 | 2 | 2 |
| 3. | Mustaqil ta'lim ko'nikmalarini shakllantirish | 2 | 2 | - | 2 |
| 4. | Darsni tashkil etishda milliy standartning roli. Darsni shakllantirishda dars maqsadlarini o'rgatish. | 2 | 2 | - | 2 |
| 5. | Zamonaviy metodlarni o'rganib chiqish va o'quv materiallarining qiyinchilik darajasini aniqlash va tahlil qilish | 2 | 2 | - | 2 |
| 6. | O'quv materiallarini tanlash strategiyalari va material yaratish tamoyillari | 2 | 2 | - | 2 |
| Jami: | | 16 | 16 | 4 | 12 |

NAZARIY MASHG'ULOTLAR MAZMUNI

1-Mavzu: Til o'qitish tamoyillari. Post-metod davri.

1. Chet tili ta'limida ilmiylik tamoyili.
2. Ta'limda nazariya bilan amaliyot bog'liqligi tamoyili.
3. Post-metod davri

2-Mavzu: Kommunikativ yondashuvda til o‘qitish. Vazifaga asoslangan yondashuv orqali til o‘qitish.

1. Muloqot qilishning til ta’limida ahamiyati
2. Kommunikativ yondashuv orqali til o‘qitish samaradorligi
3. Vazifaga asoslangan yondashuv orqali til o‘qitish.

AMALIY MASHG‘ULOTLAR MAZMUNI

1-Mavzu: Til o‘qitish tamoyillari. Post-metod davri.

1. Chet tili o‘qitish tamoyillari tushunchasi
2. Post-metod tushunchasi
3. Ta’limda yangicha yondashuv va tendensiyalar

2-Mavzu: Kommunikativ yondashuvda til o‘qitish. Vazifaga asoslangan yondashuv orqali til o‘qitish

1. Muloqot qilishning til ta’limida ahamiyati
2. Kommunikativ yondashuv orqali til o‘qitish samaradorligi
3. Til ko‘nikmalarini vazifaga asoslangan yondashuv orqali shakllantirish usullari.

3-Mavzu: Mustaqil ta’lim ko‘nikmalarini shakllantirish

1. Bilish va faollikni oshirishda mustaqil ta’limning o‘rni
2. Mustaqil fikr yuritishda mustaqil ta’limning ahamiyati
3. Auditoriyada o‘rgangan material bilan mustaqil ravishda o‘rganiladigan material uzviyligi

4-Mavzu: Darsni tashkil etishda milliy standartning roli. Darsni shakllantirishda dars maqsadlarini o‘rgatish.

1. Milliy ta’lim tizimi va standart
2. Darsni shakllantirishda dars maqsadlarining ahamiyati

5-Mavzu: Zamonaviy metodlarni o‘rganib chiqish va o‘quv materiallarining qiyinchilik darajasini aniqlash va tahlil qilish

1. Til ta'limida zamonaviy metodlar qo'llanilishi
2. O'quv materiallarini qiyinchiligini tahlil qilish

6-Mavzu O'quv materiallarini tanlash strategiyalari va material yaratish tamoyillari

1. O'quv materiallarini extiyojga moslash
2. O'quv materiallarini tanlashda e'tibor qaratilishi lozim bo'lgan jihatlar
3. Autentik materiallarni qo'llash.


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

Mashg'ulotlar jarayonida "Aqliy hujum" va "Xotirani charxlaymiz" usullari qo'llaniladi.

| | |
|------------------------------|---|
| Aqliy xujum | - (breynstorming – miya bo'roni), amaliy va ilmiy muammolarni yechishda jamoa bilan ma'lumot yig'ish |
| Usulni asosiy g'oyasi | - g'oyalar to'plash, ularni baholash va tahlil qilish, ajratish. "Aqliy hujum"ni olib boruvchining hatti-harakati uchun bu g'oya asosiy ko'rsatgich bo'lib, ishtirokchilarni imkoniyat qadar ko'p g'oyalar taklif qilishga undaydi. Xotirani charxlaymiz usuli bo'yicha savollar ekranda namoyish qilinadi. (1-mavzu, 1a- ilova); (1-mavzu, 1b- ilova); |
| Qoidalari | - imkoni boricha ko'proq g'oyalarni taklif etish (jamlash), ularni talqin qilish, muammolarni yechish va ularni qayd etish. |
| Ta'lim beruvchi | - ishtirokchilarni qo'llab-qo'vvatlaydi (imo-ishora, jilmayish, ha-yo'q so'zlari bilan); - so'rovga kirishib ketishiga yordam berish va psixologik to'sqinlikni yo'qotish uchun, oldingi yoki shu darsdan kutilmagan, original savollar berib mashq o'tkazadi (blits so'rov). Qatnashchilarni javoblarini tahlil qiladi umumiy xulosa beradi. - har bir javob tekshiriladi (1-mavzu, 2- ilova) - xulosalar chiqariladi (1-mavzu, 3- ilova) |
| Fidbeyk | - har bir g'oyani muhokama qilish; (2-mavzu, 2-ilova) - eng to'g'ri g'oyalarni qo'llab-kuvvatlash (2 mavzu, 3-ilova) |

1-mavzu uchun (1a- ilova)

1-mavzu uchun (1b- ilova)



Language teaching principles:
Post-method era

Effective teaching involves acquiring relevant knowledge about students and using that knowledge to inform our course design and classroom teaching

Assessments

Learning Objectives

Instructional Activities

When we teach, we do not just teach the content, we teach students the content. A variety of student characteristics can affect learning. For example, students' cultural and generational backgrounds influence how they see the world; disciplinary backgrounds lead students to approach problems in different ways; and students' prior knowledge (both accurate and inaccurate aspects) shapes new learning. Although we cannot adequately measure all of these characteristics, gathering the most relevant information as early as possible in course planning and continuing to do so during the semester can (a) inform course design (e.g., decisions about objectives, pacing, examples, format), (b) help explain student difficulties (e.g., identification of common misconceptions), and (c) guide instructional adaptations (e.g., recognition of the need for additional practice).

- **Extended research projects**

- Extended research projects are widely used across the NACE community, including Extended Project Qualifications (EPQs) as well as a range of other initiatives. At Birchensale Middle School, for example, Year 8 students undertake an independent research project in which points are collected by completing different tasks – the more challenging the task, the more points available. Learners have a choice of topics, presentation methods and supporting materials of different levels.
- Meanwhile at Impington Village College, groups of more able learners in Years 8 to 10 from each faculty area meet fortnightly to support each other on an independent research project of their choice. With support from peers and their "faculty champion", they develop higher-level research skills based on IB coursework models and the A-level EPQ.



- **Flipped learning**

- Alongside extended projects, members highlighted flipped learning as effective in developing independence. At Sarah Bonnell School (KS3-4) learners are provided with a bank of resources and reading for each topic, to work through independently ahead of lessons. Students' response to this approach has been very positive, says the school's Sabrina Sahebodin. "It allows them to come to the lesson prepared with questions and a chance to query areas where they need further clarification. Time is not wasted in fact finding during lessons; instead we apply knowledge, analyse and evaluate. It has stretched and challenged them further in aiding them with further research for peer teaching."

Effective teaching involves prioritizing the knowledge and skills we choose to focus on.



Effective teaching involves recognizing and overcoming our expert blind spots.



- Teaching and Learning Principles with Instructional Planning
- 1. A REVIEW ON THE PRINCIPLES A. Principles of Learning B. Principles of Teaching
- 2. Principles of Learning What is LEARNING? • Learning is the one of the important psychological process that determines human behavior. • Learning is the process of accumulating knowledge, skills and attitudes. • Learning may be through training, experience, reading, observation, discussions, etc. • Learning is a continues process • Learning is also an important source of motivation, stimulation and job satisfaction
- 3. Principles of Learning General principles of learning 1) Readiness 2) Exercise 3) Effect 4) Primacy 5) Recency 6) Intensity 7) Requirement 8) Freedom
- 4. READINESS Readiness implies a degree of concentration and eagerness. Individuals learn best when they are physically, mentally, and emotionally ready to learn, and do not learn well if they see no reason for learning. Getting students ready to learn, creating interest by showing the value of the subject matter, and providing continuous mental or physical challenge, is usually the instructor's responsibility.

2-mavzu uchun (4- ilova)

COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH. TASK-BASED LEARNING.

Communicative language teaching (CLT), or the communicative approach, is an approach to language teaching that emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of study.

Language learners in environments utilizing CLT techniques, learn and practice the target language through the interaction with one another and the instructor, the study of "authentic texts" (those written in the target language for purposes other than language learning), and through the use of the language both in class and outside of class.

Learners converse about personal experiences with partners, and instructors teach topics outside of the realm of traditional grammar, in order to promote language skills in all types of situations. This method also claims to encourage learners to incorporate their personal experiences into their language learning environment, and to focus on the learning experience in addition to the learning of the target language.

According to CLT, the goal of language education is the ability to communicate in the target language. This is in contrast to previous views in which grammatical competence was commonly given top priority. CLT also focuses on the teacher being a facilitator, rather than an instructor. Furthermore, the approach is a non-methodical system that does not use a textbook series to teach the target language, but rather works on developing sound oral/verbal skills prior to reading and writing.

Language teaching was originally considered a cognitive matter, mainly involving memorization. It was later thought, instead, to be socio-cognitive, meaning that language can be learned through the process of social interaction. Today, however, the dominant technique in teaching any language is communicative language teaching (CLT).

It was Noam Chomsky's theories in the 1960s, focusing on competence and performance in language learning, that gave rise to communicative language teaching, but the conceptual basis for CLT was laid in the 1970s by linguists Michael Halliday, who studied how language functions are expressed through grammar, and Dell Hymes, who introduced the idea of a wider communicative competence instead of Chomsky's narrow linguistic competence.

III. NAZARIY MASHG'ULOT MATERIALLARI

LECTURE 1.

LANGUAGE TEACHING PRINCIPLES. POST-METHOD ERA

Plan:

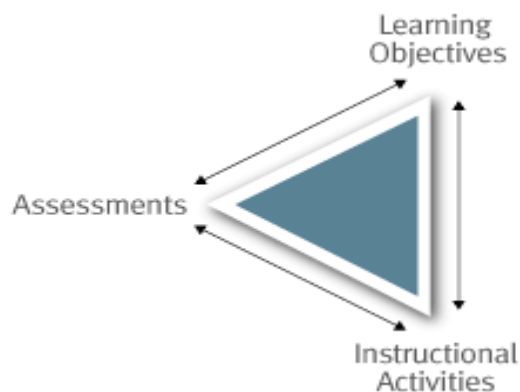
- 1.1. Teaching principles.
- 1.2. Conceptualizing postmethod pedagogy
- 1.3. Actualizing postmethod pedagogy
- 1.4. Problematizing postmethod pedagogy

Key expressions: learning objectives, assessments, and instructional activities, identification of common misconceptions, guide instructional adaptations, recognition of the need for additional practice, Post-Method Era, actualizing, conceptualizing and problematizing postmethod pedagogy.

1.1. Teaching Principles

Teaching is a complex, multifaceted activity, often requiring us as instructors to juggle multiple tasks and goals simultaneously and flexibly. The following small but powerful set of principles can make teaching both more effective and more efficient, by helping us create the conditions that support student learning and minimize the need for revising materials, content, and policies. While implementing these principles requires a commitment in time and effort, it often saves time and energy later on.

1. Effective teaching involves acquiring relevant knowledge about students and using that knowledge to inform our course design and classroom teaching.



When we teach, we do not just teach the content, we teach students the content. A variety of student characteristics can affect learning. For example, students' cultural and generational backgrounds influence how they see the world; disciplinary backgrounds lead students to approach problems in different ways; and students' prior knowledge (both accurate and inaccurate aspects) shapes new learning. Although we cannot adequately measure all of these characteristics, gathering the most relevant information as early as possible in course planning and continuing to do so during the semester can (a) inform course design (e.g., decisions about objectives, pacing, examples, format), (b) help explain student difficulties (e.g., identification of common misconceptions), and (c) guide instructional adaptations (e.g., recognition of the need for additional practice).

2. Effective teaching involves aligning the three major components of instruction: learning objectives, assessments, and instructional activities.

Taking the time to do this upfront saves time in the end and leads to a better course. Teaching is more effective and student learning is enhanced when (a) we, as instructors, articulate a clear set of learning objectives (i.e., the knowledge and skills that we expect students to demonstrate by the end of a course); (b) the instructional activities (e.g., case studies, labs, discussions, readings) support these learning objectives by providing goal-oriented practice; and (c) the assessments

(e.g., tests, papers, problem sets, performances) provide opportunities for students to demonstrate and practice the knowledge and skills articulated in the objectives, and for instructors to offer targeted feedback that can guide further learning.

3. Effective teaching involves articulating explicit expectations regarding learning objectives and policies.

There is amazing variation in what is expected of students across American classrooms and even within a given discipline. For example, what constitutes evidence may differ greatly across courses; what is permissible collaboration in one course could be considered cheating in another. As a result, students' expectations may not match ours. Thus, being clear about our expectations and communicating them explicitly helps students learn more and perform better. Articulating our learning objectives (i.e., the knowledge and skills that we expect students to demonstrate by the end of a course) gives students a clear target to aim for and enables them to monitor their progress along the way. Similarly, being explicit about course policies (e.g., on class participation, laptop use, and late assignment) in the syllabus and in class allows us to resolve differences early and tends to reduce conflicts and tensions that may arise. Altogether, being explicit leads to a more productive learning environment for all students. More information on how clear learning objectives supports students' learning. (*pdf*)

4. Effective teaching involves prioritizing the knowledge and skills we choose to focus on.

Coverage is the enemy: Don't try to do too much in a single course. Too many topics work against student learning, so it is necessary for us to make decisions – sometimes difficult ones – about what we will and will not include in a course. This involves (a) recognizing the parameters of the course (e.g., class size, students' backgrounds and experiences, course position in the curriculum sequence, number of course units), (b) setting our priorities for student learning, and (c) determining a set of objectives that can be reasonably accomplished.

5. Effective teaching involves recognizing and overcoming our expert blind spots.

We are not our students! As experts, we tend to access and apply knowledge automatically and unconsciously (e.g., make connections, draw on relevant bodies of knowledge, and choose appropriate strategies) and so we often skip or combine critical steps when we teach. Students, on the other hand, don't yet have sufficient background and experience to make these leaps and can become confused, draw incorrect conclusions, or fail to develop important skills. They need instructors to break tasks into component steps, explain connections explicitly, and model processes in detail. Though it is difficult for experts to do this, we need to identify and explicitly communicate to students the knowledge and skills we take for granted, so that students can see expert thinking in action and practice applying it themselves.

6. Effective teaching involves adopting appropriate teaching roles to support our learning goals.

Even though students are ultimately responsible for their own learning, the roles we assume as instructors are critical in guiding students' thinking and behavior. We can take on a variety of roles in our teaching (e.g., synthesizer, moderator, challenger, commentator). These roles should be chosen in service of the learning objectives and in support of the instructional activities. For example, if the objective is for students to be able to analyze arguments from a case or written text, the most productive instructor role might be to frame, guide and moderate a discussion. If the objective is to help students learn to defend their positions or creative choices as they present their work, our role might be to challenge them to explain their decisions and consider alternative perspectives. Such roles may be constant or variable across the semester depending on the learning objectives.

7. Effective teaching involves progressively refining our courses based on reflection and feedback.

Teaching requires adapting. We need to continually reflect on our teaching and be ready to make changes when appropriate (e.g., something is not working, we want to try something new, the student population has changed, or there are emerging issues in our fields). Knowing what and how to change requires us to examine relevant information on our own teaching effectiveness. Much of this information already exists (e.g., student work, previous semesters' course evaluations, dynamics of class participation), or we may need to seek additional feedback with help from the university teaching center (e.g., interpreting early course evaluations, conducting focus groups, designing pre- and posttests). Based on such data, we might modify the learning objectives, content, structure, or format of a course, or otherwise adjust our teaching. Small, purposeful changes driven by feedback and our priorities are most likely to be manageable and effective.

Post-Method Era "... Postmethod pedagogy allows us to go beyond, and overcome the limitations of, methodbased pedagogy. Incidentally, I use the term pedagogy in a broad sense to include not only issues pertaining to classroom strategies, instructional materials, curricular objectives, and evaluation measures but also a wide range of historiopolitical and sociocultural experiences that directly or indirectly influence L2 education" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 34).

The 1990s witnessed a rare congruence of refreshingly new ideas that can fundamentally restructure second/foreign language teaching and teacher education. Among them are two mutually informing currents of thought: One emphasizes the need to go beyond the limitations of the concept of method with a call to end an alternative way of designing effective teaching strategies (Clarke, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Prabhu, 1990), and another emphasizes the need to go beyond the limitations of the transmission model of teacher education with a call to end an alternative way of creating efficient teaching professionals (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2000; Woods, 1996). The result has been a greater awareness of issues such as teacher beliefs, teacher reasoning, and teacher cognition. A common thread that runs through the works cited above is a long-felt

dissatisfaction with the concept of method as the organizing principle for L2 teaching and teacher education. These works can therefore be seen as heralding the development of what might be called a post-method pedagogy. Continuing and consolidating the recent explorations, and taking my TESOL Quarterly article on the postmethod condition (Kumaravadivelu, 1994) as a point of departure, in this article I attempt to provide the fundamentals of a postmethod pedagogy. In the first section, I conceptualize the parameters of a postmethod pedagogy. In the second, I offer suggestions for actualizing it in terms of the anticipated roles and functions of learners, teachers, and teacher educators. In the third, I problematize it by raising questions and concerns that might come up in the process of actualizing it. I conclude by raising the prospect of the parameters of a postmethod pedagogy replacing the concept of method as an organizing principle for L2 learning, teaching, and teacher education.

1.2. CONCEPTUALIZING POSTMETHOD PEDAGOGY

I use the term pedagogy in a broad sense to include not only issues pertaining to classroom strategies, instructional materials, curricular objectives, and evaluation measures, but also a wide range of historical, political, and sociocultural experiences that directly or indirectly influence L2 education. Within such a broad-based definition, I visualize a postmethod pedagogy as a three-dimensional system consisting of three pedagogic parameters: particularity, practicality, and possibility. I discuss below the salient features of each of these parameters, indicating how they interweave and interact with each other.

A Pedagogy of Particularity First and foremost, any postmethod pedagogy has to be a pedagogy of particularity. That is to say, language pedagogy, to be relevant, must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu. A pedagogy of particularity, then, is antithetical to the notion that there can be one set of pedagogic aims and objectives realizable through one set of pedagogic principles and procedures. At its core, the

idea of pedagogic particularity is consistent with the hermeneutic perspective of situational understanding (Elliott, 1993), which claims that a meaningful pedagogy cannot be constructed without a holistic interpretation of particular situations and that it cannot be improved without a general improvement of those particular situations. All pedagogy, like all politics, is local. To ignore local exigencies is to ignore lived experiences. Pedagogies that ignore lived experiences will ultimately prove to be “so disturbing for those affected by them—so threatening to their belief systems—that hostility is aroused and learning becomes impossible” (Coleman, 1996, p. 11). A case in point is the sense of disillusionment that accompanied the spread of communicative language teaching. From South Africa, Chick (1996) wonders whether “our choice of communicative language teaching as a goal was possibly a sort of naive ethnocentrism prompted by the thought that what is good for Europe or the USA had to be good for KwaZulu” (p. 22). From Pakistan, Shamim (1996) reports that her attempt to introduce communicative language teaching into her classroom met with a great deal of resistance from her learners, making her “terribly exhausted” and leading her to realize that, by introducing this methodology, she was actually “creating psychological barriers to learning” (p. 109). From India, Tickoo (1996) points out that even locally initiated pedagogic innovations have failed because they merely tinkered with the methodological framework inherited from abroad, without fully taking into account local linguistic, sociocultural, and political particularities. From a pedagogic point of view, particularity is at once a goal and a process. One simultaneously works for and through particularity. It is a progressive advancement of means and ends. That is to say, it is the critical awareness of local exigencies that trigger the exploration and achievement of pedagogy of particularity. It starts with practicing teachers, either individually or collectively, observing their teaching acts, evaluating their outcomes, identifying problems, ending solutions, and trying them out to see once again what works and what does not. Such a continual cycle of observation, reaction, and action is a prerequisite for

the development of context-sensitive pedagogic knowledge. To appropriate and extend Becker's (1986) analogy, the generic professional knowledge teachers gain from teacher education programs can help them hear "bird" around them, but it is their lived experience in the classroom and their pursuit of a pedagogy of particularity that will help them distinguish birds, learn their names, and hear their songs. In other words, context-sensitive pedagogic knowledge can emerge only from the practice of particularity. Because the particular is so deeply embedded in the practical, and cannot be achieved or understood without it, pedagogy of particularity becomes in essence pedagogy of practicality as well.

1.3. ACTUALIZING POSTMETHOD PEDAGOGY

The very nature of a postmethod pedagogy with its emphasis on context sensitivity demands that various participants actualize it variously to suit various necessities. Indeed, trying to fabricate a monolithic matrix of methods for the purpose of actualizing a postmethod pedagogy will be futile. However, it should be feasible and indeed desirable to chart a broad road map that indicates the path the actualization process might probably take. I attempt to visualize such a road map in terms of the anticipated roles of learners, teachers, and teacher educators. I focus on these three groups of fellow travelers not merely because they embark upon a common journey toward a common destination, but also because postmethod pedagogy demands a re-visioning of their roles as postmethod practitioners.

Postmethod Learner The postmethod learner is an autonomous learner. The literature on learner autonomy has so far provided two interrelated aspects of autonomy: academic autonomy and social autonomy. Academic autonomy is related to learning. Learning becomes autonomous when learners are willing and able to take charge of their own learning (Holec, 1988). Taking charge has mostly meant teachers giving learners a set of 546 TESOL QUARTERLY cognitive, metacognitive, and affective techniques that they can use for successful learning. Research on this aspect of learner autonomy has produced taxonomies of learning

strategies (e.g., Oxford, 1990) and learning styles (e.g., Reid, 1998) as well as user-friendly manuals (e.g., Chamot, Bernhard, El-Dinary, & Robbins, 1999). They have been found useful in making learners more active participants in their language learning while at the same time making teachers more sensitive to learner diversity and learning difficulties. Efforts have also been made to plan and implement learner training for language learners and teachers (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; Scharle & Szabo, 2000, Wenden, 1991). The wealth of information now available on learning strategies and styles opens up opportunities for learners to monitor their learning process and maximize their learning potential. With the help of their teachers and their peers, postmethod learners can exploit some of these opportunities with a view to

- identifying their learning strategies and styles by administering, or having administered, select portions of strategy inventories and style surveys, and by writing their own language learning histories
- stretching their strategies and styles by incorporating some of those employed by successful language learners (For example, if some learners are global in their learning style, they might have to develop strategies that are associated with the analytic learning style, such as breaking down words and sentences in order to end meaning.)
- evaluating their ongoing learning outcomes by monitoring language learning progress through personal journal writings in addition to taking regular class tests and other standardized tests
- reaching out for opportunities for additional language reception or production beyond what they get in the classroom, for example, through library resources and learning centers Unlike academic autonomy, which is mostly intrapersonal, social autonomy is interpersonal and is related to learners' ability and willingness to function effectively as cooperative members of a classroom community. It refers to "the fact that among the strategies and activities associated with increasing metacognitive awareness and learning management skills are some that involve

interaction with others” (Broady & Kenning, 1996, p. 16). Learners can attempt to develop their social autonomy by, for instance,

- seeking their teachers’ intervention to get adequate feedback on areas of difficulty and to solve problems. Learners do this through dialogues and conversations in and outside the class.
- collaborating with other learners to pool information on a specific project they are working on. Learners do this by forming small groups, dividing the responsibilities of consulting reference materials (e.g., dictionaries and encyclopedias) to collect information, and sharing it with the group.
- taking advantage of opportunities to communicate with competent speakers of the language.

Learners can achieve this by participating in social and cultural events, and engaging in conversations with other participants. These activities contribute to at least two noteworthy skills: Learners gain a sense of responsibility for aiding their own learning and that of their peers, and they develop a degree of sensitivity and understanding toward other learners who may be more or less competent than they themselves are. Although academic autonomy and social autonomy undoubtedly offer useful pathways for learners to realize their learning potential, a third aspect of learner autonomy is necessary to capture the essence of the postmethod learner: liberatory autonomy. If academic autonomy enables learners to be effective learners, and social autonomy encourages them to be collaborative partners, liberatory autonomy empowers them to be critical thinkers. Thus, liberatory autonomy goes much further than the other two aspects of learner autonomy by actively seeking to help learners recognize sociopolitical impediments to realization of their full human potential and by providing them with the intellectual tools necessary to overcome those impediments. The sociopolitical impediments may sometimes take the form of overt political oppression, as experienced and expressed by the Sri Lankan, South African, and Palestinian students referred to earlier, or take subtle forms of discrimination based on race or religion, class or

color, gender or sexual orientation. More than any other educational enterprise, language pedagogy in which almost any topic potentially constitutes the content of classroom activity offers ample opportunities for experimenting with liberatory autonomy. Teachers can promote meaningful liberatory autonomy in the language classroom by

- encouraging learners to assume, with the help of their teachers, the role of miniethnographers so that they can investigate and understand how language rules and language use are socially structured, and also explore whose interests these rules serve
- asking learners to write diaries or journal entries about issues that directly engage their sense of who they are and how they relate to the social world, and continually react on their observations and the observations of their peers
- helping them form learning communities where learners develop into unified, socially cohesive, mutually supportive groups seeking self-awareness and self-improvement
- providing opportunities for learners to explore the unlimited possibilities offered by on-line services on the World Wide Web and bringing back to the class their own topics for discussion and their own perspectives on those topics

The suggestions sketched above, and several others that are implicit in the professional literature, can easily be modified and made more relevant to suit the instructional aims/activities and institutional constraints/resources of various learning/teaching contexts. They may be treated as foundations for promoting a full range of academic, social, and liberatory autonomy for the benefit of the learner. Taken together, these three aspects of autonomy promise the development of the overall academic ability, intellectual competence, social consciousness, and mental attitude necessary for learners to avail themselves of opportunities and overcome challenges both in and outside the classroom. Clearly, learners working alone cannot attain such a far-reaching goal; they need the willing cooperation of all others who directly or indirectly shape their educational endeavor, particularly

that of their teachers. Autonomous learners deserve autonomous teachers. The Postmethod Teacher The postmethod teacher, like the postmethod learner, is an autonomous individual. Teacher autonomy in this context entails a reasonable degree of competence and confidence on the part of teachers to want to build and implement their own theory of practice that is responsive to the particularities of their educational contexts and receptive to the possibilities of their sociopolitical conditions. Such competence and confidence can evolve only if teachers have the desire and the determination to acquire and assert a fair degree of autonomy in pedagogic decision making. Teacher autonomy is so central that it can be seen as dening the heart of postmethod pedagogy. Teacher autonomy is shaped by a professional and personal knowledge base that has evolved through formal and informal channels of educational experience. In the field of L2 education, most teachers enter into the realm of professional knowledge by and large through a “methods” package. That is, they learn that the supposedly objective knowledge of language learning and teaching has been inextricably linked to a particular method, which, in turn, is linked to a particular school of thought in psychology, linguistics, and other related disciplines. When they begin to teach, however, they quickly recognize the need to break away from such a constraining concept of method. In order to do that, they have to rely increasingly on their personal knowledge of learning and teaching. Personal knowledge “does not simply entail behavioral knowledge of how to do particular things in the classroom; it involves a cognitive dimension that links thought with activity, centering on the context-embedded, interpretive process of knowing what to do” (Freeman, 1996, p. 99). It does not develop instantly before one’s peering eyes, as a film develops in an instant camera. It evolves over time, through determined effort. Under these circumstances, it is evident that teachers can become autonomous only to the extent they are willing and able to embark on a continual process of self-development. There has recently been a systematic effort to investigate the complex process of teacher knowledge during and after formal teacher education.

It is a sign of the times that the TESOL profession has benefited from the publication in the course of a single calendar year of the useful volumes on issues related to teacher knowledge. In a significant contribution, Woods (1996) explores how teachers interpret and evaluate the events, activities, and interactions that occur in the teaching process, and how these interpretations and evaluations feed back into teachers' subsequent planning, thereby enriching their teaching performance and enhancing their intellectual competence. Whereas the volume edited by Freeman and Richards (1996) unfolds the thinking and learning processes teachers employ as they learn to teach, the one edited by Bailey and Nunan (1996) brings out the teachers' voices, which have been rarely articulated or heard before. In another edited volume, Nunan and Lamb (1996) attempt to help teachers become self-directed individuals in order to take effective control of the teaching and learning processes in their classrooms. Finally, van Lier (1996) offers a framework for pedagogical interaction in terms of teachers' awareness, autonomy, and authenticity. Although it is highly satisfying to see this robust beginning to the effort to understand teachers' articulated encounters with certain aspects of particularity and practicality, teachers must be encouraged and empowered to embrace aspects of possibility as well. Otherwise, teacher self-development will remain sociopolitically naive. Such naiveté commonly occurs, as Hargreaves (1994) wisely warns, when teachers are encouraged to reflect on their personal biographies without also connecting them to broader histories of which they are a part; or when they are asked to reflect on their personal images of teaching and learning without also theorizing the conditions which gave rise to those images and the consequences which follow from them. (p. 74) 550 TESOL QUARTERLY He goes on to argue, quite rightly, that when divorced from its surrounding social and political contexts, teachers' personal knowledge can quickly turn into "parochial knowledge" (p. 74). In light of the above discussion, it is reasonable to ask questions such as these: How do postmethod teachers pursue professional development involving the triple pedagogic parameters of

particularity, practicality, and possibility? How do they theorize from practice and practice what they theorize? One possible answer is that they do so through teacher research. Teacher research is initiated and implemented by practicing teachers motivated mainly by their own desire to self-explore and self-improve. Contrary to a common misconception, doing teacher research does not necessarily involve highly sophisticated, statistically laden, variable controlled experimental studies, for which practicing teachers have neither the time nor the energy. Rather, it involves keeping one's eyes, ears, and mind open in the classroom to see what works and what does not, with what group(s) of learners, and for what reason, and assessing what changes are necessary to make instruction achieve its desired goals. Teachers can conduct teacher research by developing and using investigative capabilities derived from the practices of exploratory research (Allwright, 1993), teacher research cycle (Freeman, 1998), and critical classroom observation (Kumaravadivelu, 1999a, 1999b). More specifically, teachers can begin their inquiry by

- using investigative methods such as questionnaires, surveys, and interviews to gather learner profiles that include information about learning strategies and styles, personal identities and investments, psychological attitudes and anxieties, and sociopolitical concerns and conflicts
- identifying researchable questions that emerge from learner profiles and classroom observation—questions of interest to learners, teachers, or both that range from classroom management to pedagogic pointers to sociopolitical problems
- clustering the identified researchable questions in terms of themes and patterns, and deciding which ones can be explored individually and which ones collectively with learners, peers, or both
- exploring which of the resources learners bring with them can be probably exploited for learning, teaching, and research purposes, including learners' sociocultural and linguistic knowledge (e.g., exploring how often and under what

conditions the much-ignored and much-neglected common L1 can be used as an effective means of learning and teaching even though the mandated methods and materials might proscribe its use) □ ending out to what extent, in carrying out their investigative activities, they can engage in an electronic, Internet-based dialogue with local and distant peers and scholars who may have similar concerns and get useful feedback on their problems and projects

- developing interpretive strategies to observe, analyze, and evaluate their own teaching acts by using a suitable classroom observation framework that is based on a recognition of the potential mismatch between teacher intention and learner interpretation
- determining what basic assumptions about language, learning, and teaching are implied in their original pedagogic formulations, what existing assumptions need to be modified in light of research □ findings, and what changes in pedagogic formulations are warranted by such modifications

As these suggestions imply, the goal of teacher research and teacher autonomy is “not the easy reproduction of any ready-made package of knowledge but, rather, the continued recreation of personal meaning” (Diamond, 1993, p. 59). Teachers create and re-create personal meaning when they exploit and extend their intuitively held pedagogic beliefs based on their educational histories and personal biographies by conducting more structured and more goal-oriented teacher research based on the parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility. Most such teacher research is doable if, as far as possible, it is not separate from but is fully integrated with day-to-day teaching and learning. As Allwright (1993) convincingly argues, language teachers and learners are in a privileged position to use class time for investigative purposes as long as the activities are done through the medium of the target language being taught and learned. The exploratory activities listed above are no more than a general road map to help teachers pursue self-autonomy and self-development. What specific route they have to follow, what treacherous curves they have to negotiate, what institutional speed bumps

they have to surmount, and what unexpected detours they have to take will all depend on the “road conditions” they encounter in their day-to-day teaching. But their journey will undoubtedly become less onerous and more joyous if teacher educators can pave the way by laying a strong and stable foundation through their teacher education programs. The Postmethod Teacher Educator As is well known by now, most models of teacher education are designed to transmit a set of preselected and presequenced body of knowledge from the teacher educator to the prospective teacher. In this essentially top-down approach, teacher educators perceive their role to be one of engineering the classroom teaching of student teachers, offering them suggestions on the best way to teach, modeling appropriate teaching behaviors for them, and evaluating their mastery of discrete pedagogic behaviors. Such a transmission model of teacher education is hopelessly inadequate to produce self-directing and self-determining teachers who constitute the backbone of any postmethod pedagogy. What is needed, then, is a fundamental restructuring of teacher education so that it focuses as much on the teacher part of teacher education as on the education part of it. One way to accomplish this restructuring is to recognize that prospective teachers embarking on formal teacher education programs bring with them their notion of what constitutes good teaching and what does not, largely based on their prior educational experience as learners and, in some cases, as teachers. Their minds are anything but a theoretical clean slate. It is therefore important to recognize their voices and their visions. Recognizing prospective teachers’ voices and visions means legitimizing their knowledge and experience and incorporating them as an important part of the dialogue between teacher educators and prospective teachers. In other words, the interaction between the teacher educator and the prospective teacher should become dialogic in the Bakhtinian sense (Kumaravadivelu & Bean, 1995). Dialogic discourse facilitates an interaction between meanings, between belief systems, an interaction that produces what Bakhtin (1981) calls a responsive understanding. In such a dialogic enterprise, the primary responsibility of the

teacher educator is not to provide the teacher with a borrowed voice, however enlightened it may be, but to provide opportunities for the dialogic construction of meaning out of which an identity or voice may emerge. Teacher education must therefore be conceived of not as the experience and interpretation of a predetermined, prescribed pedagogic practice but rather as an ongoing, dialogically constructed entity involving two or more critically reactive interlocutors. When, through a series of dialogic interactions, channels of communication between teacher educators and prospective teachers open up, when prospective teachers actively and freely use the linguistic, cultural, and pedagogic capital they bring with them, and when teacher educators use the student teacher's values, beliefs, and knowledge as an integral part of the learning process, then the entire process of teacher education becomes reactive and rewarding. A postmethod teacher education program must take into account the importance of recognizing teachers' voices and visions, the imperatives of developing their critical capabilities, and the prudence of achieving both of these through a dialogic construction of meaning. In practical terms, the role of the postmethod teacher educator becomes one of recognizing, and helping student teachers recognize, the inequalities built into the current teacher education programs that treat teacher educators as producers of knowledge and practicing teachers as consumers of knowledge

- enabling prospective teachers to articulate their voices and visions in an electronic journal in which they record and share with other student teachers in class their evolving personal beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge about language learning and teaching at the beginning, during, and at the end of certain courses in their teacher education program
- encouraging prospective teachers to think critically so that they may relate their personal knowledge to the professional knowledge they are being exposed to, monitor how each shapes and is shaped by the other, assess how the generic professional knowledge could be modified to suit particular pedagogic needs and wants, and ultimately derive their own personal theory of practice

- creating conditions for prospective teachers to acquire basic skills in classroom discourse analysis that will help them hypothesize pedagogic principles from their classroom practice and thereby demystify the process of theory construction
- rechanneling part of their own research agenda to do what Cameron, Frazer, Harvey, Rampton, and Richardson (1993) call empowering research, that is, research with rather than on their teacher learners
- exposing prospective teachers to a pedagogy of possibility by helping them critically engage authors such as Phillipson (1992), Pennycook (1994), Tollefson (1995), and Canagarajah (1999), who have raised the field's consciousness about the power and politics, ideologies, and inequalities that inform L2 education around the world
- whenever and wherever chances arise, connecting the generic professional knowledge base available in the professional literature directly and explicitly to the particularities of learning/teaching contexts that prospective teachers are familiar with or the ones in which they plan to work after graduation, thereby pointing out both the strengths and the weaknesses of the professional knowledge base These suggestions portend that current teacher education programs, if they are to produce self-directing and self-determining teachers, require a fundamental restructuring that transforms an information-oriented system into an inquiry-oriented one. Underlying the concept of academic inquiry is pedagogic exploration. Postmethod Practitioners as Pedagogic Explorers Pedagogic exploration is an integral part of postmethod pedagogy. Contrary to the commonly held view that research belongs to the domain of the researcher, postmethod pedagogy considers research as belonging to the multiple domains of learners, teachers, and teacher educators alike. These participants, engaged in the joint accomplishment of learning/teaching operations, ought to be engaged in pedagogic exploration either individually or collaboratively. Such a formulation of pedagogic exploration opens up concerns about objectivity and generalizability. Objectivity relates to the concern that pedagogic explorers may not have adequate research skills and that therefore their

research projects may not turn out to be reliable, valid, or generalizable. As Burton (1988) rightly points out, “the most carefully designed experiment reflects the bias and values of the experimenter. Someone had to decide what questions to include and exclude on a survey or what variable to isolate and attend to during an experimental study” (p. 766). Research in social sciences and humanities can hardly be absolutely objective. In fact, philosophers of science such as Feyerabend (1975) would argue that there is no absolute objectivity even in scientific research. The question of generalizability becomes problematic only if it is approached in its traditional sense of a centralized pedagogic project having implications for a wider sphere of pedagogic activity. As a reviewer of this article pointed out, it is even inappropriate to talk about generalizability in the context of a postmethod pedagogy. Instead, the reviewer suggested the term particularizability because, in a postmethod pedagogy, any exploration is by definition context specific and has the capacity, if carried out properly, to produce situated scenarios that are ever-changing and ever-evolving. Besides, as Allwright (1993) maintains, a project that concentrates on locally important research questions can produce individual understandings, and there is “no reason in principle why individual understandings should be incapable of being brought together towards some sort of overall synthesis” (p. 127). The difficult task facing pedagogic explorers is how to get ready for the kind of research they would like to engage in. All pedagogic explorers, like all informed and inquisitive human beings, do research in a casual way—observing what they do, reacting on why they do what they do, monitoring its intended and unintended effects, and then modifying their behavior in light of lessons learned. This informal research ability has to be made into a more systematic and sustained activity. Evidently, pedagogic researchers can achieve this in at least two ways: by developing, either through a formal teacher education program or through self-study, the knowledge and skill necessary to do teacher research in general (see Freeman, 1998) and classroom discourse analysis in particular (see van Lier 1996; Kumaravadivelu, 1999b); and

by collaborating with senior and more experienced colleagues and learning the required skills on the job (see Nunan, 1992). A postmethod pedagogy, like any other innovative practice, imposes an extraordinary degree of responsibility on all the participants, particularly the teacher and the teacher educator. Problematizing such a pedagogy will identify some broad concerns that may arise.

1.4. PROBLEMATIZING POSTMETHOD PEDAGOGY

In any educational reform, teachers and teacher educators constitute pivotal change agents. As Kennedy (1999) observes, when teachers wish to change, they have to change not only their methods and materials but also their attitudes and beliefs. Teacher educators function as external change agents whose job is not so much to change the teachers directly but to create the conditions necessary for change. The challenge of change, therefore, is chiefly borne by teachers and teacher educators. According to Diamond (1993), the primary challenge for teachers “is to form and reform their own pedagogical theories and relationships” (p. 42), and the primary challenge for teacher educators “is to help teachers to see themselves capable of imagining and trying alternatives—and eventually as self-directing and self-determining” (p. 52). The essentials of a postmethod pedagogy demand that both teachers and teacher educators successfully meet their primary challenges. Such a demand raises several questions and concerns, some of which I list below. These questions, and others that perceptive readers may come up with, are indicative of the problematic nature of any pedagogic innovation, more so of one that has the potential, if taken seriously and tried sincerely, to transform the content and character of everyday practice of teaching.

- If a meaningful postmethod pedagogy requires a holistic interpretation of pedagogic particularities, how can appropriate interpretative strategies be identified and made available to postmethod practitioners?
- If pedagogic particularity is at once a goal and a process, in what ways can postmethod practitioners be helped to monitor what they do in the classroom and how it affects learning outcomes?

- If context-sensitive pedagogic knowledge has to emerge from teachers and their practice of everyday teaching, and if they have to be provided with the tools necessary to construct such knowledge, what exactly are the characteristics of such tools?
- If postmethod practitioners have to learn to cope with competing pulls and pressures representing their professional preparation, their personal beliefs, institutional constraints, learner needs and wants, and so on, how can appropriate coping strategies be identified and made available to them?
- If a pedagogy of possibility is concerned with postmethod practitioners' sensitivity to the broader social, economic, and political environment in which they work, to what extent can teacher preparation programs create such a sensitivity among student teachers?
- If a pedagogy of possibility is also concerned with the individual and group identity of learners in the classroom, what concrete steps can postmethod practitioners take to maintain such identity and at the same time promote the group coherence that is so vital for the accomplishment of pedagogic purposes?
- If postmethod learners have to be autonomous in the academic, social, and liberatory sense, how can they be helped to maximize, monitor, and manage their autonomy for the individual as well as the collective good?
- If a postmethod pedagogy requires that teachers be given a fair amount of freedom and exibility to make their own pedagogic decisions, what specific demands does such a requirement make on individuals and institutions, and what can be done to help these individuals and institutions meet the challenge of change?
- If teacher research has to extend its domain to include sociopolitical factors that shape classroom aims and activities, what potential theoretical and practical problems are associated with such a research agenda?
- If postmethod learners, teachers, and teacher educators all have active roles to play in the implementation of a postmethod pedagogy, in what ways can these

participants collaborate, and how can their differential and possibly conflicting goals be reconciled for the benefit of all?

- If postmethod pedagogy requires meaningful collaboration and cooperation among learners, teachers, and teacher educators, how can L2 professionals identify gaps and biases in their beliefs and assumptions, and in their intentions and interpretations, and how do we reduce those gaps and biases once they are identified? Clearly, these questions defy simple answers. In fact, answers to questions like these will vary from context to context and from time to time. In that sense, a postmethod pedagogy will always remain a work in progress.

Questions

1. How many components of instructions are there in effective teaching?
2. What effective teaching involves prioritizing the knowledge and skills that chosen to focus on?
3. What allows us to go beyond, and overcome the limitations of, method-based pedagogy?
4. What kind of experiences that directly or indirectly influence L2 education?

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LECTURE 2.

COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH. TASK-BASED LEARNING

Plan:

- 2.1. Communicative language teaching
- 2.2. Classroom activities
- 2.3. Critique
- 2.4. Task-based language learning

2.1. COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING.

Communicative language teaching (CLT), or the **communicative approach**, is an [approach](#) to [language teaching](#) that emphasizes [interaction](#) as both the means and the ultimate goal of study.

Language learners in environments utilizing CLT techniques, learn and practice the target language through the interaction with one another and the instructor, the study of "authentic texts" (those written in the target language for purposes other than language learning), and through the use of the language both in class and outside of class.

Learners converse about personal experiences with partners, and instructors teach topics outside of the realm of traditional grammar, in order to promote language skills in all types of situations. This method also claims to encourage learners to incorporate their personal experiences into their language learning

environment, and to focus on the learning experience in addition to the learning of the target language.^[1]

According to CLT, the goal of language education is the ability to communicate in the target language.^[2] This is in contrast to previous views in which grammatical competence was commonly given top priority.^[3] CLT also focuses on the teacher being a facilitator, rather than an instructor. Furthermore, the approach is a non-methodical system that does not use a textbook series to teach the target language, but rather works on developing sound oral/verbal skills prior to reading and writing.

Language teaching was originally considered a cognitive matter, mainly involving memorization. It was later thought, instead, to be socio-cognitive, meaning that language can be learned through the process of social interaction. Today, however, the dominant technique in teaching any language is communicative language teaching (CLT).^[4]

It was Noam Chomsky's theories in the 1960s, focusing on competence and performance in language learning, that gave rise to communicative language teaching, but the conceptual basis for CLT was laid in the 1970s by linguists Michael Halliday, who studied how language functions are expressed through grammar, and Dell Hymes, who introduced the idea of a wider communicative competence instead of Chomsky's narrower linguistic competence.^[4] The rise of CLT in the 1970s and early 1980s was partly in response to the lack of success with traditional language teaching methods and partly due to the increase in demand for language learning. In Europe, the advent of the European Common Market, an economic predecessor to the European Union, led to migration in Europe and an increased population of people who needed to learn a foreign language for work or for personal reasons. At the same time, more children were given the opportunity to learn foreign languages in school, as the number of secondary schools offering languages rose worldwide as part of a general trend of

curriculum-broadening and modernization, and foreign-language study ceased to be confined to the elite academies. In Britain, the introduction of [comprehensive schools](#), which offered foreign-language study to all children rather than to the select few in the elite [grammar schools](#), greatly increased the demand for language learning.^[5]

This increased demand included many learners who struggled with traditional methods such as [grammar translation](#), which involves the direct translation of sentence after sentence as a way to learn language. These methods assumed that students were aiming for mastery of the target language, and that students were willing to study for years before expecting to use the language in real life. However, these assumptions were challenged by adult learners, who were busy with work, and some schoolchildren, who were less academically gifted, and thus could not devote years to learning before being able to use the language. Educators realized that to motivate these students an approach with a more immediate reward was necessary,^[5] and they began to use CLT, an approach that emphasizes communicative ability and yielded better results.^[6]

Additionally, the trend of [progressivism](#) in education provided further pressure for educators to change their methods. Progressivism holds that active learning is more effective than passive learning;^[5] consequently, as this idea gained traction, in schools there was a general shift towards using techniques where students were more actively involved, such as group work. Foreign-language education was no exception to this trend, and teachers sought to find new methods, such as CLT, that could better embody this shift in thinking.

2.1. Classroom activities

CLT teachers choose classroom activities based on what they believe is going to be most effective for students developing communicative abilities in the target language (TL). Oral activities are popular among CLT teachers, as opposed to

grammar drills or reading and writing activities, because they include active conversation and creative, unpredicted responses from students. Activities vary based on the level of language class they are being used in. They promote collaboration, fluency, and comfort in the TL. The six activities listed and explained below are commonly used in CLT classrooms.^[5]

Role-play[\[edit\]](#)

Role-play is an oral activity usually done in pairs, whose main goal is to develop students' communicative abilities in a certain setting.^[5]

Example:

1. *The instructor sets the scene: where is the conversation taking place? (E.g., in a café, in a park, etc.)*
2. *The instructor defines the goal of the students' conversation. (E.g., the speaker is asking for directions, the speaker is ordering coffee, the speaker is talking about a movie they recently saw, etc.)*
3. *The students converse in pairs for a designated amount of time.*

This activity gives students the chance to improve their communication skills in the TL in a low-pressure situation. Most students are more comfortable speaking in pairs rather than in front of the entire class.^[5]

Instructors need to be aware of the differences between a conversation and an utterance. Students may use the same utterances repeatedly when doing this activity and not actually have a creative conversation. If instructors do not regulate what kinds of conversations students are having, then the students might not be truly improving their communication skills.

Interviews[\[edit\]](#)

An interview is an oral activity done in pairs, whose main goal is to develop students' interpersonal skills in the TL.

Example:

1. *The instructor gives each student the same set of questions to ask a partner.*
2. *Students take turns asking and answering the questions in pairs.*

This activity, since it is highly structured, allows for the instructor to more closely monitor students' responses. It can zone in on one specific aspect of grammar or vocabulary, while still being a primarily communicative activity and giving the students communicative benefits.

This is an activity that should be used primarily in the lower levels of language classes, because it will be most beneficial to lower-level speakers. Higher-level speakers should be having unpredictable conversations in the TL, where neither the questions nor the answers are scripted or expected. If this activity were used with higher-level speakers it wouldn't have many benefits.

Group work[\[edit\]](#)

Group work is a collaborative activity whose purpose is to foster communication in the TL, in a larger group setting.

Example:

1. *Students are assigned a group of no more than six people.*
2. *Students are assigned a specific role within the group. (E.g., member A, member B, etc.)*
3. *The instructor gives each group the same task to complete.*

- 4. Each member of the group takes a designated amount of time to work on the part of the task to which they are assigned.*
- 5. The members of the group discuss the information they have found, with each other and put it all together to complete the task.*

Students can feel overwhelmed in language classes, but this activity can take away from that feeling. Students are asked to focus on one piece of information only, which increases their comprehension of that information. Better comprehension leads to better communication with the rest of the group, which improves students' communicative abilities in the TL.

Instructors should be sure to monitor that each student is contributing equally to the group effort. It takes a good instructor to design the activity well, so that students will contribute equally, and benefit equally from the activity.^[11]

Information gap[\[edit\]](#)

[Information gap](#) is a collaborative activity, whose purpose is for students to effectively obtain information that was previously unknown to them, in the TL.

Example:

- 1. The class is paired up. One partner in each pair is Partner A, and the other is Partner B.*
- 2. All the students that are Partner A are given a sheet of paper with a time-table on it. The time-table is filled in half-way, but some of the boxes are empty.*
- 3. All the students that are Partner B are given a sheet of paper with a time-table on it. The boxes that are empty on Partner A's time-table are filled in on Partner B's. There are also empty boxes on Partner B's time-table, but they are filled in on Partner A's.*
- 4. The partners must work together to ask about and supply each other with the information they are both missing, to complete each other's time-tables.*

Completing information gap activities improves students' abilities to communicate about unknown information in the TL. These abilities are directly applicable to many real-world conversations, where the goal is to find out some new piece of information, or simply to exchange information.

Instructors should not overlook the fact that their students need to be prepared to communicate effectively for this activity. They need to know certain vocabulary words, certain structures of grammar, etc. If the students have not been well prepared for the task at hand, then they will not communicate effectively.

Opinion sharing[\[edit\]](#)

Opinion sharing is a content-based activity, whose purpose is to engage students' conversational skills, while talking about something they care about.

Example:

- 1. The instructor introduces a topic and asks students to contemplate their opinions about it. (E.g., dating, school dress codes, global warming)*
- 2. The students talk in pairs or small groups, debating their opinions on the topic.*

Opinion sharing is a great way to get more introverted students to open up and share their opinions. If a student has a strong opinion about a certain topic, then they will speak up and share.

Respect is key with this activity. If a student does not feel like their opinion is respected by the instructor or their peers, then they will not feel comfortable sharing, and they will not receive the communicative benefits of this activity.^[12]

Scavenger hunt[\[edit\]](#)

A scavenger hunt is a mingling activity that promotes open interaction between students.

Example:

- 1. The instructor gives students a sheet with instructions on it. (e.g. Find someone who has a birthday in the same month as yours.)*
- 2. Students go around the classroom asking and answering questions about each other.*
- 3. The students wish to find all of the answers they need to complete the scavenger hunt.*

In doing this activity, students have the opportunity to speak with a number of classmates, while still being in a low-pressure situation, and talking to only one person at a time. After learning more about each other, and getting to share about themselves, students will feel more comfortable talking and sharing during other communicative activities.

Since this activity is not as structured as some of the others, it is important for instructors to add structure. If certain vocabulary should be used in students' conversations, or a certain grammar is necessary to complete the activity, then instructors should incorporate that into the scavenger hunt.

2.2. Critiques[[edit](#)]

Although CLT has been extremely influential in the field of language teaching, it is not universally accepted and has been subject to significant critique.

In his critique of CLT, [Michael Swan](#) addresses both the theoretical and practical problems with CLT. In his critique, he mentions that CLT is not an altogether cohesive subject, but one in which theoretical understandings (by linguists) and practical understandings (by language teachers) differ greatly. Critique of the theory of CLT includes that it makes broad claims regarding the usefulness of CLT while citing little data, that it uses a large amount of confusing vocabulary, and that it assumes knowledge that is predominately language non-

specific (ex. the ability to make educated guesses) is language specific.^[13] Swan suggests that these theoretical issues can lead to confusion in the application of CLT techniques.

Where confusion in the application of CLT techniques is readily apparent is in classroom settings. Swan suggests that CLT techniques often suggest prioritizing the "function" of a language (what one can do with the language knowledge one has) over the "structure" of a language (the grammatical systems of the language).^[14] This priority can leave learners with serious gaps in their knowledge of the formal aspects of their target language. Swan also suggests that, in CLT techniques, whatever languages a student might already know are not valued or employed in instructional techniques.

Further critique of CLT techniques in classroom teaching can be attributed to Elaine Ridge. One of her critiques of CLT is that it implies that there is a generally agreed upon consensus regarding the definition of "communicative competence", which CLT claims to facilitate, when in fact there is not. Because there is not such agreement, students may be seen to be in possession of "communicative competence" without being able to make full, or even adequate, use of the language. That an individual is proficient in a language does not necessarily entail that they can make full use of that language, which can limit an individual's potential with that language, especially if that language is an endangered language. This critique is largely to do with the fact that CLT is often highly praised and is popular, when it may not necessarily be the best method of language teaching.^[15]

Ridge also notes that CLT has nonspecific requirements of its teachers, as there is no completely standard definition of what CLT is; this is especially true for the teaching of grammar (the formal rules governing the standardized version of the language in question). Some critics of CLT suggest that the method does not put enough emphasis on the teaching of grammar and instead allows students to

produce utterances which are grammatically incorrect as long as the interlocutor can get some meaning from them.

Stephen Bax's critique of CLT has to do with the context of its implementation. Bax asserts that many researchers associate the use of CLT techniques with modernity and, therefore, the lack of CLT techniques as a lack of modernism. In this way, these researchers consider teachers or school systems which don't use CLT techniques as outdated and suggest that their students learn the target language "in spite of" the absence of CLT techniques, as though CLT were the only way to learn a language and everyone who fails to implement its techniques is ignorant and will not be successful in teaching the target language

2.3. Task-based language learning

Task-based language teaching (TBLT), also known as **task-based instruction (TBI)**, focuses on the use of authentic language and on asking students to do meaningful tasks using the target language. Such tasks can include visiting a doctor, conducting an interview, or calling customer service for help. Assessment is primarily based on task outcome (in other words the appropriate completion of real-world tasks) rather than on accuracy of prescribed language forms. This makes TBLT especially popular for developing target language fluency and student confidence. As such, TBLT can be considered a branch of [communicative language teaching](#) (CLT).

Task-based language learning has its origins in [communicative language teaching](#), and is a subcategory of it. Educators adopted task-based language learning for a variety of reasons. Some moved to task-based syllabus in an attempt to develop learner capacity to express meaning, while others wanted to make language in the classroom truly communicative, rather than the pseudo-communication that results from classroom activities with no direct connection to real-life situations. Others, like Prabhu in the [Bangalore Project](#), thought that tasks

were a way of tapping into learners' natural mechanisms for second-language acquisition, and weren't concerned with real-life communication *per se*.

TBLT was popularized by [N. S. Prabhu](#) while working in [Bangalore, India](#) according to Jeremy Harmer. Prabhu noticed that his students could learn language just as easily with a non-linguistic problem as when they were concentrating on linguistic questions. Major scholars who have done research in this area include [Teresa P. Pica](#), Martin East, and [Michael Long](#).

Definition of a task

A concept, earlier known as the "communicative activity" in 1970s and 80's was later replaced by the term task has since been defined differently by different scholars. David Nunan (2004) draws upon the definitions given by other experts, of two types of tasks: target tasks and pedagogical tasks. Targets tasks refer to doing something outside the classroom and in the real world; whereas pedagogical tasks refer to the tasks students perform inside the classroom and in response to target language input or processing. Nunan concludes that target tasks may be non-linguistic. He defines pedagogical task as a classroom activity that involves a student to understand and produce the target language while focusing on conveying the meaning and not being too concerned with form.

According to [Rod Ellis](#), a task has four main characteristics:

1. A task involves a primary focus on (pragmatic) meaning.
2. A task has some kind of 'gap' (Prabhu identified the three main types as information gap, reasoning gap, and opinion gap).
3. The participants choose the linguistic resources needed to complete the task.
4. A task has a clearly defined, non-linguistic outcome.

Types of task

According to N. S. Prabhu, there are three main categories of task: information-gap, reasoning-gap, and opinion-gap.

Information-gap activity, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another – or from one form to another, or from one place to another – generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language. One example is pair work in which each member of the pair has a part of the total information (for example an incomplete picture) and attempts to convey it verbally to the other. Another example is completing a tabular representation with information available in a given piece of text. The activity often involves selection of relevant information as well, and learners may have to meet criteria of completeness and correctness in making the transfer.

Reasoning-gap activity, which involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns. One example is working out a teacher's timetable on the basis of given class timetables. Another is deciding what course of action is best (for example cheapest or quickest) for a given purpose and within given constraints. The activity necessarily involves comprehending and conveying information, as in information-gap activity, but the information to be conveyed is not identical with that initially comprehended. There is a piece of reasoning which connects the two.

Opinion-gap activity, which involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation. One example is story completion; another is taking part in the discussion of a social issue. The activity may involve using factual information and formulating arguments to justify one's opinion, but there is no objective procedure for demonstrating outcomes as right or wrong, and no reason to expect the same outcome from different individuals or on different occasions.

Reception

According to Jon Larsson, in considering problem-based learning for language learning, i.e., task-based language learning:

...one of the main virtues of PBL is that it displays a significant advantage over traditional methods in how the communicative skills of the students are improved. The general ability of social interaction is also positively affected. These are, most will agree, two central factors in language learning. By building a language course around assignments that require students to act, interact and communicate it is hopefully possible to mimic some of the aspects of learning a language “on site”, i.e. in a country where it is actually spoken. Seeing how learning a language in such an environment is generally much more effective than teaching the language exclusively as a foreign language, this is something that would hopefully be beneficial.

Larsson goes on to say:

Another large advantage of PBL is that it encourages students to gain a deeper sense of understanding. Superficial learning is often a problem in language education, for example when students, instead of acquiring a sense of when and how to use which vocabulary, learn all the words they will need for the exam next week and then promptly forget them.

In a PBL classroom this is combatted by always introducing the vocabulary in a real-world situation, rather than as words on a list, and by activating the student; students are not passive receivers of knowledge, but are instead required to actively acquire the knowledge. The feeling of being an integral part of their group also motivates students to learn in a way that the prospect of a final examination rarely manages to do.

Task-based learning benefits students because it is more student-centered, allows for more meaningful communication, and often provides for practical extra-linguistic skill building. As the tasks are likely to be familiar to the students (e.g.: visiting the doctor), students are more likely to be engaged, which may further motivate them in their language learning.

According to Jeremy Harmer, tasks promote [language acquisition](#) through the types of language and interaction they require. Harmer says that although the teacher may present language in the pre-task, the students are ultimately free to use what grammar constructs and vocabulary they want. This allows them, he says, to use all the language they know and are learning, rather than just the 'target language' of the lesson. On the other hand, according to Loschky and Bley-Vroman, tasks can also be designed to make certain target forms 'task-essential,' thus making it communicatively necessary for students to practice using them. In terms of interaction, information gap tasks in particular have been shown to promote negotiation of meaning and output modification.

According to Plews and Zhao, task-based language learning can suffer in practice from poorly informed implementation and adaptations that alter its fundamental nature. They say that lessons are frequently changed to be more like traditional teacher-led [presentation-practice-production](#) lessons than task-based lessons.

Questions:

1. What was focused on concerning with Noam Chomsky's theories in the 1960s in language learning?
2. What holds that active learning is more effective than passive learning?
3. What activities are popular among CLT teachers?
4. The instructor gives each student the same set of questions to ask a partner. It is an example for ...
5. Who addresses both the theoretical and practical problems with CLT?
6. What does TBI stand for?

Practical lesson 3

Developing independent study skills

Plan:

- 3.1. Independent study skills
- 3.2. How to develop independent skills
- 3.3. How to change the learning mindset
- 3.4. Aims of language teaching

3.1. Independent study skills

1. Extended research projects

Extended research projects are widely used across the NACE community, including Extended Project Qualifications (EPQs) as well as a range of other initiatives. At Birchensale Middle School, for example, Year 8 students undertake an independent research project in which points are collected by completing different tasks – the more challenging the task, the more points available. Learners have a choice of topics, presentation methods and supporting materials of different levels.

Meanwhile at Impington Village College, groups of more able learners in Years 8 to 10 from each faculty area meet fortnightly to support each other on an independent research project of their choice. With support from peers and their “faculty champion”, they develop higher-level research skills based on IB coursework models and the A-level EPQ.

2. Flipped learning

Alongside extended projects, members highlighted flipped learning as effective in developing independence. At Sarah Bonnell School (KS3-4) learners

are provided with a bank of resources and reading for each topic, to work through independently ahead of lessons. Students' response to this approach has been very positive, says the school's Sabrina Sahebodin. "It allows them to come to the lesson prepared with questions and a chance to query areas where they need further clarification. Time is not wasted in fact finding during lessons; instead we apply knowledge, analyse and evaluate. It has stretched and challenged them further in aiding them with further research for peer teaching."

3. Presenting to peers

Building on independent learning and research tasks, members highlighted the benefits of asking learners to present their findings to peers – digesting and sharing information in an accessible, engaging and/or persuasive way. Jamie Kisiel, Teaching and Learning Coordinator at Langley School (KS2-5), shared her use of a "knockout debate" competition, which she says has led to students providing more in-depth evaluation in essays and developing more thought-provoking questions, while also ensuring they have a strong foundation in the subject.

At Pangbourne College (KS3-5), learners are challenged to present as experts on a topic they have researched independently. G&T Coordinator Ellie Calver explains that while the whole class explores the same general topic, more able learners are tasked with presenting on the more open-ended and challenging aspects. She comments, "There is a sense of pride in being able to pull others forwards, a real interest in making the material interactive, and a drive to find out more in order to work out what is most significant."

4. TIF tasks

At Caludon Castle School (KS3-5), each lesson and home-learning task includes a Take It Further or TIF activity – an opportunity to go deeper through independent learning. Assistant Headteacher Steff Hutchison explains, "The TIFs are usually fun, challenging, quirky, a little bit off the wall, so students want to engage with them." Having come to expect and enjoy these tasks, more able

learners now ask for additional TIFs or – even better – devise their own. Steff adds, “Doing the TIF is considered to be cool, so the majority of students of all abilities strive to complete at least one TIF in an average week.”

5. Student-run revision quizzes

At The Commonweal School (KS3-5), students take a leading role by running their own maths revision quizzes. Work in pairs or small groups, they develop questions on the topic being revisited, create a PowerPoint presentation and decide how points will be awarded. “The competitive element is a cause for great excitement – it’s good to see them having so much fun,” says G&T Coordinator Genny Williams. She adds that the initiative has helped learners develop a deeper understanding through working at the top of Bloom’s Taxonomy, given them a strong motivation to take learning further, and has contributed to improved attainment in termly tests.

6. Super-curricular activities

At Hydesville Tower School, learners in Years 3 to 6 are invited to join the Problem-Solving Club – offering opportunities to work with peers on practical and engaging problem-solving activities. Assistant Headteacher Manjit Chand says participants are more inclined to take risks and use metacognitive strategies, and have developed their self-confidence, independence and resilience.

Shrewsbury High School’s Super Curriculum features a range of opportunities for stretch and challenge, including an Art Scholars club and Sixth Form Feminist Society. Each brings together students and staff with a shared interest, providing opportunities to engage with external partners (such as Shrewsbury Museum and Art Gallery, which hosted an exhibition of students’ work) and to explore the subject from multiple perspectives – including relevant research and personal experiences. “Ultimately,” says the school’s Natalie Thomas, “these initiatives work as a result of inspiring a love of learning.”

Learners at Malvern St James (EYFS-KS5) also benefit from opportunities to think and discuss ideas beyond the curriculum, at “discussion suppers” – small-

group events at which selected students and staff discuss a topic over supper. Participants are asked to research the theme of the evening beforehand and to come prepared to share their ideas, listen to others, challenge and be challenged in turn. Learning Support and Enrichment Coordinator Rebecca Jones comments, “Pupils admit that it is quite a daunting experience, but feel pleased that they have taken part afterwards.”

7. Building blocks for discussion

While food helps to fuel debate at Malvern St James, at Shipston High School structure is provided with the help of Duplo or Lego bricks. Working in small groups, learners take turns to contribute to the conversation, adding a brick to a shared construction each time they speak. The colour of brick determines the nature of their contribution – for example, red bricks to accept, yellow to build, blue to challenge. Jordan Whitworth, Head of Religion, Ethics and Philosophy and the school’s lead NACE coordinator, says this simple activity has helped learners develop a range of skills for critical and independent thinking.

8. Access to other students’ solutions

At King Edwin Primary School, pupils have opportunities to learn from peers not just within their own school, but across the country. Having participated in the NACE/NRICH ambassadors scheme, Assistant Headteacher Anthony Bandy shared his experience of using the low-threshold, high-ceiling maths resources provided by Cambridge University’s [NRICH](https://independentlearningschool.com/how-to-develop-independent-learning-skills/). In particular, he highlighted the impact of sharing the solutions published on the NRICH website – which allow learners to see how other students, from different phases and schools, have solved each problem. This can inspire more able learners to seek out different approaches, to grasp new strategies and skills independently – including those covered at later key stages – and to apply this learning in different contexts.

<https://independentlearningschool.com/how-to-develop-independent-learning-skills/>

3.2.HOW TO DEVELOP INDEPENDENT LEARNING SKILLS

When students are taught to be in control of their own learning, they carry that with them through high school and beyond. Independence is one of the best skills a student can master.

As a society, we encourage independence, so it is important to prepare students for the demands of the world. While traditional teaching methods may be best for showing that children are making progress, teachers can teach children to be independent learners without seeing the progress slip away.

But in order to achieve this, students and teachers must change their way of thinking.

HOW TO ENCOURAGE STUDENTS TO BECOME INDEPENDENT LEARNERS

1. Provide students with time to self-monitor. Students can be encouraged to self-monitor by teaching them skills that will help them reach their academic goals, and by teaching them to use self and peer assessment.
2. Use questions to help steer students toward independent learning. The transfer of academic responsibility from teacher to student does not have to happen overnight. It can be achieved by asking open-ended questions, developing classroom discourse, asking for a higher order, by answering students' questions in ways that encourage them to think, solve problems on their own, and develop a deeper understanding of the material being studied.
3. Be a model for your students. Encourage your students to act like you. Be something they can emulate and learn from.
4. Develop communication that focuses on learning. Talk to your students about the different ways of learning. Help them find their own way of learning. After all, everyone learns differently.

5. Provide feedback on classwork and homework. This feedback can be oral or written down on paper. Rather than grading based on how many answers are correct, consider grading on the effort the student put into the assignment.
6. Encourage collaboration. Students should be given time to work in small groups. Encourage them to learn from their peers, as this can benefit their independent learning as well. Working with others also helps them be able to use problem-solving steps in order to get the answers, rather than relying on the teacher for answers.
7. Give your students options and allow them to set their own goals. Allow students a chance to reflect on what they have learned and what they would like to learn. This will give your students a sense of empowerment and responsibility that will help them work toward becoming an independent learner.
8. Involve pupils in lesson planning. Asking students for feedback on the lesson allows them to feel as though they have a say in what they are being taught. This will encourage them to become more involved in their learning. Recording a class period can be beneficial as this can allow you to physically see where you need improvement.
9. Encourage students to be reflective. One way to encourage your students to keep track of what they have learned is to have them keep a 'learning diary' that they write in each day. At the end of the year, the students will be able to look back and see how far they came.

3.3.HOW TO CHANGE THE LEARNING MINDSET

Learning from failure:

Far too many students are afraid to try new things because they fear they will fail. In order to help children become strong independent learners, we must teach them to see failure as an opportunity to learn. Students will never learn if they are too afraid to try.

Show your students that failure is not inherently bad. Show them real-life examples to help encourage them to try their best. If possible, use your own experiences to explain to the kids about failure.

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Show your students that failure is not inherently bad. Show them real-life examples to help encourage them to try their best. If possible, use your own experiences to explain to the kids about failure.

Praising Persistence: Hard work and persistence can help a child to excel, therefore it is crucial to praise a student who is striving to be better. Not only does this help the child become a better independent learner, it gives the student a sense of pride as well.

Furthermore, children who have been praised for their hard work tend to be less likely to quit when things get more challenging.

Minimise teacher talk: There will always be time for traditional teaching in the classroom. However, these times when the teacher has to stand in front of the class to teach should be kept to a minimum. Instead, make more time for group activities or individual activities, as this will encourage the students to be more independent.

What it means to be independent: Talk to your students about what they believe independence means. You may have your own definition, but your students will all most likely have their own definitions for independence. During the discussion, be sure to point out behaviours in the classroom that demonstrate independence.

Reflecting on independence: Self-reflection is an important tool for anyone. At the end of a lesson, have students write down about how independent they felt they were during the lesson. Have your students do this often, then have them store their reflections in a folder so they can see how far they have come. If you would like a more structured approach, give your students a set of categories and have them rate themselves.

If you are looking for ways to develop independent learning skills, following the tips and advice on this page should help. It can be difficult to adapt to new learning behaviors but both students and teachers will benefit from developing as independent learners.

Practical lesson 4

National Education Standard of Uzbekistan

Educational standards are the learning goals for what students should know and be able to do at each grade level. Education standards, like Common Core are *not* a curriculum. Local communities and educators choose their own curriculum, which is a detailed plan for day to day teaching. In other words, the Common Core is what students need to know and be able to do, and curriculum is how students will learn it.

According to the Article 41 of the Constitution of the Republic of Uzbekistan "Everyone shall have the right to education". Apart from the Constitution, the legal basis for the national policy in the field of education includes:

- the Education Act
- Decrees and Resolutions of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan, as well as

- Resolutions of the Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Uzbekistan.

The National Programme, adopted by the Parliament of the Republic of Uzbekistan, represents a longterm strategy to reinforce the education system. Goals and objectives of the National Programme are implemented in stages. Other important legal documents to govern activities for development of the higher education system at this stage include:

- the Decree of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan № 1533 ‘Decree on measures to improve technical facilities and resources of higher education institutions, and radically improve the quality of staff training for the period of 2011-2016’ (20 May 2011)
- the Resolution of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan № 4456 "On further improvement of the system for training and attestation of university levelresearch and teaching staff" (24 July 2012)
- the Resolution of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan № 4732 "On measures for further improvement of the system for retraining and upgrading the qualifications of management and pedagogical staff of higher educational institutions" (12 June 2015)

The Lifelong Learning Strategy of Uzbekistan has been developed based on the deep and large-scale examination of the foreign experience and critical analysis of the existing education system with a consideration of the national development specifics. The Lifelong Learning Strategy operations are ensured through the state educational standards, the continuity of the educational programmes for preschool, basic, secondary, secondary specialized, vocational education, higher and postgraduate studies, as well as upgrading the qualifications and retraining of staff. The education system also envisages an out-of-school education.

Currently the State Educational Standards act as the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). Issues related to NQF are covered in a number of normative documents, such as the Education Act defining the structure of the education system, as well as State Educational Standards (SES) developed for basic,

secondary, specialized secondary, vocational and higher education, as well as qualification requirements for each Bachelor field and Master speciality. The State Educational Standards define framework requirements for higher education levels, including:

- requirements to content of educational programme
- qualification requirements
- scope of educational workload for each level
- procedures and mechanisms to evaluate the performance of the higher education institutions, and the quality of students training
- requirements for the education outcomes and description of competences
- standard curriculum (distribution of contact hours per one discipline)

From - https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/sites/eacea-site/files/countryfiche_uzbekistan_2017.pdf

3.4.Aims of English language teaching

Now English exists as a main foreign language and the aim of teaching English is to help students to acquire practical command on English. "Thomson and Wyatt said that Indian students should not only understand English when it is spoken or written but also should be able to speak and write it".

Thomson and Wyatt has told the four specific aims of teaching English. They are-

1. To understand spoken English.
2. To speak English.
3. To understand written English.
4. To write English.

Competence can be achieved if we give opportunities to our students to listen English news, conversation, etc. Recognition vocabulary of students should be increased to enable them read English with comprehension. The ability to speak English enables the students to communicate easily with the people around the world. Thus all the four aims are equally important.

1. To enhance vocabulary

Sound vocabulary enables the learners to communicate effectively and appropriately in real life situation. With sound structured vocabulary, English can be used effectively for study purpose across the curriculum. Good vocabulary also develop interest in appreciation of literature.

2. Motivate the students

While teaching English students should be motivated by creating awareness about the importance of English language in different aspects of life. Students should be taught that English language is a window to the world. It is the bridge through which they could travel everywhere in the world. With the help of it they can explore immense world of knowledge.

3. Proper grammatical structure

The teacher should always emphasizes on teaching students with proper grammatical structures. This will help the students to write compositions correctly using appropriate pronunciation mark and capital letters.

4. Provide linguistic competence

In the world today - so closely linked as a result of globalisation - the presence of the English language has spilled over into virtually all aspects of everyday life. Consequently, it is essential for the teachers to highlight why English is such a valuable asset of all who use their unique language.

5. Imagination and creativity

The teachers can enable students to express themselves creatively and imaginatively. Proper use of language can increase students ability to use planning, drafting and editing to improve their work.

6. Use of internet

Teachers should create awareness amongst students that there are many English speaking apps, dictionaries, videos, audios, etc. which they can use from internet. Learning English will help them to use these facilities easily.

Objectives of English language teaching

An objective is a desired goal that is trying to be accomplished. Dr. S. R. Bloom has defined educational objective as, " the desired goal or outcome at which instruction is aimed". For example, if a teacher wants his students to improve speaking skill, the teacher will have to try his outmost level for speaking skill. After all, the teacher has to follow all his tactics for the improvement of a students. So the desired goal of improving speaking skill would be the objective of speaking.

The objectives of a topic in English help in realizing some general objectives of teaching English. They are-

1. To be able to speak English fluently and accurately.
2. To think in English and then speak.
3. To be able to compose freely and independently in speech and writing.
4. To be able to read books with understanding.
5. To acquire a vocabulary of 2500 words.
6. Ability to use reference material such as Encyclopedia, dictionary, etc.
7. To be able to talk in English.

A. The objective of teaching English has two main aspects:

1. Language aspect: Words, sentences, pronunciation, spelling and grammar.
2. Literature aspect: Words, sentences, expressing ideas, feelings and experiences.

These two objectives differ from each other as far as the class and age of students is concerned.

The Other four fold objectives are-

1. Semantic-related to understanding.
2. Phonetic- deals with the sound spelling and pronunciation.
3. Graphic- related to writing.
4. Phonetic-cum-graphic- dealing with reading.

B. The following abilities can be developed by these four folded objectives:

1. To understand spoken English.
2. Ability to speak English.

3. Ability to read English.

4. Ability to write English.

Of these the 1st and 2nd objective concerned to passive command over the language and the objectives 3rd and 4th related to active command over the language. Thomson and Wyatt has said, "Reading will render later progress in speech and writing, the ultimate use of language becomes more accurate."

C. The English teaching also has two objectives:

I. Skill objectives include:

- To develop the skill of speaking,
- To develop the skill of reading,
- To develop the skill of writing,
- To develop the skill of listening,
- To enable the students for the use of grammar correctly,

To enable the students to analyse the element of language and established appropriate relationship among linguistic components.

II. Cognitive objectives include:

- To acquire knowledge,
- to diagnose the weakness of speaking and writing English,
- To compare and illustrate linguistic components,
- To classify the elements of English language,
- To understand the meaning of prose, poetry, story and drama by reading.

Most of all, we should realize that delicacy of learning the language and should put in much endeavour to master it for a better future and a better tomorrow. Self practice can make language learning quicker. That practice with interest and motivation is an independent exercise and has no substitute. In order to teach English correctly and properly English teacher must know the aims and objectives of teaching English.

Writing Goals and Objectives. EFL teachers in Uzbekistan have been taught different ways to write goals and objectives. One way Uzbek language teachers

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

By the end of the lesson, students will be able to: (Cognitive): know 4 vocabulary words: college, university, undergraduate, and graduate (Performance): write 4 sentences that correctly uses each of these words in context (Affective): feel confident and motivated to use the four vocabulary words with their peers.

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

The OBJECTIVES of a goal are the steps that a student will need to do to achieve a goal. Objectives are the fine details that you may put into your lesson plan. For instance, let us go back to the cognitive, performance, and affective GOALS above: By the end of the lesson, students will be able to: (Cognitive): know 4 vocabulary words: college, university, undergraduate, and graduate a) Listen to the teacher explain the denotation and connotation of the four words; and b) Explain to a partner the meaning of the words (Performance): write 4 sentences that correctly use each of these words in context a) Compose four sentences that use each of the four vocabulary words; b) Switch with a partner and the partner checks each sentence; c) The original author of the sentences corrects feedback. (Affective): feel confident and motivated to use the four vocabulary words with their peers. a) Student fill out a daily journal about how he/she feels One way to write a clear set

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

According to Richards (2001), objectives have the following three characteristics: precise, feasible, and they describe a learning outcome. Objectives are more specific steps the learners will do to achieve the goal, but they must be realistic and measurable. We have discussed how to develop goals for a lesson and now we will speak about developing goals for a course using backwards design. Backwards Design. Goals are not the same as standards (as explained in 5.1). Often standards are not appropriate for learners and thus, become unrealistic and unachievable. To solve In-Service Language Teacher Education-Uzbekistan 206 this problem, we may use another way of setting the goals for our learners – what we want to have at the end of a course. Then, go backwards from that point. This design, or template, is called Backwards Design. Backwards Design consists of three stages: 1) identifying desired results; 2) determining acceptable evidence; and 3) planning learning experiences and instructions (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Following this procedure, we set achievable goals appropriate for our learners and then plan the lesson (or a course) accordingly, thinking what steps we need to take (objectives) to achieve our goals.

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

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

Questions:

1. What was focused on concerning with Noam Chomsky's theories in the 1960s in language learning?
2. What activities are popular among CLT teachers?
3. Who addresses both the theoretical and practical problems with CLT?
4. According to N. S. Prabhu, how many categories of task are there and what are they?
5. Which activity involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns?

Practical lesson 5

Contemporary methods of teaching English

Plan:

- 5.1. Methods of teaching English
- 5.2. Communicative approaches

5.1. Methods of Teaching English

With the advent of advanced technologies, the prominence of education is surged so as to effectively consolidate the teaching process. Furthermore, modern ways of educating English have enhanced in the last twenty years. Nowadays everything alters, obviously in teaching the English language. As a matter of fact, there is an enormous variability of strategies of teaching foreign languages to language learners. It is universally known that each of this educational method is principally based on a particular vision of comprehension the language or the learning process, frequently using specific materials and techniques used in a set sequence. For this reason, we can see the following rules:

Language teaching methods: (teacher -focused)

- * Audio lingual method
- * Communicative language teaching
- * Competency –based language teaching
- * Direct method
- * Grammar –translation method
- * Natural approach
- * Oral and situational language teaching
- * Lexical approach
- * Silent way
- * Suggestopedia
- * Task –based language teaching
- * Total physical response

According to the above instruction, we can perceive overall strategies or approaches of language teaching styles for language teachers. On the one hand, today the process of English communicative learning will be more student – centered, but less time consuming. Therefore, it is promised that the educating quality will be improved and student`s applied English communication can be successfully cultivated, meaning that students` conversational capabilities will be further developed. Language in education would ordinarily create such naturally acquired language skill, enriching it through the improvement of literacy into a tool for abstract thought along with the acquisition of academic knowledge. Language teachers use a wide range of local stories, texts or English translation of literature in the classroom. The use of language as well as the use of various accents in listening activities or tests are widely inspired in the English language classroom. With the procreation of means of communication, such as smart phones, tablets and computers, it is inclined that textbooks will disappear in a few years. Additionally, the access to knowledge in terms of adjustment and movement has dramatically changed. Teaching in language classes concentrates on encouraging the learners thinking and language content, outcomes within learning

techniques or approaches. There are significant and complicated student –teacher interactions inside and outside the classroom. In a knowledge based society as well as to below remain competitive and employable, teachers are expected to engage in a continuous professional development or the professional learning activities from the starting to the end of their careers. As with any other profession, teachers are also expected to assume a greater responsibility for their own professional learning, continually developing their knowledge and capabilities. Having realized the need of the hour: the English teachers convene distinctive kinds of conferences along with seminars to flourish or create a platform and to get to find out the upcoming ideologies in the English language teaching and also to upgrade themselves professionally. It is undoubtedly true that the fifth capacities, namely reading, writing, speaking, listening and grammar of language possibilities the efficiency to use grammatical structures with accuracy. Academic qualification merely may not assist teachers to grow professionally, on the other hand, they need to be equipped themselves with the up-to-date practices. What is more, the educating materials are being used in our country are nearly made available around the world. There had been so several methodologies of teaching English language. In addition to the aspect of globalization which is inseparable from English teaching is an advancement of Information and Communication Technology [2]. New directions in English language educating like interactive approach or strategy of teaching English is increased as a consequence of sustain research by the central board of secondary education (CBSE New Delhi). This approach is also advocated by the Indian Council of School education(ICSE New Delhi). It is known that “to interact” means to communicate which each other during the interaction. Its means give the information, thoughts unfamiliar to receiver. In this case, we ought to focused on the below statement: “Interacting approach it related to the actual use of language”. [3] We can also look through the following instruction: Interactive methods: Brainstorming, chain drills, Think pair and share, Discussion, Debates, Role playing, Project work, Group work, Aquarium, Microphone It is universally

accepted that below (interactive) teaching styles are “Brainstorming”, “Think pair and share” and so on. In interactive method some point of views are followed the leader, Test Tournaments, YouTube, Videos Quizzes, One word, Opposite Arguments, Total Physical Response (TPR), Electronic Role Playing, Puzzle pieces. It is undeniably true that such types of methods are extremely helpful to arrange teaching and learning processes successfully. For example, “Brainstorming” as well as “Think pair or share” are very crucial for both language learner and teacher. Hence, such kinds of methods can persuade both of them to reckon logically, to analyze the thought appropriately, to express the ideas clearly, to assist to criticize or judge various views autonomously or to adapt the new atmosphere in any conditions, or else to strengthen language learners’ ability [4]. Taking into everything consideration it is concluded that above factor the utilizing interactive ways or methods into educating and learning foreign languages process is one of the most pivotal solutions to overcome the issue. Besides that, it is undeniably true that teacher should be skillful and experienced at not only educating foreign languages, but also organizing the connection between the lessons and innovative technologies nearly professionally. The reason for this is that modern approaches and methods are efficient in teaching English language comprehensively.

The innovation that the researcher talks in the paper certain both to methodology and materials used in language teaching. Moreover, this article brings out the subtle distinction between the scholarly perception of language as treated in research and pedagogy. The argument advances as the paper proceeds with trends of education with specific reference to the Indian scenario, methodologies adopted, the bygone methods, the peer practice, the present trend, new teaching design, new devices, the need for change, the ICT and English language. English language teaching has undergone tremendous changes over the years, especially the last ten years.

Students are burdened with studying, learning and grasping the materials, and of course, lectures with the collections of relevant information from prescribed texts. Many career alternatives once regarded insignificant are gaining importance at present such as communication skills, soft skills, technical skills, interpersonal skills, ICT literacy etc. The need for chiseled graduates to merge successfully in the tough competition of survival in the global market is in great demand nowadays. For this, a change in the trend especially the teaching learning process of English language has to undergo a transition for the betterment. Seasons change, fashions changes, attitudes of human beings change but it is disheartening to note that in the last century English curriculum has hardly undergone any change. There had been much of changes in the attitude of people as to what they perceive to be a language. Rigid curriculums and huge syllabi continue to threaten students who speak regional dialect but love to excel in English. The history of foreign language has always been an important practical concern. It was Latin which dominates various fields like education, commerce, religion and government in the western world. In 16th Century French, Italian and English achieve lot of importance as result of political changes in Europe. As the status of Latin language from that of living language to teaching subject in school curriculum. The study of classical Latin and analysis of its grammar becomes the model from Foreign Languages study from 17th to 19th century. In 21st Century we are going to teach communicative language teaching. According to Kripa K Gautam, “English Language Teaching” - A critical study of methods and approaches have provided account of history of language teaching methods. Methodologies Adapted in Earlier days Communication is the groundwork based on which any idea can progress and develop into a fully fledged one. Without that, sustenance in any field is impossible. During the last decade, various crucial factors have combined to affect the current ideologies of teaching of English such as the ineffective methodologies, unsuitable materials, and integration of contextualized teaching, over emphasis on multi language skills etc. Teachers who practiced Grammar

Translation method during the previous decade solely relied on black board as the apt tool to impart communication skills and the nuances of English language. Later on, over head projectors, acted as another medium for the teacher dominated class room. Such teachers believed in the dictum of drill and practice. Researchers had given more emphasis on authentic and meaningful contextualized discourse. Then they focused on a successful adult second language learning as a parallel process to a child's first language acquisition. With the advent of ecommunication, it has been made possible for the English language teachers to enrich their profession. Basically, the teacher controls the instructional process, the content is delivered to the entire class and the teacher tends to emphasize factual knowledge

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Thus, the learning mode trends to be passive and the learners play little part in their learning process. It has been found in most universities by many teachers and students that the conventional lecture approach in classroom is of limited effectiveness in both teaching and learning. This method had stayed in practice for a good period of time due to its focus on the functional use of English. But, still this method was marred with setbacks like there were many issues with this method. It needed a lot of time, good budget and a small class size. And even in some situations, it was not very useful. These issues led to another Method that is called Audio-Lingual Method. The direct method is natural method of teaching foreign language its makes use of Audio-Visual Aids. The direct method originated in France in 1801. The direct method develops as a reaction against GTM. Its basic principle is that pupils should think directly in foreign language. DM is to teach language directly at aims to create direct bond between the word and meaning,

thought and expression. It's also improving the pupil's pronunciation. In 21st Century there is rise of communicative methodology. Which emphasize real meaning communication method than activity, topic and situations which are artificial and remote from pupil's lies. Modern Trends of Teaching English The process of English communication learning will be more student-centered but less time consuming. Therefore, it promises that the teaching quality will be improved and students' applied English communication can be effectively cultivated, meaning that students' communicative competence will be further developed. Language in education would ideally and ordinarily build on such naturally acquired language ability, enriching it through the development of literacy into an instrument for abstract thought and the acquisition of academic knowledge. Teachers use a range of local texts or English translation of literature in the classroom. The use of language as well as the use of a variety of accents in listening activities or tests is encouraged in the English language classroom. With the proliferation of tablets and smart phones, it is believed that textbooks will disappear in a few years. Furthermore, the access to knowledge in terms of flexibility and mobility has changed drastically. Teaching in English language classes focuses on fostering the students thinking as well as language content, outcomes and learning activities. There are significant and complex student-teacher interactions inside and outside the classroom. In a knowledge based society and to remain competitive and employable, teachers are expected to engage in a continuous professional development or the professional learning activities from the beginning to the end of their careers. As with any other profession, teachers are also expected to assume a greater responsibility for their own professional learning, continually developing their knowledge and skills.

Having realized the need of the hour: the English teachers convene different types of conferences and seminars to create a platform and to get to know the upcoming ideologies in the ELT and also to upgrade themselves professionally. It is the fifth skills of language that enables the efficiency to use grammatical

structures with accuracy. Academic qualification alone may not help teachers to grow professionally, on the other hand, they need to be equipped themselves with the current practices. The teaching materials that are being used in our country are almost made available all over the world. There had been too many methodologies of teaching English language. The third dimension of globalization which is inseparable from English teaching is an advancement of Information and Communication Technology. New trends in English language teaching like interactive approach of teaching English is develop as a result of sustain research by the central board of secondary education (CBSE New Delhi). This approach also recommended by the Indian Council of School Education (ICSE New Delhi). To interact means to communicate which each other during interaction. Its means give the information, thoughts unknown to receiver. “Interacting Approach it related to the actual use of language”. So interactive teaching styles are Brain Storming, Think pair and share, Buzz session, incident process, Q and A session. In Interactive approach some ideas are follow the leader, Total Physical Response (TPR), One word, Opposite Arguments, Test Tournaments, YouTube Videos Quizzes, Electronic Role Playing, Puzzle pieces. Communicative language teaching (CLT) emphasize on the process of communication rather than the mastery of language. Some time the term functional approach is use for communicative approach or communicative method. Communicative approach based on the concept of ‘communicative competence’ which originally introduced H D Hymns. In is article on communicative competence published in, “New origins in Linguistics’ in 1971. The communicative approach emphasizes real meaningful communication rather than the activity, topic and situation which are artificial and remote from student’s lives.

5.2. Communicative approaches.

According to geeta Nagraj, “The Development of Language Learning from based to meaning based approach”. Communicative approach in was three principle

1. Which involve real communication

2. Which involves various activities.

3. Which emphasize that language is meaningful to the learners

Web Based Learning Web based learning is one of the fastest developing areas. There are thousands of English web based classes that offer trainings for a variety of basic language skills such as Learning, Speaking, Reading and Writing and are made interactive in a variety of ways. Some of the common technologies available for promotion of education are as follows: The students can correspond with native speakers of the target language using a email by creating a personal email account (g-mail, yahoo, hotmail, etc) which is free.

The students can mail their home work to the teachers concerned and get it corrected in turn. The teacher can also provide revisions, feedback, suggestions for the betterment of every work and send them back. A blog is a personal or professional journal frequently updated for public consumption. The blogs enable uploading and linking the files which is very much suited to serve as on line personal journals for students. Blogging becomes communicative and interactive when participants assume multiple roles in the writing process, as readers/reviewers who respond to other writer's posts, and as writers-readers who, returning to their own posts, react to criticism of their own posts. The readers in turn can comment on what they read, although blogs can be placed in secured environments as well. Every internet service has audio functions, and technological instruments like laptops with cameras. The students could communicate with their teachers and friends who are far away. Likewise, they could very well communicate with the speakers of native language and get their pronunciation checked so as to improve their speaking. Learners can search for new words using dictionary option in the mobile phones and enrich their vocabulary. They may verify the spelling pronunciations and usage of the specific word they searched for. Moreover, they can use Short Message Service (SMS) to send queries to their instructors and get their doubts cleared. iPods', one of the multimedia devices, enhance to users to generate, deliver, exchange texts, image, audio and video

scripts as per the requirement. The teachers send text messages and the students can read and answer to them. Suggestopedia Suggestopedia is a teaching method developed by the Bulgarian psychotherapist Dr. Georgi Lozenov. Suggestopedia has been called a pseudoscience. It strongly depends on the trust that students develop towards the method by simply believing in its work. The purpose of suggestopedia is to enhance learning by tapping into the power of suggestion. Suggestopedia is a system for liberation from the 'preliminary negative concept regarding the difficulties in the process of learning'. Suggestopedia is a pedagogic application of suggestion. It helps learners to overcome the feeling that they cannot be successful and remove their mental barriers to learning.

New Age Devices This year, the consumer Electronics Show (CES) which was held at Las Vegas, gave a glimpse of ground breaking devices purely meant for students. These showpieces ranged from 3D printers to smart watches. The youth's requirements are matched by a new age device, be it studies or social media, travel or portability. The media streaming devices like the Google Chromecast and the Roku make group studies become interactive and presentations surprisingly fulfilled ones. One has to stream the media on to a smart TV using a dongle. Another blessing is the e-reader for the on-the-move generation. The all new Kindle Paperwhite is a boon. Students can just tuck in the e-reader for easy reference. The portable document scanner like the Doxie Flip Cordless Flatbed Photo and notebook scanner are used to get notes sorted. Other devices like the Canon and Olympus which have come with voice recorders can be utilized to record all the English lectures and be played as and when time permits.

A Common Framework of Reference for Languages aims to provide a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum, what learners have to learn, skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively. A clear description of the content in terms of linguistic competency, sociolinguistic competency and pragmatic competency constitutes a language. Using descriptor scales, learner's proficiency is measured. Descriptors consist of a series of can do statements which received a great deal of attention. The learner's

involvement and teacher's empowerment are stressed during the teaching and learning processes. The conventional method of teaching wherein the teacher enjoys the monopoly of teaching sometimes even obliterates the pressure of the learners. Role of Modern Teacher Researchers defined the term role as technical term which originally comes from sociology and refers to the shared expectation of how an individual should behave. Several methodologies have evolved different roles for a language teacher. Richards and Rodgers conceive a teacher's role as a part of design, component of a method. Little Wood conceptualized the role of the teacher as a facilitator of learning, an overseer, a classroom manager, a consultant or adviser and at times a co-communicator with the learners. To Harmer, a teacher plays the role of controller, organizer, assessor, promoter, participant, resource, tutor and observer. Task Based Language Teaching is the current paradigm is basically an off shoot of Communicative Language Teaching. Experimental learning or learning by doing as the main conceptual basis for the TBLT. The TBLT breaks down the barriers of the traditional classroom, because in the TBLT, the role of the learner is significantly altered. The teacher becomes a true facilitator or learning for the language learners, purely by means of dialogic communication. The teacher's role is not shunned altogether but is restricted: the teacher is expected to be guide by the side. The role of teachers how will describe as follows:

1. Facilitator
2. Independent participant
3. Needs analyst
4. Counselor
5. Group processing manager

Questions:

1. What kind of teacher-focused methods are in language teaching?
2. What kind of methods are very crucial for both language learner and teacher, such kinds of methods can persuade both of them to reckon logically, to analyze the thought appropriately, to express the ideas clearly, to assist to criticize or judge?

3. What classes offer trainings for a variety of basic language skills such as Learning, Speaking, Reading and Writing and are made interactive in a variety of ways?

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Practical lesson 6.

Designing materials. Authentic materials

Plan:

6.1. Demonstrating knowledge of the principles of using, adapting and preparing educational kits and packages

6.2. Basic principles involved when preparing materials

6.1. DEMONSTRATING KNOWLEDGE OF THE PRINCIPLES OF USING, ADAPTING AND PREPARING EDUCATIONAL KITS AND PACKAGES

Learning outcomes

By the end of the unit, you should be able to:

1. Explain how to use, adapt and prepare educational kits and packages.
2. Outline the basic principles involved.
3. Describe how typical materials are adapted.

This unit will help you understand how to adapt and prepare reading materials for adults. The basic principles involved when choosing materials are discussed. The unit explains how to adapt materials for the teaching of adults.

How to adapt and prepare educational kits and packages

What do we mean by “adapting” materials?

Adaptation is a method for accommodating diverse learner needs in a classroom.

There are certain factors to be considered during this process.

The process of adapting materials is based on the idea that all learners can learn, but not all learners can learn at the same pace. Facilitators use this understanding to prepare materials that will meet the diversity of the learners in the classroom.

Adapting materials focuses mainly on the content and how the individual learners cope with learning. The main purpose of adapting materials is to promote learning.

During the adaptation process the facilitator can ask the following questions:

- What will all students learn?
- What can most students learn?
- What can some students learn?

Before we can discuss how to adapt and prepare educational kits and packages, it is important to briefly discuss the characteristics of adult learners.

1. Adults bring a lot of life experience and knowledge into the classroom. This means that as an adult education specialist or facilitator, you should always remember that adult learners are not empty vessels waiting for you to pour knowledge into their heads.
2. Adults should be assisted to learn different skills such as writing and reading based on their needs or purposes.
3. Adults move from dependent to self-dependent and self-directed learning.
4. Adults are self-motivated; their motivation to learn comes from within themselves, and it is sometimes driven by their current needs and background.
5. Adult learners can also be described as voluntary learners because they participate in the classes out of choice. They are not compelled to attend classes.

Now let us look at how to use, adapt and prepare educational kits and packages for adult learners.

There are certain important guidelines that a facilitator should consider when preparing materials for adults. As a facilitator you must note that adult learners learn differently when compared to the school going children. Sometimes, this is referred to as “andragogy”, which is the art of teaching adults. It is based on the five assumptions about the characteristics of adult learners given above.

The most important point about adult learners is that they come to centres of learning for different reasons and with different needs.

Therefore, as an adult expect/facilitator/tutor you need to know the following about your learners:

- their background
- why they have enrolled in the ABET centre
- what they want to learn
- why they want to learn now

The answers to these questions will assist you to create a profile of your learners. All planning and selection materials to be used in the classroom should be guided by the learners' needs. Learning should be learner-centred. Learners must be treated with respect; a facilitator should not use materials that promote stereotyping in terms of the gender, race or other characteristics of the learners.

As Miss Masemola was preparing for her series of lessons on women, she thought about her learners and what each would understand and how they could cope with the work.

She knew that the quick learners would become frustrated with the slower learners if she did not organise her material to meet the needs of different individuals.

The best way of doing this was to prepare a kit for the month for each learner which they could work at their own pace. It would contain simple exercises with learners drawing up plans and discussing their daily work. The kit would also contain more complicated work, such as the Domestic Violence Act Bill and the Labour Relations Act. In this way the faster-paced learners would be challenged while Mrs Masemola worked with the slower learners.

Learning kits

These contain readers and exercise books as well as handouts and exercises for the learners to do. To cater for both slow and fast learners, the kits contain simple materials and exercises which gradually increase in difficulty, so each learner can learn at his or her own pace.

When writing, selecting and preparing learning materials for the learners, the facilitator must be guided by the premise that students learn in different ways and at varying speeds. Therefore, they need different instructional support. “One size fits all” teaching materials are not appropriate.

Adaptive instruction has to be considered when dealing with a diverse group. When using an adaptive instruction strategy, the facilitator adopts a variety of instructional methods and tailors them to the needs of the individual learner. Specific interventions for each learner are used to increase the learner’s ability to learn and perform better in the learning environment.

6.2. Basic principles involved when preparing materials

Educators need to learn the skills of using any print media in the classroom as a resource for creativity and inspiration and as a learning tool for their learners.

Need analysis of the learners

What is “need analysis”? It is a way of finding out exactly what a particular target group, e.g. adult learners, needs. Therefore, the concept “need analysis” includes the process of finding out what the target group needs. Remember that learners have different needs all the time/every year.

Why is the need analysis process important?

It enables the facilitator or the ABET specialist to design programmes that will meet the needs of individual learners or that particular group. Learners can benefit a lot from programmes which are designed specifically for their needs.

There is a checklist that should be followed when selecting adult learners’ materials.

This checklist will help you as an adult education specialist to select the best materials to use when teaching your adult learners. These materials should also address the problems of the ABET learners.

The checklist should include the following points:

- Select materials that will meet the special needs and interest of the adult learner.
- Make objective judgements based on a clear evaluation process.
- Provide individualised instruction that relates to the particular knowledge, abilities and informational needs of adult students.
- Identify and classify material for placement in a filing/retrieval system.
- Assist in staff development by providing a mechanism for sharpening staff judgments.

The following could be a checklist for evaluating a specific type of material:

- Is the content realistic?
- Is the content relevant to the needs of the learners?
- Is the content stimulating?
- Is the content motivating?
- Does the content take into account the knowledge and experiences of the learners?
- Does the content lead to opportunities of self-discovery?
- Does the content contribute to the development of thinking skills (cognitive), attitudes and values (affective) and psychomotor skills?
- Is the content practical enough for the learners?
- Does the content offer possibilities for learners' inputs and choices?
- Does the content have a balance in terms of extent and depth of the topic?
- Does the content cover the needs of the community, the country or the world?
- Is the content representative and relevant to the subject?
- Does the content contribute to the functional empowering the learners?
- Does the content contribute to the full development of the learners?

Looking through her file, Miss Masemola came across a story which had been written by one of the students at the ABET Department at Unisa. It was headed “Woman’s Work”. “I could use this”, she thought, “even though it is about a woman in a rural area. Many of my learners have come here from rural areas to work. Others have relatives whom they visit. It would be interesting to compare women’s work in different areas.”

Woman’s work

There was a man called Tshovalakhe. He had a wife called Ntombi. They had three children. They lived in Zongozi location in a rural area.

Every day Ntombi woke up early in the morning. She went to fetch water from the river. Tshovalakhe had to go to the mealie fields to plough. He left Ntombi doing all the domestic work at home. She also looked after the children at home. Every time Tshovalakhe came back from the mealie field, he wanted food. If the meal was not ready he would become angry with Ntombi and shout loudly. His poor wife would apologise and prepare food quickly.

Tshovalakhe told his wife that she was very lazy. There was nothing hard about working at home. Ntombi had no reason for not preparing food in time for him. As Ntombi respected him, she kept quiet and did what her husband ordered her to do.

One day Tshovalakhe became tired of his food not being ready. He asked Ntombi to do all the work in the fields. He said he was going to stay at home and do his wife’s domestic work. Ntombi woke up early in the morning and went to the mealie fields, leaving her husband behind.

When Ntombi came back from the mealie fields she found that most of the work was not done. Everything was a mess. Food was not ready for her.

She did not shout at her husband. She knew that a man cannot do domestic work. Tshovalakhe was very sorry and he apologised to his wife for shouting at her. He said that he had learned a lesson that day. He would never again call Ntombi lazy. He respected his wife and never insulted her domestic work again. Written by Lindelwa Cynthia Mki

Activity

Look at the above story written by Lindelwa Cynthia Mki.

1. Does it fulfil the requirements of the checklist?

2. Do you think Mrs Masemola could use the story in one of her lessons?
How?

We think that the content is relevant and could be empowering. It may not be realistic, as few men would agree to take over domestic work. However, this could stimulate discussion on the different roles men and women play culturally and socially and how these could be changed.

Mrs Masemola knows about the problems her learners face. She is well aware of the struggle they have to survive, and tries to develop learning kits which will help them.

3. Describe how you can adapt the story to teach adult learners about poverty and community development in your community or one you know well.

Practicals or fieldwork for learners

Let us assume that you work for a recognised educational institution in South Africa.

You are doing a project on unemployment in one of the rural communities. Questions that you can ask the target group/community members can include the following:

- What is your age, gender, qualification/educational background, skills and hobbies?

- What language do you prefer to use as medium of instruction?
- What are the problems that are faced by your community?

Activity

1. Do a need analysis of your village or community/the area you live in.
2. Ask what problems the village/community is currently faced with.
 - Try to prioritise the problems; start with the serious ones which need to be solved with immediate effect.
 - Indicate how you would work with the community to solve these problems.
3. Write detailed information about the target group, including the following points:
 - Age group
 - Gender
 - Qualifications/educational backgrounds
 - Skills
 - Hobbies
 - The language they prefer to use as medium of instruction
4. After analysing the information:
 - Decide on what to do next with the data you have gathered.
 - Explain the programme you plan to carry out.
 - Collect print media materials that illustrate the current state of your community.
 - Collect print media materials that will show changes after your intervention.

The information you have gathered will help you decide whether to continue or discontinue the programme you had in mind. If the programme is suitable, decide how it can best assist the target group or community members. However, if the programme you have in mind is not suitable for

the needs of the target group or community members, you must stop the programme and start a new one which will cater for the needs of the learners.

Conclusion

The most important rule that facilitators and adult education experts should consider is: teaching adults is not a process of instructing, but a process of enabling them to have a voice; it must also assist them to play a major role in their societies and communities. Valuing the experience, knowledge and insights of others, and working to strengthen these rather than weaken them, are basic to all approaches to teaching adults. The approach which is used to teach adults seeks to encourage the development of a listening society as opposed to a talking and shouting society.

In this unit you learned how to use, adapt and prepare educational kits and packages that will be suitable to the needs of your learners. You also learned about the importance of doing need analysis before and after implementing a programme.

Activity

1. List three characteristics of an adult learner.

2. What do you understand by the concept “andragogy”?

3. Why is it necessary to do need analysis of the targeted group/learners?

4. List three checklists to be used when selecting reading materials for adult learners.

5. After analysing the information you have gathered when investigating a community, what is the next step?

6. The information you have gathered will help you decide on the following:

7. What important information do you think was not captured in this unit?

8. What did you learn in this unit?

Theoretical questions:

1. Techniques can be used for successful learning in a set of TESOL
2. Aspects of learner autonomy are necessary to capture the essence of the postmethod learner
3. Learners have a choice of topics, presentation methods and supporting materials of different levels.
4. Teacher-focused methods are in language teaching.
5. New trends in English language teaching
6. Teaching method developed by the Bulgarian psychotherapist Dr. Georgi Lozenoves that has been called a pseudoscience.
7. Four specific aims of teaching English.
8. The Decree of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan.
9. The Resolution of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan.
10. Objectives have three characteristics.

V. KYeYSLAR

1-case

Acquiring relevant knowledge about students and using that knowledge to inform course design and classroom teaching.

2-case

Teaching is more effective and student learning is enhanced by assessments

3-case

When teachers wish to change, they have to change not only their methods and materials but also their attitudes and beliefs.

4-case

Task-based learning benefits students because it is meaningful communication, and often provides for practical extra-linguistic skill building

5-case

Independent learning can be developed by theories of Jordan Whitworth, Head of Religion, Ethics and Philosophy and the school's lead NACE coordinator.

VI. GLOSSARY

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| Academic language | Language used in the learning of academic subject matter in formal schooling context; aspects of language strongly associated with literacy and academic achievement, including specific academic terms or technical language, and speech registers related to each field of study. |
| Accuracy | The use of correct forms of grammar, vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation. In an accuracy activity, teachers and learners typically focus on using and producing language correctly. See fluency . |
| Activity-based learning | A way of learning by doing activities. The rules of language used in the activity are looked at either after the activity or not at all. |
| Aids | Aids are the things that a teacher uses in a class, e.g. handouts, pictures, flashcards. When teachers plan lessons they think about what aids they will need. See also visual aid . Aids to teaching include (a) Visual: Blackboard, whiteboard, overhead projector, realia, posters, wall charts, flipcharts, maps, plans, flashcards, word cards, and puppets. (b) Electronic: Tape recorder, TV or video player, computer, CD Rom, language laboratory. |
| Basic skills | The skills and competences needed to function in contemporary society, e.g. listening, speaking, reading and writing. |
| Brainstorm (v.) | To think of ideas (usually quickly) about a topic (often noting these down). This is often done as preparation before writing or speaking activity. |
| Case study | An intensive study of an aspect of behaviour, either at one period in time, or over a long period of time, e.g. the language development of a child over one year. The ~ method provides an opportunity to collect detailed information which may not be observable using other research techniques (compare cross-sectional method), and is usually based on the assumption that the information gathered on a particular individual, group, community, etc. will also be true of the other individuals, groups or communities. |
| CEFR | Acronym for <i>Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment</i> . Written by a team of international experts grouped as co-authors under the title Council for Cultural Cooperation Education |

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| | Committee, Modern Languages Division, Strasbourg. Editions exist in a range of European languages. The publication seeks to analyse and describe in a comprehensive way language teaching and learning, language use and language performance in all possible contexts. It also explores in detail a wide range of types of assessment (scales, levels, performance indicators, etc). |
| Curriculum (pl. curricula) | A set of actions followed when setting up a training course: it includes defining training goals, content, methods (including assessment) and material, as well as arrangements for training teachers and trainers. See syllabus . |
| Dictation (n.), dictate (v.) | An activity which typically involves the learners in writing down what the teacher reads aloud. See picture dictation . |
| ELT | English Language Teaching or Training—A term coined in the UK and designed to replace EFL. It is in use around the world but has yet to catch on in the USA where the same phenomenon is referred to as TESOL |
| Feedback (n., v.), give / provide feedback | The response learners get when they attempt to communicate. This can involve correction, acknowledgement, requests for clarification, backchannel cues (e.g., "mmm"). Feedback plays an important role in helping learners to test their ideas about the target language. 1. To tell someone how well they are doing. Teachers might give learners feedback at a certain point in the course, or after an exercise that learners have just completed. In addition, learners can give feedback to teachers and teacher trainers give feedback to trainee teachers. 2. To communicate to a speaker that you understand (or not) what they are saying. |
| Grammar Translation Method | The Grammar translation method or classical method emerged when people of the western world wanted to learn ‘foreign’ languages. Until the 17th century much of the language teaching involved Latin. Its focus was on grammatical rules, the memorisation of vocabulary and of various declensions and conjugations, translations of texts, doing written exercises. The so-called grammar-translation method remained the dominant foreign language teaching method in Europe until the 1940s, and in some parts of the world a somewhat altered version is still used. One can say that while the GT method tends to see language as being learnt as a series of facts to be poured into the learners head, the teacher is considered the fount of knowledge and the |

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| | <p>learner is seen as a passive receiver. A class working with the Grammar translation Method would look like that: 1. Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language. 2. Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words. 3. Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given. 4. Grammar provides the rule for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words. 5. Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early. 6. Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.</p> |
| Handout, worksheet | <p>A piece of paper with exercises, activities or tasks on it that a teacher gives to learners for a range of reasons during a class or for reference or homework.</p> |
| Integrated skills | <p>An integrated skills lesson combines work on more than one language skill. For example reading and then writing or listening and speaking.</p> |
| Interaction patterns | <p>The different ways learners and the teacher work together in class, e.g. learner to learner, in pairs or groups or teacher to learner, in open class, in plenary. When teachers plan lessons, they think about interaction patterns and write them on their plan.</p> |
| Jigsaw listening/reading | <p>A text is divided into two or more different parts. Learners listen to or read their part only, then share their information with other learners so that in the end everyone knows all the information. In this way, the text is made into an <i>information-gap activity</i>.</p> |
| Language awareness | <p>Approaches to teaching language which emphasise the value of helping learners to focus attention on features of language in use. Most such approaches emphasise the importance of learners gradually developing their own awareness of how the language is used through discoveries which they make themselves. It is also a learner's understanding of the rules of how language works and his/her ability to notice language.</p> |
| Learning style | <p>The way in which an individual learner naturally prefers to learn something. There are many learning styles. Three of them are below. Auditory learner A learner who remembers things more easily when they hear them spoken. This type of learner may like the teacher to say a new word aloud and not just write it on the board. Kinaesthetic learner A learner who learns more easily by doing things physically. This type of learner may like to move around or</p> |

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| | <p>move objects while learning. Visual learner A learner who finds it easier to learn when they can see things written down or in a picture. This type of learner may like the teacher to write a new word on the board and not just say it aloud. Further examples of different styles are analytic vs. holistic processing; auditory, visual or kinaesthetic etc. One of these may</p> <p>dominate and often they exist in unequal combination. The way(s) that particular learners prefer to learn a language. Some have a preference for hearing the language (auditory learners), some for seeing it written down (visual learners), some for learning it in discrete bits (analytic learners), some for experiencing it in large chunks (global or holistic or experiential learners) and many prefer to do something physical whilst experiencing the language (kinaesthetic learners).</p> |
| Method | A method is an overall plan for systematic presentation of language – a set of procedures based on a selected approach. |
| Methodology | ~ is the implementation of learning objectives through teaching procedures. It is based on principles deriving from theories of language description, language learning and language use. Methodology may focus on how teachers deal with the four main skills of speaking, writing, listening and reading or on specific aspects of language such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. |
| Overhead projector (OHP) | A piece of equipment that makes images appear on a wall or screen. It can be used in a classroom instead of a whiteboard or blackboard. |
| Overhead transparency (OHT) | The plastic sheet a teacher can write on and use with an overhead projector (OHP). |
| Portfolio | A collection of various samples of a student's work throughout the school year that can include writing samples, examples of math problems, and results of science experiments. This collection of work can be used by a learner to show what he/she has done during a particular course. A purposeful document, regularly added to that may be part of continuous assessment . It may contain evaluative checklists (completed by the individual learner and/or others about him/her), samples of written work, examination results, certificates etc, and other evidence of learning (cassettes, software etc). All these elements are assembled in a portfolio as evidence of an individual's performance. See |

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| | portfolio assessment. |
| Post-method | Post-method can be defined as the construction of classroom procedures and principles by the teacher himself/herself based on his/her prior and experiential knowledge and/or certain strategies. Kumaravadivelu (1994) identified what he called the 'postmethod condition', a result of 'the widespread dissatisfaction with the conventional concept of method'. Post-method has three pedagogic parameters, which make it distinct from the concept of method: particularity, practicality, possibility. |
| Pre-teach (vocabulary) | Before introducing a text to learners, the teacher can teach key vocabulary from the text which s/he thinks the learners do not already know and which is necessary for them to understand the main points of a text. |
| Productive skills | When learners produce language. Speaking and writing are productive skills. See receptive skills. |
| Qualification | 1. An official record (certificate, diploma) of achievement which recognises successful completion of education or training, or satisfactory performance in a test or examination; and/or 2. The requirements for an individual to enter, or progress within an occupation. |
| Receptive skills | When learners do not have to produce language; listening and reading are receptive skills. See productive skills. |
| Resources | ~ are the variety of sources teachers can draw on in the process of locating, selecting and/or producing ideas, texts, activities, tasks and reference materials useful for their learners. See aids, reference materials, learning resources. |
| Self-access centre, learning centre | A place with learning resources such as books, computers and cassettes where learners can study by themselves. |
| Self-access materials | Materials designed for learners to use independently (i.e. on their own without access to a teacher or a classroom). They are normally used by the learner at home, in a library or in a self-study centre. |
| SLA | This is an abbreviation for Second Language Acquisition and is normally used to refer to research and theory related to the learning of second and foreign languages. |
| Structural approach | A way of teaching which uses a syllabus based on grammatical structures. The order in which the language is presented is usually based on how difficult it is thought to be. |
| Suggestopaedia | Derived from Bulgarian psychologist Georgi Lozanov, Suggestopaedia has not been as successful as CLL. The idea |

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| | brought by Lozanov was that people should be able to learn a lot more when the right conditions for learning would be set. Drawn from insight of psychological research on extrasensory perception and from yoga, Suggestopaedia capitalized on relaxed states of mind for maximum retention of material. Music, with specific rhythm, was central to this method. The followers would "experiment" the foreign language with the presentation of vocabulary, readings, dialogs, role-plays, drama, and a variety of other typical classroom activities. |
| Syllabus (pl. syllabi) | This describes the language and skills to be covered on a course, and the order in which they will be taught. See curriculum . |
| Target language | 1. The language which is the focus of the lesson or a part of the lesson. It could be grammar, lexis, functions or pronunciation. 2. The language being studied (often called the L2). This is the language that the learner is attempting to learn. |
| Task-based learning (TBL) | A way of teaching in which the teacher gives learners meaningful tasks to do. After this the teacher may ask learners to think about the language they used while doing the tasks, but the main focus for learners is on the task itself. Project work is often task-based. |
| Teacher-centred | When the teacher is seen as the source of all knowledge in the learning process and acts as the provider of knowledge rather than making use of the knowledge and experience of the students to guide the learning process. |
| Technique | A technique is a specific classroom device or activity, [such as a role-play] that is consistent with a method and therefore in harmony with an approach. Some techniques are used in more than one method, e.g. modelling & repetition. |
| Total Physical Response (TPR) | A way of teaching in which the teacher presents language items in instructions and the learners have to do exactly what the teacher tells them, e.g. <i>Open the window. Stand up.</i> Over the years, language teachers have intuitively recognized the value of associating language with physical activity. James Asher (1977) developed the Total Physical Response method from this idea. In addition to evolve around that concept, the method also combines insights from children language acquisition concepts. Asher believed that the process of learning should include a lot of reading and listening before acting. He also gave importance |

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| | to "right brained" learning, whereas the right brain hosts motor activity. In a TPR classroom, the students would a great deal of listening and acting. The teacher would give many directives for the students perform the acting. As Asher quoted, "The instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors." This over-directing attitude of the teacher was believed to reduce stress for the students, and therefore facilitate learning. |
| Utterance | A complete unit of speech in spoken language. An utterance can be shorter than a sentence, e.g. A: <i>When's he coming?</i> B: <i>Tomorrow.</i> 'Tomorrow' is an utterance here. |
| Visual aid | A picture, a diagram or anything else the learners can look at which can help teachers illustrate form or meaning. See aids, realia. |
| Whole-word-method | A method for teaching children to read in the mother tongue, in which children are taught to recognize whole words rather than letter-names (as in the alphabetic method) or sounds (as in phonics). It usually leads to the use of the sentence method, where whole sentences are used. |

VII. FOYDALANILGAN ADABIYOTLAR RO'YXATI

ADABIYOTLAR RO'YXATI

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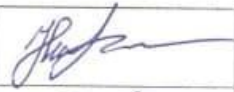



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32. <http://lex.uz> – O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Qonun hujjatlari ma’lumotlari milliy bazasi

33. <http://bimm.uz> – Oliy ta’lim tizimi pedagog va rahbar kadrlarini qayta tayyorlash va ularning malakasini oshirishni tashkil etish bosh ilmiy-metodik markazi
34. <http://ziyonet.uz> – Ta’lim portali Ziyonet
35. www.britishcouncil.org -Britaniya kengashi veb sayti
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37. www.tefl.net- Til o‘rganish veb sayti
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**Samarqand davlat universiteti huzuridagi pedagogik kadrlarni qayta tayyorlash va ularning malakasini oshirish mintaqaviy markazida 2022 yil yanvar oyida o'tkaziladigan Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish: ingliz tili yo'nalishi o'quv-uslubiy majmualari bo'yicha
EKSPERT XULOSASI**

Samarqand davlat universiteti huzuridagi pedagogik kadrlarni qayta tayyorlash va ularning malakasini oshirish mintaqaviy markazida 2022 yil yanvar oyida oliy ta'lim muassasalari professor-o'qituvchilarining "Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish: ingliz tili" yo'nalishi qayta tayyorlash va malaka oshirish kursi mutaxassislik fanlaridan tuzilgan o'quv-uslubiy majmualar va chiqish testi savollari maxsus fanlar blokidagi modullarning o'quv dasturiga mos va uni to'liq qamrab olgan holda tuzilgan. Test savolari 4 ta muqobil javobda tuzilib, 1 ta to'g'ri javobni o'z ichiga oladi. O'quv-uslubiy majmua va test savollari qo'yilgan talablarga javob beradi.

Ekspertlar

| | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---|
| Nasrullaeva Nafisa Zafarovna | SamDChTI, ingliz tilshunosligi kafedrasini professori, f.f.d. |  |
| Obrueva Gulchexra Xamrakulovna | SamDChTI, ingliz tilshunosligi kafedrasini mudiri, f.f.n. |  |
| Meliev Baxtiyor Abduxomidovich | SamDU mintaqaviy markaz bo'lim boshlig'i, g.f.f.d. |  |
| Murodov Qodir Qo'ldoshevich | SamDU mintaqaviy markaz muhandis-dasturchi |  |

**Mintaqaviy markaz direktori,
geografiya fanlari doktori, professor:**



 **S.B. Abbasov**