Special Course on Methods of teaching English

Course of Lectures

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Theme: Lesson Planning

Plan:

1. **Pre-planning stage**
2. **Lesson plan design**
3. **Lesson planning process**

References:

Planning involves several stages; the major two with which we are concerned at this point is UNIT PLANNING and LESSON PLANNING. Unit planning will be covered at a later point; at this stage, we will deal with individual lesson plan design.

At the Pre-Planning stage, before you actually plan your lesson, be sure you have sufficient information about the students' past and present knowledge and achievement levels. Much of the research indicates that students who are not successful in learning a lesson fail to learn because they lack the pre-requisite skills.

Try to visualize your lesson from beginning to end:

what materials will be needed

how much time does the lesson take

is the lesson appropriate for the students' level of comprehension

are you addressing a variety of learning styles and teaching at more than the basic level of recall

are you comfortable with the content - do you know the content well enough to teach it

At the Active Planning Stage, you are at the point where content - WHAT you will teach, becomes very important.

We will be using the HUNTER Model for the planning of our lessons; Madeline Hunter taught at the lab school at UCLA and was very involved in researching the methods that good teachers use in presenting their lessons. Dr. Hunter developed a planning model which will become clear later; the model of the lesson plan that you will use is based on her work.

Your lesson plan is intended to serve as YOUR guide when you teach the lesson; consequently, vague statements in your plans similar to the following are not going to assist you, "I will review the steps to develop a database." If the purpose of the lesson plan is to help insure proper planning and appropriate delivery of the lesson, you must think about the steps that students need to follow and then include those steps in your plan. The latter is especially important in light of our limited working memory; when we are teaching, we are expected to be aware of everything

that is occurring in the room (Kounin's with-it-ness or situational awareness) as well keep a focus on the lesson. That requires that the lesson serve as a guide in case our working memory gets overwhelmed - and it will! Consequently, you must list the steps that are involved in the process.

Similarly, when you "review" at the beginning of the lesson, writing a vague statement such as "I will review the basic facts in American history" there will be little guidance. Obviously, if you write a sentence like that, you have some idea of what you want to cover; however, you must list those points that you want to cover to insure that they come in proper sequence, that you have not omitted any that are crucial to the lesson, and that serve as a guide when your working memory is taxed to its limits.

Also note that that the focus in review and closure of your lesson is on the student - it is much more appropriate to write it as follows, "I will ask students to explain the major reasons for the break away from England, including: no representation in decision making, the Quartering Act, and the lack of perceived religious freedom." Note that there may be other reasons for the break, however these would have been the ones that were stressed in class and which are key in understanding today's lesson.

Before we look at individual lesson planning, let's consider some of the important aspect of the process in which you will be involved *before* you start filling out the daily lesson plan.

As you begin to plan, consider the following:

CONTENT - is the content to be learned appropriate for this group of learners?

LEARNER BEHAVIOR

input - how can this content best be delivered to these students?

output - how can the learning that has taken place be validated?

TEACHER BEHAVIOR - what can the teacher do to increase the likelihood that these students will learn?

-motivation theory

levels of concern

feeling/tone

success/level of difficulty

interest

knowledge of results

extrinsic/intrinsic rewards

-retention theory

meaning

degree of original learning

feeling tone

positive transfer

practice

meaning

modeling

monitoring

how much?

how long?

how often?

how well?

-reinforcement theory

positive

negative

extinction

schedule

transfer theory

similarity

association

degree of original learning

critical attributes

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVE - is the content to be learned stated specifically and in terms of observable student behavior?

The importance of good planning cannot be overemphasized. There are many signs which provide signals that are likely to reveal a network of related problems that will be evident in the classroom throughout the year.

PLANNING involves several components. During the course of your lesson you will be involved in the following:

Content analysis	Diagnosis
Prescription	Instruction
Evaluation	

This is a cycle which will continue every day during the year.

LESSON PLAN DESIGN

While there are some variations in lesson plan designs as well as frequency of review of plans, all lesson plans contain some common characteristics which are outlined below. As you begin your teaching career, you will spend a considerable amount of time on *planning*; you will be able to decrease the time needed as you become more familiar with the content, the pedagogy as well as the terms used in lesson plan design. Good planning can prevent many problems.

LESSON PLANNING PROCESS

Planning involves the teacher deciding what and how the students should learn; involved in the planning process are the following components:

DISTRICT/STATE/NATIONAL GOALS
KNOWLEDGE OF THE LEARNER
KNOWLEDGE OF THE SUBJECT MATTER
KNOWLEDGE OF TEACHING METHODS

At the end of each lesson, it is important for the teacher to EVALUATE the lesson; this is also referred to as *reflective teaching.*

What to look for in the problem solving lesson *

describe for the student the terminal performance which will constitute the solution to the problem.

assess the student's entering behavior for mastery of concepts and principles needed to solve the problem.

invoke the recall of all relevant concepts and principles

provide verbal direction of the student's thinking, short of giving the solution to the problem.

verify the student's learning by requiring a full demonstration of the problem solution.

Putting it all Together

Several sample lesson plans can be found on this link; please note that these plans are not perfect - they do, however, show several key ingredients of a well written lesson plan. As you look at these plans, keep in mind the following minimal expectations/requirements:

Objectives are clear - the result is observable and you know specifically what the student is expected to do to be competent. The SOL is shown for objective. Are there are a variety of cognitive levels represented in the objectives?

Look at the end of the plan - is closure specifically related to the objectives? When the teacher asks the questions in the closure, will s/he have a more accurate assessment of student competence with the objective?

Are the review questions specific to assist teacher in knowing clearly what students remember from previous lessons, particularly those items that must be known for today's lesson?

Does the lesson show specifically what the teacher will teach? Is the input and modeling clear enough that you could take the lesson plan and teach the class? Are sufficient examples provided for the student? Is there evidence of monitoring student progress?

Does the guided practice offer the student the opportunity to truly practice what has just been taught? Is there evidence of teacher monitoring? Is there evidence of a "report" back to the class or some way that the teacher can check to see how well the class is understanding the competence?

Is the independent practice truly practice or is it busy work? Will it help students better understand the objectives?

Is there an indication in the assessment that the teacher is using a variety of assessments - projects, written, oral, hands-on, etc?

Does the teacher appear to have thought through the material needed for the successful teaching of the lesson and considered the need for necessary instructional material and equipment?

Theme:. What is Critical Thinking?

Plan:

1. What is Critical Thinking?
2. Definition of Critical Thinking
3. Uses of Critical Thinking

References:

No one always acts purely objectively and rationally. We connive for selfish interests. We gossip, boast, exaggerate, and equivocate. It is "only human" to wish to validate our prior knowledge, to vindicate our prior decisions, or to sustain our earlier beliefs. In the process of satisfying our ego, however, we can often deny ourselves intellectual growth and opportunity. We may not always want to apply critical thinking skills, but we should have those skills available to be employed when needed.

Critical thinking includes a complex combination of skills. Among the main characteristics are the following:

Rationality

We are thinking critically when we rely on reason rather than emotion, require evidence, ignore no known evidence, and follow evidence where it leads, and are concerned more with finding the best explanation than being right analyzing apparent confusion and asking questions.

Self-awareness

We are thinking critically when we weigh the influences of motives and bias, and recognize our own assumptions, prejudices, biases, or point of view.

Honesty

We are thinking critically when we recognize emotional impulses, selfish motives, nefarious purposes, or other modes of self-deception.

Open-mindedness

We are thinking critically when we evaluate all reasonable inferences consider a variety of possible viewpoints or perspectives, remain open to alternative interpretations accept a new explanation, model, or paradigm because it explains the evidence better, is simpler, or has fewer

inconsistencies or covers more data accept new priorities in response to a reevaluation of the evidence or reassessment of our real interests, and do not reject unpopular views out of hand.

Discipline

We are thinking critically when we are precise, meticulous, comprehensive, and exhaustive resist manipulation and irrational appeals, and avoid snap judgments.

Judgment

We are thinking critically when we recognize the relevance and/or merit of alternative assumptions and perspectives recognize the extent and weight of evidence

In sum, Critical thinkers are by nature**skeptical**. They approach texts with the same skepticism and suspicion as they approach spoken remarks.

Critical thinkers are**active**, not passive. They ask questions and analyze. They consciously apply tactics and strategies to uncover meaning or assure their understanding.

Critical thinkers do not take an egotistical view of the world. They are**open**to new ideas and perspectives. They are willing to challenge their beliefs and investigate competing evidence. Critical thinking enables us to recognize a wide range of subjective analyses of otherwise objective data, and to evaluate how well each analysis might meet our needs. Facts may be facts, but how we interpret them may vary.

The following are definitions of Critical Thinking according to the people who write textbooks and articles on the subject. While this does not make them automatically correct, it does indicate that they have spent some time thinking about the topic. The best definition for Critical Thinking may well be your own - to help with that task, the best approach to the topic I found was written by **Peter A. Facione, Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences, Santa Clara University.**

Critical thinking is deciding rationally what to or what not to believe."

"Critical thinking is the use of those cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome. It is used to describe thinking that is purposeful, reasoned and goal directed - the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods, and making decisions when the thinker is using skills that are thoughtful and effective for the particular context and type of thinking task. Critical thinking also involves evaluating the thinking process - the reasoning that went into the conclusion we've arrived at the kinds of factors considered in making a decision. Critical thinking is sometimes called directed thinking because it focuses on a desired outcome."

Halpern, Diane F. *Thought and Knowledge: An Introduction to Critical Thinking*. 1996.

Critical thinking is the formation of logical inferences.

Simon and Kapplan, 1989.

Critical thinking is the development of cohesive and logical reasoning patterns. Stahl and Stahl, 1991.

Critical thinking is careful and deliberate determination of whether to accept, reject, or suspend judgment.
Moore and Parker, 1994.

"The purpose of critical thinking is, therefore, to achieve understanding, evaluate view points, and solve problems. Since all three areas involve the asking of questions, we can say that critical thinking is the questioning or inquiry we engage in when we seek to understand, evaluate, or resolve."
Maiorana, Victor P. *Critical Thinking Across the Curriculum: Building the Analytical Classroom*. 1992.

Critical thinking skills: understanding the meaning of a statement, judging ambiguity, judging whether an inductive conclusion is warranted, and judging whether statements made by authorities are acceptable.
Smith, 1990.

Critical thinking is "the examination and testing of suggested solutions to see whether they will work."
Lindzey, Hall, and Thompson, 1978.

"Broadly speaking, critical thinking is concerned with reason, intellectual honesty, and open-mindedness, as opposed too emotionalism, intellectual laziness, and closed-mindedness. Thus, critical thinking involves: following evidence where it leads; considering all possibilities; relying on reason rather than emotion; being precise; considering a variety of possible viewpoints and explanations; weighing the effects of motives and biases; being concerned more with finding the truth than with being right; not rejecting unpopular views out of hand; being aware of one's own prejudices and biases, and not allowing them to sway one's judgment." Kurland, Daniel J. *I Know What It Says . . . What does it Mean?* 1995.

Critical thinking is "reasonably and reflectively deciding what to believe or do."
Ennis (1985)

Critical thinking is "the art of thinking about your thinking while you are thinking in order to make your thinking better: more clear, more accurate, or more defensible."
Paul, Binker, Adamson, and Martin (1989)

Critical thinking is "a process which stresses an attitude of suspended judgment, incorporates logical inquiry and problem solving, and leads to an evaluative decision or action."
NCTE Committee on Critical Thinking and the Language Arts.

"Critical thinking includes the ability to respond to material by distinguishing between facts and opinions or personal feelings, judgments and inferences, inductive and deductive arguments, and the objective and subjective. It also includes the ability to generate questions, construct, and recognize the structure of arguments, and adequately support arguments; define, analyze, and devise solutions for problems and issues; sort, organize, classify, correlate, and analyze materials and data; integrate information and see relationships; evaluate information, materials, and data by drawing inferences, arriving at reasonable and informed conclusions, applying understanding and knowledge to new and different problems, developing rational and reasonable interpretations, suspending beliefs and remaining open to new information, methods, cultural systems, values and beliefs and by assimilating information."
MCC General Education Initiatives

Uses of critical thinking:
"underlies reading, writing, speaking, and listening . . . the basic elements of communication"
"plays an important part in social change . . . institutions in any society - courts, governments, schools, businesses - are the products of a certain way of thinking."
"helps us uncover bias and prejudice."
"is a path to freedom form half-truths and deceptions."
"the willingness to change one point of view as we continue to examine and re-examine ideas that may seem obvious. Such thinking takes time and the willingness to say three subversive words: *I don't know*."
Critical thinkers: distinguish between fact and opinion; ask questions; make detailed observations; uncover assumptions and define their terms; and make assertions based on sound logic and solid evidence.
Ellis, D. *Becoming a Master Student*, 1997.

Attributes of a critical thinker:
asks pertinent questions
assesses statements and arguments
is able to admit a lack of understanding or information
has a sense of curiosity

is interested in finding new solutions
is able to clearly define a set of criteria for analyzing ideas
is willing to examine beliefs, assumptions, and opinions and weigh them against facts
listens carefully to others and is able to give feedback
sees that critical thinking is a lifelong process of self-assessment
suspends judgment until all facts have been gathered and considered
looks for evidence to support assumption and beliefs
is able to adjust opinions when new facts are found
looks for proof
examines problems closely
is able to reject information that is incorrect or irrelevant
Ferrett, S. *Peak Performance* (1997).

"Critical thinking is best understood as the ability of thinkers to take charge of their own thinking. This requires that they develop sound criteria and standards for analyzing and assessing their own thinking and routinely use those criteria and standards to improve its quality."
Elder, L. and Paul, R. "Critical Thinking: Why we must transform our teaching." *Journal of Developmental Education* 18:1, Fall 1994, 34-35.

Definitions of Critical Reading:

"(1) the process of making judgments in reading: evaluating relevancy and adequacy of what is read . . . " (2) an act of reading in which a questioning attitude, logical analysis, and inference are used to judge the worth of what is read according to an established standard . . . Among the identified skills of critical reading involved in making judgments are those having to do with the author's intent or purpose; with the accuracy, logic, reliability and authenticity of writing; and with the literary forms, components, and devices identified through literary analysis."
Harris and Hodges. (1981). *A Dictionary of Reading and Related Terms*, 74.

Critical evaluation is "the process of arriving at a judgment about the value or impact of a text by examining its quality in terms of form, style, and rhetorical features, the readability of the author and the consistency between ideas it presents and the reader's experience, including . . . internal evaluation . . . and external evaluation . . ."
Harris and Hodges. (1995). *The Literacy Dictionary*, 48.

Critical readers are:

willing to spend time reflecting on the ideas presented in their reading assignments

able to evaluate and solve problems while reading rather than merely compile a set of facts to be memorized logical thinkers diligent in seeking out the truth eager to express their thoughts on a topic seekers of alternative views on a topic open to new ideas that may not necessarily agree with their previous thought on a topic able to base their judgments on ideas and evidence

able to recognize errors in thought and persuasion as well as to recognize good arguments

willing to take a critical stance on issues able to ask penetrating and thought-provoking questions to evaluate ideas in touch with their personal thoughts and ideas about a topic

willing to reassess their views when new or discordant evidence is introduced and evaluated

able to identify arguments and issues able to see connections between topics and use knowledge from other disciplines to enhance their reading and learning experiences

Schumm, J. S. and Post, S. A. (1997). *Executive Learning*, 282.

Theme: The Three Types of Learning

Plan:

1. **Cognitive learning**
2. **Affective learning**
3. **Psychomotor learning**

References:

Reference

1. Bloom B. S. (1956). *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: The Cognitive Domain*. New York: David McKay Co Inc.

2.Krathwohl, D. R., Bloom, B. S., & Masia, B. B. (1973). *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, the Classification of Educational Goals. Handbook II: Affective Domain*. New York: David McKay Co., Inc.

3. Simpson E. J. (1972). *The Classification of Educational Objectives in the Psychomotor Domain*. Washington, DC: Gryphon House.

4. Dave, R. H. (1975). *Developing and Writing Behavioural Objectives*. (R J Armstrong, ed.) Educational Innovators Press.

5. Harrow, Anita (1972) *A taxonomy of psychomotor domain: a guide for developing behavioral objectives*. New York: David McKay.

There is more than one type of learning. A committee of colleges, led by Benjamin Bloom, identified three domains of educational activities:

Cognitive: mental skills (*Knowledge*)

Affective: growth in feelings or emotional areas (*Attitude*)

Psychomotor: manual or physical skills (*Skills*)

Since the work was produced by higher education, the words tend to be a little bigger than we normally use. Domains can be thought of as categories. Trainers often refer to these three domains as KSA (Knowledge, Skills, and Attitude). This taxonomy of learning behaviors can be thought of as "the goals of the training process." That is, after the training session, the learner should have acquired new skills, knowledge, and/or attitudes.

The committee also produced an elaborate compilation for the cognitive and affective domains, but none for the psychomotor domain. Their explanation for this oversight was that they have little experience in teaching manual skills within the college level (I guess they never thought to check with their sports or drama department).

This compilation divides the three domains into subdivisions, starting from the simplest behavior to the most complex. The divisions outlined are not absolutes and there are other systems or hierarchies that have been devised in the educational and training world. However, Bloom's taxonomy is easily understood and is probably the most widely applied one in use today.

Cognitive

The cognitive domain involves knowledge and the development of intellectual skills. This includes the recall or recognition of specific facts, procedural patterns, and concepts that serve in the development of intellectual abilities and skills. There are six major categories, which are listed in order below, starting from the simplest behavior to the most complex. The categories can be thought of as degrees of difficulties. That is, the first one must be mastered before the next one can take place.

Category	Example and Key Words
Knowledge: Recall data or information.	**Examples**: Recite a policy. Quote prices from memory to a customer. Knows the safety rules. **Key Words**: defines, describes, identifies, knows, labels, lists, matches, names, outlines, recalls, recognizes, reproduces, selects, states.
Comprehension: Understand the meaning, translation, interpolation, and interpretation of instructions and problems. State a problem in one's own words.	**Examples**: Rewrites the principles of test writing. Explain in one's own words the steps for performing a complex task. Translates an equation into a computer spreadsheet. **Key Words**: comprehends, converts, defends, distinguishes, estimates, explains, extends, generalizes, gives **Examples**, infers, interprets, paraphrases, predicts, rewrites, summarizes, translates.
Application: Use a concept in a new situation or unprompted use of an abstraction. Applies what was learned in the classroom into novel situations in the work place.	**Examples**: Use a manual to calculate an employeeнs vacation time. Apply laws of statistics to evaluate the reliability of a written test. **Key Words**: applies, changes, computes, constructs, demonstrates, discovers, manipulates, modifies, operates, predicts, prepares, produces, relates, shows, solves, uses.

Analysis: Separates material or concepts into component parts so that its organizational structure may be understood. Distinguishes between facts and inferences.	**Examples**: Troubleshoot a piece of equipment by using logical deduction. Recognize logical fallacies in reasoning. Gathers information from a department and selects the required tasks for training. **Key Words**: analyzes, breaks down, compares, contrasts, diagrams, deconstructs, differentiates, discriminates, distinguishes, identifies, illustrates, infers, outlines, relates, selects, separates.
Synthesis: Builds a structure or pattern from diverse elements. Put parts together to form a whole, with emphasis on creating a new meaning or structure.	**Examples**: Write a company operations or process manual. Design a machine to perform a specific task. Integrates training from several sources to solve a problem. Revises and process to improve the outcome. **Key Words**: categorizes, combines, compiles, composes, creates, devises, designs, explains, generates, modifies, organizes, plans, rearranges, reconstructs, relates, reorganizes, revises, rewrites, summarizes, tells, writes.
Evaluation: Make judgments about the value of ideas or materials.	**Examples**: Select the most effective solution. Hire the most qualified candidate. Explain and justify a new budget. **Key Words**: appraises, compares, concludes, contrasts, criticizes, critiques, defends, describes, discriminates, evaluates, explains, interprets, justifies, relates, summarizes, supports.

Affective

This domain includes the manner in which we deal with things emotionally, such as feelings, values, appreciation, enthusiasms, motivations, and attitudes. The five major categories are listed from the simplest behavior to the most complex:

Category	Example and Key Words
Receiving Phenomena: Awareness, willingness to hear, selected attention.	**Examples**: Listen to others with respect. Listen for and remember the name of newly introduced people. **Key Words**: asks, chooses, describes, follows, gives, holds, identifies, locates, names, points to, selects, sits, erects, replies, uses.
Responding to Phenomena: Active participation on the part of	**Examples**: Participates in class discussions. Gives a presentation. Questions new ideals, concepts, models, etc. in order to fully understand them. Know the safety rules and practices them.

the learners. Attends and reacts to a particular phenomenon. Learning outcomes may emphasize compliance in responding, willingness to respond, or satisfaction in responding (motivation).	**Key Words**: answers, assists, aids, complies, conforms, discusses, greets, helps, labels, performs, practices, presents, reads, recites, reports, selects, tells, writes.
Valuing: The worth or value a person attaches to a particular object, phenomenon, or behavior. This ranges from simple acceptance to the more complex state of commitment. Valuing is based on the internalization of a set of specified values, while clues to these values are expressed in the learnerнs overt behavior and are often identifiable.	**Examples**: Demonstrates belief in the democratic process. Is sensitive towards individual and cultural differences (value diversity). Shows the ability to solve problems. Proposes a plan to social improvement and follows through with commitment. Informs management on matters that one feels strongly about. **Key Words**: completes, demonstrates, differentiates, explains, follows, forms, initiates, invites, joins, justifies, proposes, reads, reports, selects, shares, studies, works.
Organization: Organizes values into priorities by contrasting different values, resolving conflicts between them, and creating an unique value system. The emphasis is on comparing, relating, and synthesizing values.	**Examples**: Recognizes the need for balance between freedom and responsible behavior. Accepts responsibility for onenнs behavior. Explains the role of systematic planning in solving problems. Accepts professional ethical standards. Creates a life plan in harmony with abilities, interests, and beliefs. Prioritizes time effectively to meet the needs of the organization, family, and self. **Key Words**: adheres, alters, arranges, combines, compares, completes, defends, explains, formulates, generalizes, identifies, integrates, modifies, orders, organizes, prepares, relates, synthesizes.
Internalizing values	**Examples**: Shows self-reliance when working

(characterization): Has a value system that controls their behavior. The behavior is pervasive, consistent, predictable, and most importantly, characteristic of the learner. Instructional objectives are concerned with the student's general patterns of adjustment (personal, social, emotional).	independently. Cooperates in group activities (displays teamwork). Uses an objective approach in problem solving. Displays a professional commitment to ethical practice on a daily basis. Revises judgments and changes behavior in light of new evidence. Values people for what they are, not how they look. **Key Words**: acts, discriminates, displays, influences, listens, modifies, performs, practices, proposes, qualifies, questions, revises, serves, solves, verifies.

Psychomotor

The psychomotor domain includes physical movement, coordination, and use of the motor-skill areas. Development of these skills requires practice and is measured in terms of speed, precision, distance, procedures, or techniques in execution. The seven major categories are listed from the simplest behavior to the most complex:

Category	Example and Key Words
Perception: The ability to use sensory cues to guide motor activity. This ranges from sensory stimulation, through cue selection, to translation.	**Examples**: Detects non-verbal communication cues. Estimate where a ball will land after it is thrown and then moving to the correct location to catch the ball. Adjusts heat of stove to correct temperature by smell and taste of food. Adjusts the height of the forks on a forklift by comparing where the forks are in relation to the pallet. **Key Words**: chooses, describes, detects, differentiates, distinguishes, identifies, isolates, relates, selects.
Set: Readiness to act. It includes mental, physical, and emotional sets. These three sets are dispositions that predetermine a personнs response to different situations	**Examples**: Knows and acts upon a sequence of steps in a manufacturing process. Recognize onenнs abilities and limitations. Shows desire to learn a new process (motivation). NOTE: This

(sometimes called mindsets).	subdivision of Psychomotor is closely related with the "Responding to phenomena" subdivision of the Affective domain. **Key Words**: begins, displays, explains, moves, proceeds, reacts, shows, states, volunteers.
Guided Response: The early stages in learning a complex skill that includes imitation and trial and error. Adequacy of performance is achieved by practicing.	**Examples**: Performs a mathematical equation as demonstrated. Follows instructions to build a model. Responds hand-signals of instructor while learning to operate a forklift. **Key Words**: copies, traces, follows, react, reproduce, responds
Mechanism: This is the intermediate stage in learning a complex skill. Learned responses have become habitual and the movements can be performed with some confidence and proficiency.	**Examples**: Use a personal computer. Repair a leaking faucet. Drive a car. **Key Words**: assembles, calibrates, constructs, dismantles, displays, fastens, fixes, grinds, heats, manipulates, measures, mends, mixes, organizes, sketches.
Complex Overt Response: The skillful performance of motor acts that involve complex movement patterns. Proficiency is indicated by a quick, accurate, and highly coordinated performance, requiring a minimum of energy. This category includes performing without hesitation, and automatic performance. For example, players are often utter sounds of satisfaction or expletives as soon as they hit a tennis ball or throw a football, because they can tell by the feel of the act what the result will produce.	**Examples**: Maneuvers a car into a tight parallel parking spot. Operates a computer quickly and accurately. Displays competence while playing the piano. **Key Words**: assembles, builds, calibrates, constructs, dismantles, displays, fastens, fixes, grinds, heats, manipulates, measures, mends, mixes, organizes, sketches. NOTE: The Key Words are the same as Mechanism, but will have adverbs or adjectives that indicate that the performance is quicker, better, more accurate, etc.
Adaptation: Skills are well developed and the individual can modify movement patterns to fit special requirements.	**Examples**: Responds effectively to unexpected experiences. Modifies instruction to meet the needs of the learners. Perform a task with a

	machine that it was not originally intended to do (machine is not damaged and there is no danger in performing the new task). **Key Words**: adapts, alters, changes, rearranges, reorganizes, revises, varies.
Origination: Creating new movement patterns to fit a particular situation or specific problem. Learning outcomes emphasize creativity based upon highly developed skills.	**Examples**: Constructs a new theory. Develops a new and comprehensive training programming. Creates a new gymnastic routine. **Key Words**: arranges, builds, combines, composes, constructs, creates, designs, initiate, makes, originates.

Theme: Strategies for Teaching Critical Thinking

Plan:

1. **Skills related to Critical Thinking**
2. **Building Categories**
3. **Finding Problems**
4. **Enhancing the environment**

References:

Critical thinking skills figure prominently among the goals for education, whether one asks developers of curricula, educational researchers, parents, or employers. Although there are some quite diverse definitions of critical thinking, nearly all emphasize the ability and tendency to gather, evaluate, and use information effectively (Beyer, 1985).

In this digest, we discuss skills related to critical thinking and three specific strategies for teaching these skills: 1) Building Categories, 2) Finding Problems, and 3) Enhancing the Environment.

SKILLS RELATED TO CRITICAL THINKING

Across subject areas and levels, educational research has identified several discrete skills related to an overall ability for critical thinking. These are:

* Finding analogies and other kinds of relationships between pieces of information
* Determining the relevance and validity of information that could be used for structuring and solving problems
* Finding and evaluating solutions or alternative ways of treating problems

Just as there are similarities among the definitions of critical thinking across subject areas and levels, there are several generally recognized "hallmarks" of teaching for critical thinking (see, for example, Beyer, 1985; Costa, 1985). These include:

* Promoting interaction among students as they learn - Learning in a group setting often helps each member achieve more.
* Asking open-ended questions that do not assume the "one right answer" - Critical thinking is often exemplified best when the problems are inherently ill-defined and do not have a "right"

answer. Open-ended questions also encourage students to think and respond creatively, without fear of giving the "wrong" answer.

* Allowing sufficient time for students to reflect on the questions asked or problems posed - Critical thinking seldom involves snap judgments; therefore, posing questions and allowing adequate time before soliciting responses helps students understand that they are expected to deliberate and to ponder, and that the immediate response is not always the best response.

* Teaching for transfer - The skills for critical thinking should "travel well." They generally will do so only if teachers provide opportunities for students to see how a newly acquired skill can apply to other situations and to the student's own experience.

BUILDING CATEGORIES

Students often are given (and asked to memorize) explicit rules for classifying information. For example, there is a set of criteria for determining whether a word is being used as a noun or as a verb. The Building Categories strategy, however, is an inductive reasoning tool that helps students categorize information by discovering the rules rather than merely memorizing them. Such active learning typically results in better understanding and better retention of the concepts and related material than is possible with a more directive teaching method.

Example: Distinguishing animals from plants. Students work in two groups (Animal Group and Plant Group). Worksheets prepared in advance ask for information about life span, energy sources, motility, anatomy, etc., of several different animals and plants. Once the information is collected, it is compiled into large wall charts (one for Animals, one for Plants).

At this point, some questions can be posed to both groups at once: What are the similarities among the members of each group? What are the differences between the two groups? How could the following statement be completed: "An animal is different from a plant because..." The teacher provides appropriate feedback throughout, using open-ended questions to help students identify inadequate or inaccurate categorization rules.

Finally, the students are allowed to test the generalizability of their proposed rules by looking at new instances and placing them in the appropriate category.

The strategy is described here in the context of a science problem, but can work equally well in other disciplines and with more abstract categories. For example, students in Social Studies can learn the rules for "discoveries" versus "inventions," and students of jurisprudence can discover the differences between "felonies" and "misdemeanors."

FINDING PROBLEMS

Many students and teachers alike have lamented that the format of problems in the classroom (particularly in math and science) bears little resemblance to the way problems look in real life. In fact, one of the most important practical thinking skills one can acquire is knowing how to identify a problem. The Finding Problems strategy is a way of framing tasks so that students use skills similar to those needed for the ill-defined problems they will encounter in life. Tasks developed with this strategy are sufficiently defined as to be solvable, but do not state explicitly which variable or aspect of the problem will constitute or enable a solution. Consider the following physics problem (adapted from Harvie, 1987):

"Brian, all 72 kg of him, bungee-jumps from a 100-m tower toward the river below. He falls 35 m before the bungee cord starts to stretch. This cord can stretch 40% of its length and has a breaking strength of 7000 N. Will this become a "free fall" for Brian, or will he "bounce back"?

Consider an alternate version of this problem, in which the last sentence is replaced by the following: "When the bungee cord has reached its maximum length, does the tension exceed the cord's breaking strength?" Several aspects of the first version make it more effective for encouraging students to think rather than simply to look for the appropriate quantities to "plug in" to a formula.

The first version does not specify what must be calculated; therefore, it requires students to decide for themselves just what the problem is and how their knowledge of Physics can be used to solve it. Teachers can help students learn to solve problems of this type by first providing them with a set of general questions, such as: How are the objects and situations in the problem similar to any objects or situations that were discussed in Physics? Which variables are already in Physics terms and which can be converted to Physics terms? Are all of the pieces of information in the problem relevant to its solution?

Problem-finding is an excellent group activity, particularly if two or more groups work on the same task independently and then come together to compare strategies. In this way, each student has the benefit of exposure to several ways of solving the problem.

ENHANCING THE ENVIRONMENT

Critical thinking in the classroom is facilitated by a physical and intellectual environment that encourages a spirit of discovery. Regarding the physical layout of the classroom, two suggestions can be offered. First, if seating is arranged so that students share the "stage" with the teacher and all can see and interact with each other, this helps to minimize the passive, receptive mode many students adopt when all are facing the teacher. Second, visual aids in the classroom can encourage ongoing attention to critical thought processes, e.g., posting signs that say, "Why

do I think that?" "Is it fact or opinion?" "How are these two things alike?" "What would happen if...?" Suggestions below each question can remind students how they should go about answering them. Most importantly, as the students move through the curriculum in a given subject, their attention can be directed periodically to the signs as appropriate. In this way, the signs emphasize the idea of transfer by showing that many of the same thinking strategies and skills apply to different topics and problems.

Themes: **Six Common Mistakes in Writing Lesson Plans (and what to do about them)**

Plan:

1. **Writing lessons plans**
2. **Mistakes in lesson planning**

References:

Without question, the very best teachers are good planners and thinkers. The success of professional teachers doesn't "just happen." The road to success for teachers requires commitment and practice, especially of those skills involved in planning lessons and learning activities, and in managing classroom behavior. Planning lessons is a fundamental skill all teachers must develop and hone, although implementation of this skill in actual teaching can, and usually does, take some time. Being able to develop an effective lesson plan format is a core skill for all who teach. So let's begin at the beginning.

In my career as a teacher and teacher educator, I have read and evaluated thousands of lesson plans written by education students at all levels. On a consistent basis, I see mistakes that distort or weaken what the plans are supposed to communicate. If you are serious about improving your skill in planning lessons, you should begin by first **thinking** carefully about what the lesson is supposed to accomplish. *There is no substitute for this*. In teaching students how to develop lesson plans, the following are mistakes I have observed that students make most often:

1. The objective of the lesson does not specify what the student will actually do that can be observed. Remember, an objective is a description of what a student does that forms the basis for making an inference about learning. Poorly written objectives lead to faulty inferences.

2. The lesson assessment is disconnected from the behavior indicated in the objective. An assessment in a lesson plan is simply a description of how the teacher will determine whether the objective has been accomplished. It must be based on the same behavior that is incorporated in the objective. Anything else is flawed.

3. The prerequisites are not specified or are inconsistent with what is actually required to succeed with the lesson. Prerequisites mean just that -- a statement of what a student *needs to know or be able to do* to succeed and accomplish the lesson objective. It is not easy to determine what is required, but it is necessary. Some research indicates that as much as 70% of learning is dependent on students having the appropriate prerequisites.

4. The materials specified in the lesson are extraneous to the actual described learning activities. This means keep the list of materials in line with what you actually plan to do. Overkilling with materials is not a virtue!

5. The instruction in which the teacher will engage is not efficient for the level of intended student learning. Efficiency is a measure that means getting more done with the same amount of effort, or the same amount with less effort. With so much to be learned, it should be obvious that instructional efficiency is paramount.

6. The student activities described in the lesson plan do not contribute in a direct and effective way to the lesson objective.

Don't have your students engaged in activities just to keep them busy. Whatever you have your students do should contribute in a direct way to their accomplishing the lesson objective.

A lesson plan that contains one or more of these mistakes needs rethinking and revision. Below is a rationale and guide to help you develop effective lesson plans and avoid the six common mistakes.

FIRST, YOU MUST KNOW HOW TO PLAN

The purpose of a lesson plan is really quite simple; it is to **communicate.** But, you might ask, communicate to whom? The answer to this question, on a practical basis, is YOU! The lesson plans you develop are to guide you in organizing your material and yourself for the purpose of helping your students achieve intended learning outcomes. Whether a lesson plan fits a particular format is not as relevant as whether or not it actually describes what you want, and what you have determined is the best means to an end. If you write a lesson plan that can be interpreted or implemented in many different ways, it is probably not a very good plan. This leads one to conclude that a key principle in creating a lesson plan is **specificity.** It is sort of like saying, "almost any series of connecting roads will take you from Key West Florida to Anchorage Alaska, eventually." There is however, one and only one set of connecting roads that represents the shortest and best route. Best means that, for example, getting to Anchorage by using an unreliable car is a different problem than getting there using a brand new car. What process one uses to get to a destination depends on available resources and time.

So, if you agree that the purpose of a lesson plan is to communicate, then, in order to accomplish that purpose, the plan must contain a set of elements that are descriptive of the process. Let's look at what those elements should be

Theme: Writing Educational Goals and Objectives

Plan:

1. **What are Instructional Objectives?**
2. **Common types of objectives?**
3. **Tips for writing objectives**
4. **Typical Problems Encountered When Writing Objectives**

References:

What are Goals?

Goals are broad, generalized statements about what is to be learned. Think of them as a target to be reached, or "hit."

What are Instructional Objectives?

Instructional objectives are specific, measurable, short-term, observable student behaviors.

Objectives are the foundation upon which you can build lessons and assessments that you can prove meet your overall course or lesson goals.

Think of objectives as tools you use to make sure you reach your goals. They are the arrows you shoot towards your target (goal).

The purpose of objectives is not to restrict spontaneity or constrain the vision of education in the discipline; but to ensure that learning is focused clearly enough that both students and teacher know what is going on, and so learning can be objectively measured. Different archers have different styles, so do different teachers. Thus, you can shoot your arrows (objectives) many ways. The important thing is that they reach your target (goals) and score that bullseye!

Common Types of Objectives

Psychomotor: Physical skills (e.g., "The student will be able to ride a two-wheel bicycle without assistance and without pause as demonstrated in gym class."); actions which demonstrate the fine motor skills such as use of precision instruments or tools, or actions which evidence gross motor skills such as the use of the body in dance or athletic performance. See also a detailed description of the psychomotor domain.

Cognitive: understandings, awarenesses, insights (e.g., "Given a description of a planet, the student will be able to identify that planet, as demonstrated verbally or in writing." or "The student will be able to evaluate the different theories of the origin of the solar system as demonstrated by his/her ability to compare and discuss verbally or in writing the strengths and weaknesses of each theory."). This includes knowledge or information recall, comprehension or conceptual understanding, the ability to apply knowledge, the ability to analyze a situation, the ability to synthesize information from a given situation, and the ability to evaluate a given situation. See also Blooms' Taxonomy.

Affective: attitudes, appreciations, relationships (e.g., "Given the opportunity to work in a team with several people of different races, the student will demonstrate an positive increase in attitude towards non-discrimination of race, as measured by a checklist utilized/completed by non-team members."). See also a detailed description of the affective domain.

Tips for Writing Objectives
Objectives should specify four main things:

Audience - Who? Who is this aimed at?

Behavior - What? What do you expect them to be able to do? This should be an overt, observable behavior, even if the actual behavior is covert or mental in nature. If you can't see it, hear it, touch it, taste it, or smell it, you can't be sure your audience really learned it.

Condition - How? Under what circumstances will the learning occur? What will the student be given or already be expected to know to accomplish the learning?

Degree - How much? Must a specific set of criteria be met? Do you want total mastery (100%), do you want them to respond correctly 80% of the time, etc. A common (and totally non-scientific) setting is 80% of the time.

This is often called the ABCD's of objectives, a nice mnemonic aid!

Examples of Well-written Objectives

Audience - Green

Behavior - Red

Condition - Blue

Degree - Pink

Psychomotor - "Given a standard balance beam raised to a standard height, the student (attired in standard balance beam usage attire) will be able to walk the entire length of the balance beam (from one end to the other) steadily, without falling off, and within a six second time span."

Cognitive (comprehension level) - "Given examples and non-examples of constructivist activities in a college classroom, the student will be able to accurately identify the constructivist examples and explain why each example is or isn't a constructivist activity in 20 words or less."
Cognitive (application level) - "Given a sentence written in the past or present tense, the student will be able to re-write the sentence in future tense with no errors in tense or tense contradiction (i.e., I will see her yesterday.)."

Cognitive (problem solving/synthesis level) - "Given two cartoon characters of the student's choice, the student will be able to list five major personality traits of each of the two characters, combine these traits (either by melding traits together, multiplying together complimentary traits, or negating opposing traits) into a composite character, and develop a short (no more than 20 frames) storyboard for a cartoon that illustrates three to five of the major personality traits of the composite character."

Affective - "Given the opportunity to work in a team with several people of different races, the student will demonstrate an positive increase in attitude towards non-discrimination of race, as measured by a checklist utilized/completed by non-team members."
If you're paying attention here, you'll notice two things:
As you move up the "cognitive ladder," it become increasingly difficult to *precisely* specify the degree.
Affective objectives are the hardest objectives for most people to write and assess. They deal almost exclusively with internal feelings and conditions that can only be artifically observed externally.
The verbs you use to describe the overt, measurable activity can be tricky to write. Fortunately, a page on psychomotor objectives, a page on cognitive objectives (Blooms' Taxonomy), and a page on affective objectives exists to assist you.
See how these specific objectives were used to develop assessment instruments.

Typical Problems Encountered When Writing Objectives

Problems	Error Types	Solutions
Too vast/complex	The objective is too broad in scope or is actually more than one objective.	Simplify/break apart.
False/missing behavior,	The objective does not list the correct behavior, condition, and/or degree, or they are missing.	Be more specific, make

condition, or degree		sure the behavior, condition, and degree is included.
False givens	Describes instruction, not conditions	Simplify, include ONLY ABCDs.
False performance	No true overt, observable performance listed.	Describe what behavior you must observe.

Theme: The role of the foreign language teacher in the classroom

Plan:

1. **Introduction**
2. **Research on teachers**
3. **Research on students**

References:

1. Introduction

Every teacher must have faced the dilemma at one point or another: what should be my role in the classroom? Should I primarily focus on efficient organization of lessons with a careful selection of the language facts to be transmitted to students? Or should I be more flexible and let the lesson flow spontaneously? Should I take full responsibility for the choice of activities, topics, and areas of language (after all, I am familiar with examination requirements, so I do know what my students should cover in class), or perhaps should I always make the effort of giving the learners as much choice as possible? Finally, should I become friends with my students enough to concentrate on the material and evaluation and not expect too much openness and trust from teenagers?

These and many other questions have haunted the teaching profession for years. They have been bothering the author of the present paper since the very beginning of her teaching career and have led her to take a deeper and more systematic interest in the issue of teacher role. In a attempt to gain insights into foreign language teachers' and students' understanding of teacher role in the classroom, two research projects were carried out and then their results were compared.

2. Research on teachers

2.1. Objectives of the research project and techniques of data collection

The purpose of the first research project was to find out how foreign language teachers of English view their role in the classroom. The teachers expressed their opinions in a questionnaire:

1. What is the role of the foreign language teacher in the classroom? List and describe at least

five functions.

2. Which of the above roles is most important and why?

3. Which of the above roles is most common and why?

The other set of objectives included assessing whether the teachers' answers to the questionnaire were congruent with their role behavior, i.e. the performance of roles. To obtain the information, the lessons of several high school teachers who taught different student levels were observed. During the observations a checklist consisting of the roles that the teachers had enumerated in the questionnaire was used.

2.2. The respondents

The questionnaire was distributed among 76 Polish high school teachers of English, the majority of whom were women (82.2%). Among them, the most numerous group comprised the youngest (under 30) informants (92.2%). There were 9 (11.8%) respondents aged between 30-40, and 8 (10.5%) over 40. Most of them worked in high schools in Poznan, the rest in other big cities or towns in Poland Quite a few (about 60%) were teacher training college graduates currently doing their MA degree at Adam Mickiewicz University (fifth year students), whereas the remaining ones had completed their studies at the School of English some time before.

The classroom observations were carried out in five different high schools in Poznan. Altogether 8 teachers were observed: 7 women and 1 man. The group consisted of: 3 experienced teachers (i.e. that had been teaching for over 5 years) aged 35-45; 1 teacher with several years of professional practice aged 31; and 4 inexperienced teachers (i.e. that had been teaching for 1-2 years), among them 3 under 30 and 1 aged 40.

Three of the four inexperienced teachers were teacher training college graduates and two of them were doing their MA degree.

The subjects' students ranged from beginners to pre-intermediate, and through intermediate to upper-intermediate. In the case of 3 teachers two different student levels were observed; in all the other cases only one class was examined. In order to receive a fairly comprehensive picture of a given teacher's role behavior 3-4 lessons with the same group of learners were observed, which makes 34 lessons altogether. This enabled the researcher to see the teacher in various

classroom situations: doing grammar practice, checking homework, giving the learners a test, covering a text, etc.

2.3. The results of the questionnaire

The teachers' responses to the questionnaire were by and large extensive and informative. The respondents enumerated as many as 13 roles, thus showing that they are (at least theoretically) aware of the multiple functions of an L2 teacher. Figure 1 below shows all the roles listed by the teachers together with examples of behavior characteristic for a given role. It should be noted that some of the names for roles were supplied by the teachers in question, others were adopted from authors who have written about teacher role (cf. Barnes 1976; Harmer 1983; Wright 1987; Havinghurst and Neugarten 1967), while still others were invented by the researcher.

Figure 1
The roles listed by the teachers and examples of the teacher's role behavior

Types of roles	The roles mentioned by teachers	Examples of behavior
Task-related roles	Organizer	
	Instructor	
	Controller	
	Facilitator	
	Counselor	
	Participant	
	Expert, resource	
	Evaluator	
Interpersonal roles	Creator of conditions conducive to learning	
	Friend	
	Socializing agent	
Special roles	Motivator	
	Learner	

Roles	the teacher prepares lessons, selects materials and activities, directs the lessons, coordinates the pupils' behavior, etc.
	the teacher transmits knowledge, passes on certain language facts, informs the learners about rules and meanings
	the teacher controls the students, monitors their interactions, disciplines them, checks homework
Task-related roles	the teacher explains the rule again if the students have forgotten it, provides ideas, words, etc. that they may want to use in interaction
	the teacher teaches the students how to learn, trains the students in strategy use, promotes independence
	the teacher participates in activities as a partner and co-communicator
	the teacher not only exhibits proficiency in the target language but is able to answer the learners' unexpected questions
	the teacher evaluates the students' performance and progress correcting their mistakes and providing

feedback

Interpersonal roles
the teacher tries to make the atmosphere in the classroom pleasant and maintains friendly relationships with the learners

the teacher is not only interested in the students' linguistic development, but as a human being can help them in their personal problems

the teacher serves as a model for behavior, inculcates values and shapes the pupils' personalities, teaches about the world

Special roles
the teacher activates the learners' participation by arousing their interest (this function can be performed in any other role)

the teacher keeps developing his/her skills and acquiring new knowledge (this function can be performed in any other role)

Figure 2 below illustrates the teachers' responses indicating the number and percentage of respondents who listed a given role.

Figure 2

The foreign language teachers' perception of their role

The roles listed by teachers	Total number of teachers (number of teachers)	Most important role (number of teachers)	Most common
Organizer	34 (44.7%)	5 (6.6%)	9 (11.8%)
Instructor	45 (59.2%)	16 (21%)	36 (47.4%)
Controller	19 (25%)	--	4 (5.3%)
Facilitator	39 (51.3%)	4 (5.3%)	3 (3.9%)
Counselor	30 (39.5%)	14 (18.4%)	--
Participant	1 (1.3%)	--	--
Expert, resource	37 (48.7%)	6 (7.9%)	10 (13.2%)
Evaluator	32 (42.1%)	2 (2.6%)	10 (13.2%)
Creator of conditions conducive to learning	9 (11.8%)	2 (2.6%)	--
Friend	30 (39.5%)	5 (6.6%)	--
Socializing agent	43 (56.6%)	7 (9.2%)	4 (5.3%)
Motivator	43 (56.6%)	20 (26.3%)	1 (1.3%)
Learner	3 (3.9%)	--	--

It should be stressed that the subjects were able to mention different types of roles: those necessary to carry out language tasks (cf. task-related in Wright 1987), and the ones connected with the interpersonal relations in the classroom, the relationships between the teacher as a person and the learners as persons. The teachers also mentioned the roles of a motivator and learner; which were put in the separate class of special roles because those two teacher functions do not really belong to either of the two main role types, although they can and should be present in all the listed roles. For example, the teacher can motivate the students as an organizer by selecting appealing materials and activities, as an evaluator by concentrating on positive rather than negative feedback, as a friend by being open and tolerant to the students etc. The teacher-learner should not only look for opportunities to listen to and speak the foreign language in order to improve as an expert, instructor; and evaluator, but also read English language teaching publications to learn more about organization, facilitation, counseling, as well as about how to make the classroom environment more conducive to learning.

Although some informants claimed that all the roles listed by them are of equal importance, 20 teachers (26.3%) indicated the functions of motivator as the most essential in the learning/teaching process. According to the teachers, this role should exist at all levels of teacher activity because the students' work entirely depends on it. Furthermore, as the teachers put it, motivation constitutes a basis for the third most important role of the teacher -- that of counselor, they will be open to strategy training and will assume responsibility for their learning more willingly.

As it could be expected, among the vital teacher roles the respondents also mention what some of them call "teaching itself". The teachers believe that the tasks of an instructor is what teaching is all about. Moreover, according to 47.4% of the respondents this role is also the most common one performed by language teachers. It not only requires the least effort and skills (after all, teachers are trained to pass on knowledge), but it is what society expects a teacher to do. As many informants put it, an average Pole defines the role of a teacher as transmitting information rather than stimulating the learners to arrive at it themselves.

Similarly, the teachers in question claim that the role of an evaluator is both required by society and relatively easy to play. Additionally, it makes the whole process of teaching easier as testing motivates the learners and facilitates maintaining discipline. If the teacher's knowledge and abilities are not enough to ensure him/her a dominant position, then the role of a dispenser of grades definitely enables the teacher to reign in the classroom. In short, according to the majority of the respondents, what the teacher should be primarily concerned with is motivating the students and teaching them not only about the language but also how to learn the language. What the teacher is preoccupied with, however, is sharing his/her knowledge with the learners and checking how well they have managed to take it in.

2.4. The results of the lesson observations

Figure 3 below illustrates the results of the lesson observations. The roles have been classified as those that are always present (i.e. every teacher performed those functions at least once during every one of the observed lessons), those that are rarely present (they occurred no more than 3-4 times during all the 34 observed lessons), and those that fall in between the two extremes -- the roles that are not always present, neither frequent, nor rare (1).

Figure 3

The teachers' role behavior in the classroom

The roles that are always present	The roles that are not always present	The roles that are rarely present
Organizer	Expert and resource	Motivator
Evaluator	Facilitator	Friend
Instructor	Counselor	Participant
Controller	Creator of conditions ...	Learner
	Socializing agent	

What the research project on teachers reveals is that their expectations concerning role are to a considerable degree incompatible with what they actually perform in the classroom. Although the respondents are generally aware of the multiple roles they can fulfill as foreign language teachers, in practice only four roles dominate. What is more, while for the teachers in question the most significant role they are to fulfill is motivating their pupils, classroom observation reveals that only two out of the eight observed subjects managed to do it. Similarly, the second role in importance, that of counselor, did not receive due attention. The teachers' opinions about the most frequently performed roles have also proven inaccurate. It is organization more than instruction that dominates the classroom. Moreover, the teacher far more often evaluates the learners than passes on knowledge. Generally, all the teachers are preoccupied with task-related functions, treating the aspect of motivation and interpersonal rol es as a useful but not an indispensable addition.

3. Research on students

From a sociological point of view, the concept of role is usually defined as expectations for specific behavior (cf. Banton 1965) As we saw in the previous section, teachers hold certain expectations for their role in the classroom, but these expectations are not quite congruent with their role behavior. Is it because the important roles, such as motivating, are at the same time the most difficult to play? Or perhaps it is because teachers are trying to meet the students' requirements rather than their own. The following research material will show the relationship between the teacher's beliefs and role performance, and the learners' expectations.

3.1. The objectives of the research project and techniques of data collection

The main purpose of the research project was to elicit from L2 learners their expectations concerning the role of the foreign language teacher in the classroom. The informants' responses were then compared with the teachers' beliefs and classroom behavior.

High school learners of English were asked to fill in a questionnaire consisting of a list of certain teacher qualities from which they were to choose five in order of importance. The apparent features of L2 teachers in fact corresponded to their functions in the classroom. In this way it was possible to find out which roles learners considered as more, and which as less important.

The questionnaire was devised on the basis of the teachers' responses to their questionnaire. It was assumed that the learners would find it difficult to come up with specific roles themselves. Therefore, they were provided with lists of items to choose from rather than with open-ended questions. In addition, in order to facilitate the respondents' understanding of a given role, specific examples of behavior (not mere labels for teacher functions) more or less adequately illustrating the various roles were provided. The list of teacher qualities comprised the following (in brackets are the roles associated with the qualities):

a) The teacher shows the students how to learn, which leads to good results achieved by the teacher's students (counselor).

b) The teacher is characterized by a good command of L2 and has an MA degree in L2 (expert and resource).

c) The teacher gains experience by constant learning and improving skills (learner).

d) The teacher is sympathetic and willing to explain when the students still do not understand something (facilitator).

e) The teacher is able to maintain discipline and make the learners do what they should (controller).

f) The teacher systematically evaluates and corrects errors (evaluator).

g) The teacher appreciates the students' efforts, evaluating them objectively (creator of conditions conducive to learning).

h) The teacher is intelligent, is able and willing to talk on any subject (socializing agent).

i) The teacher willingly participates in activities as a member of a group or pair (participant).

j) The teacher is involved in the students' personal lives (friend).

k) The teacher has a sense of duty and emphasizes transmitting knowledge (instructor).

l) The teacher is always well prepared for the lesson (organizer).

m) The teacher is enthusiastic and wants to involve the learners and make them interested (motivator).

3.2. The student respondents

As it was stated above, teachers of English in five different high schools in Poznan were observed. After being observed, they were interviewed and those teachers' students were asked to fill in the questionnaire. In this way 222 valid questionnaires were collected. Among the student respondents there were 171 females (77%) and 51 males (23%). To obtain a clear picture of the learners' beliefs about teacher roles two student groups were examined: 119 (53.6%) beginners aged 15-16, and 103 (46.4%) intermediate and upper-intermediate learners aged 18-19.

3.3. The results of student questionnaire

From the list of teacher qualities the informants were to choose 5 and number them in order of importance. Figure 4. illustrates the role-set's primary choices (the qualities they selected as the most significant and numbered them as 1), and secondary qualities (those which the respondents put in positions 2-5).

Figure 4

The list of teacher qualities selected by the students

Teacher roles	Primary qualities	Secondary qualities
Organizer	3.1%	30.2%
Instructor	4.5%	14%
Controller	2.2%	7.7%
Facilitator	13.5%	66.2%
Counselor	19%	24.8%
Participant	--	28.8%
Expert, resource	11.7%	13.1%
Evaluator	0.9%	8.5%
Creator of conditions ...	7.7%	68.5%
Friend	--	9.4%
Socializing agent	5.4%	44.6%
Motivator	22.1%	61.7%
Learner	9.9%	22.5%

What is striking in the above sequence of roles is the fact that no quality was chosen by an overwhelming majority of the respondents. The two most vital roles, motivator and counselor, amounted to 22.1% and 19% support respectively. Although the two functions were selected by most students, the respondents do not seem unanimous in their opinion on the most significant teacher role.

The learners apparently differ less in their perception of secondary teacher functions: from the two lists it is clear that the students emphasize the roles of a motivator and a facilitator.

The learners' choices do not differ so much depending on their level. Still, quality l (organizer) was selected by more advanced than elementary students. On the other hand, feature j (friend) was chosen exclusively by beginners. Generally, the roles that received the least attention (as both primary and secondary qualities) were e (controller) and f (evaluator).

4. The teachers' beliefs and role behavior versus the students' expectations

The students' responses to the questionnaire seem to a high degree congruent with the teachers'

beliefs. Both groups point to the roles of a motivator and counselor as the most vital roles. Unlike the teachers, however, the learners do not perceive instruction as particularly important. Neither do they stress any other of the functions from the "always present" category, i.e. organization, evaluation, and control. Does it mean that the students do not expect the teacher to effectively plan lessons, correct errors and give tests, finally control their classroom performance? Clearly, it cannot be the case. The students simply seem to take these functions for granted, and emphasize that passing on knowledge, selecting materials and activities, carrying out evaluation and control has to be done in such a way so as to motivate the learners and encourage their involvement. Moreover, the pupils realize that language study does not only consist of being made familiar with certain language facts, but it primarily enco mpasses learning how to internalize these facts and use them. This is why counseling occupies such a high position on the list of primary qualities. What is more, the teacher has to be willing to help the students if they still do not understand something, provide extra practice, assist in pairwork and groupwork if necessary, etc. Thus, the facilitating function, as described above, is the third item in the hierarchy of teacher roles. Although the pupils consider the role of an expert as quite important (fourth on the list), this function is immediately followed by that of a learner. The students seem to value the teacher's expertise and the ability to use the language as high as they appreciate his/her constant development as an L2 user and teacher. Another two roles (still preceding instruction and organization) indicated by the respondents both belong to the interpersonal group. Creating conditions conducive to learning, i.e. being sympathetic, objective, and generally exhibiting a positive attitude to stu dents, appears slightly more significant than acting as a socializing agent, who promotes discussions on various subjects (and often digresses) with the intent to shape the learners' personalities and broaden their horizons. Positions 10 and 11 are occupied by the functions selected by only a few students, while the last two positions are empty. Thus, the roles of an evaluator, who corrects mistakes and tests the pupils, and a controller, who disciplines them, are relatively unimportant. Participating in activities and acting as a friend (which would have filled the empty positions) seem not to matter at all.

In conclusion, the teachers who answered the questionnaire seem to be aware of the roles that the students expect them do focus on in the classroom, and, therefore, their opinions about the most important roles are similar to the students'. However, they realize that these vital functions for different reasons do not receive due attention during lessons. This is confirmed by the teachers' choices of the most common roles, which in turn correspond more to the roles actually performed than to the teachers' perceptions of significant functions.

An obvious question that comes to mind is why the teachers' role behavior is so incompatible with their students' expectations. In order to try and address this problem, one needs to take a closer look at the Polish school system. For one thing, Polish secondary school classrooms are overcrowded and an average of 30 students in one class is often the minimum. In such a numerous group it is extremely difficult to motivate everyone. The problem gets more complicated by the fact that many parents, being often unsatisfied with the few lessons of English their children have at school (2-3 45-minute sessions a week), have the students attend extra language courses. In this way almost every single classroom consists of mixed proficiency and mixed ability learners, with the more advanced ones treating the school lessons as peripheral. Motivating and counseling such a varied group may often appear beyond the teacher's control. Still, a lot of students are in a way motivated by the final exam which most of them take i n English. However, what they are evaluated on in the exam is not their interest in English or their strategies of learning or skills, but very often knowledge of grammatical rules and structures. Aware of these exam requirements, teachers focus on the roles that enable them to help their students prepare for the final examination. Therefore, they concentrate on transmitting knowledge and are preoccupied with testing and correctness, while neglecting counseling, facilitation, and motivation. It also has to be noted that generally Polish schools lack qualified teachers of English, low salaries forcing them to seek employment somewhere else. Although the situation is slowly changing now, cases of, say, biology or math teachers teaching English are not infrequent. Such teachers may feel too insecure to be able to focus on other than the basic roles of an organizer, evaluator, and knowledge transmitter. Additionally, they may simply not know how to go beyond these functions and perform other, probably more demand ing roles.

Still, there is hope for the teachers' role performance and students' expectations to become more congruent. As Poland is aspiring to join the European Union, numerous reforms, including that in the field of education, are being implemented. First of all, foreign languages are receiving more attention by being obligatorily introduced as early as the 4th grade of primary school (it used to be the 7th grade). Secondly, examination requirements are changing with the focus placed more on skills than language facts. Finally, teachers are beginning to feel the need to develop as now their future careers will by and large depend on their performance and ever-improving qualifications.

Theme: Cooperative Learning

Plan:

1. Introduction

2. Why use Cooperative Learning?

3. 5 Element of using Cooperative Learning

4. Class Activities that use Cooperative Learning

Reference

1. Kagan, Spencer. Cooperative Learning. San Clemente, CA: Kagan Publishing, 1994.
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Cooperative learning is a successful teaching strategy in which small teams, each with students of different levels of ability, use a variety of learning activities to improve their understanding of a subject. Each member of a team is responsible not only for learning what is taught but also for helping teammates learn, thus creating an atmosphere of achievement. Students work through the assignment until all group members successfully understand and complete it.

Cooperative efforts result in participants striving for mutual benefit so that all group members:
gain from each other's efforts. (Your success benefits me and my success benefits you.)

- recognize that all group members share a common fate. (We all sink or swim together here.)
- know that one's performance is mutually caused by oneself and one's team members. (We can not do it without you.)
- feel proud and jointly celebrate when a group member is recognized for achievement. (We all congratulate you on your accomplishment!).

Why use Cooperative Learning?

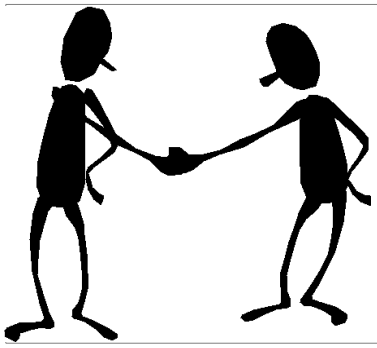
Research has shown that cooperative learning techniques:

- promote student learning and academic achievement
- increase student retention
- enhance student satisfaction with their learning experience
- help students develop skills in oral communication
- develop students' social skills
- promote student self-esteem

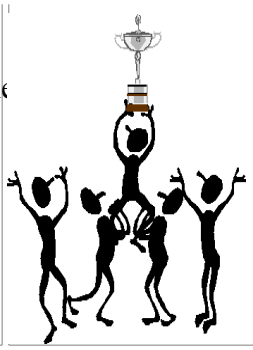
- help to promote positive race relations

5 Elements of Cooperative Learning

It is only under certain conditions that cooperative efforts may be expected to be more productive than competitive and individualistic efforts. Those conditions are:

1. Positive Interdependence (sink or swim together) Each group member's efforts are required and indispensable for group success Each group member has a unique contribution to make to the joint effort because of his or her resources and/or role and task responsibilities	
2. Face-to-Face Interaction (promote each other's success) Orally explaining how to solve problems Teaching one's knowledge to other Checking for understanding Discussing concepts being learned Connecting present with past learning	
3. Individual & Group Accountability (no hitchhiking! no social loafing) Keeping the size of the group small. The smaller the size of the group, the greater the individual accountability may be. Giving an individual test to each student. Randomly examining students orally by calling on one student to present his or her group's work to the teacher (in the presence of the group) or to the entire class. Observing each group and recording the frequency with which each member-contributes to the group's work. Assigning one student in each group the role of checker. The checker asks other group members to explain the reasoning and rationale underlying group answers. Having students teach what they learned to someone else.	
4. Interpersonal & Small-Group Skills Social skills must be taught: Leadership Decision-making Trust-building Communication Conflict-management skills	

5. Group Processing
Group members discuss how well they are achieving the and maintaining effective working relationships
Describe what member actions are helpful and not helpful
Make decisions about what behaviors to continue or change

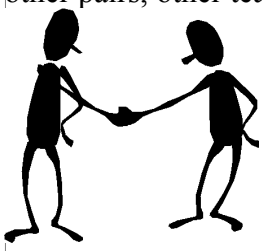


Class Activities that use Cooperative Learning

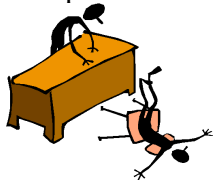
Most of these structures are developed by Dr. Spencer Kagan and his associates at Kagan Publishing and Professional Development. For resources and professional development information on Kagan Structures, please visit: www.KaganOnline.com

1. Jigsaw - Groups with five students are set up. Each group member is assigned some unique material to learn and then to teach to his group members. To help in the learning students across the class working on the same sub-section get together to decide what is important and how to teach it. After practice in these "expert" groups the original groups reform and students teach each other. (Wood, p. 17) Tests or assessment follows.

2. Think-Pair-Share - Involves a three step cooperative structure. During the first step individuals think silently about a question posed by the instructor. Individuals pair up during the second step and exchange thoughts. In the third step, the pairs share their responses with other pairs, other teams, or the entire group.

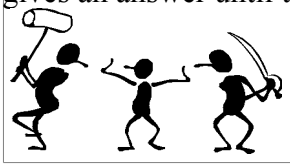


3. Three-Step Interview (Kagan) - Each member of a team chooses another member to be a partner. During the first step individuals interview their partners by asking clarifying questions. During the second step partners reverse the roles. For the final step, members share their partner's response with the team.

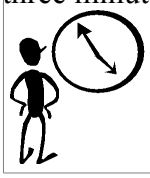


4. RoundRobin Brainstorming (Kagan)- Class is divided into small groups (4 to 6) with one person appointed as the recorder. A question is posed with many answers and students are given time to think about answers. After the "think time," members of the team share responses with one another round robin style. The recorder writes down the answers of the

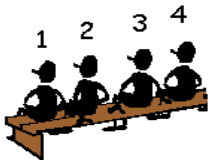
group members. The person next to the recorder starts and each person in the group in order gives an answer until time is called.



5. Three-minute review - Teachers stop any time during a lecture or discussion and give teams three minutes to review what has been said, ask clarifying questions or answer questions.



6. Numbered Heads Together (Kagan) - A team of four is established. Each member is given numbers of 1, 2, 3, 4. Questions are asked of the group. Groups work together to answer the question so that all can verbally answer the question. Teacher calls out a number (two) and each two is asked to give the answer.

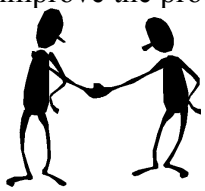


7. Team Pair Solo (Kagan)- Students do problems first as a team, then with a partner, and finally on their own. It is designed to motivate students to tackle and succeed at problems which initially are beyond their ability. It is based on a simple notion of mediated learning. Students can do more things with help (mediation) than they can do alone. By allowing them to work on problems they could not do alone, first as a team and then with a partner, they progress to a point they can do alone that which at first they could do only with help.

8. Circle the Sage (Kagan)- First the teacher polls the class to see which students have a special knowledge to share. For example the teacher may ask who in the class was able to solve a difficult math homework question, who had visited Mexico, who knows the chemical reactions involved in how salting the streets help dissipate snow. Those students (the sages) stand and spread out in the room. The teacher then has the rest of the classmates each surround a sage, with no two members of the same team going to the same sage. The sage explains what they know while the classmates listen, ask questions, and take notes. All students then return to their teams. Each in turn, explains what they learned. Because each one has gone to a different sage, they compare notes. If there is disagreement, they stand up as a team. Finally, the disagreements are aired and resolved.

9. Partners (Kagan) - The class is divided into teams of four. Partners move to one side of the room. Half of each team is given an assignment to master to be able to teach the other half. Partners work to learn and can consult with other partners working on the same material. Teams go back together with each set of partners teaching the other set. Partners quiz and

tutor teammates. Team reviews how well they learned and taught and how they might improve the process.



Theme: Error and Error Correction

Plan:

1. *Attitudes to error correction*
2. **Categorizing errors**
3. *A model for correcting writing*
4. The role of planning
5. Practical techniques / ideas for correcting writing

References:

When it comes to error correction we are dealing with one individual's reaction to a student's piece of writing or utterance. This inevitably means that there will be some disagreement among teachers about what, when, and how to correct. Therefore the aim of this article is not to be prescriptive, but to highlight some key areas. It is in 2 parts. In the first part we look at ...

- *Attitudes to error correction*
- *Categorizing errors*
- *A model for correcting writing*
- *The role of planning*
- *Practical techniques / ideas for correcting writing*

Attitudes to Error Correction

Attitudes to error correction vary not only among teachers but also among students. A teacher may be influenced by:

- The fact that English is their second language and great emphasis was placed on correctness at their teacher training college.
- The fact that as a native speaker they have never had to worry about their English.
- A particular methodology / approach. In the 1960s a teacher using Audiolingualism would have adopted a behaviourist approach to error. More recently a teacher following

the Natural Approach (influenced by second language acquisition theory) would have adopted a wholly different approach. Other methodologies / approaches, such as Suggestopaedia and Total Physical Response, highlight the psychological effects of error correction on students.

As for students, we not only have to consider their age but also their approach to learning. Some students are risk-takers, while others will only say something if they are sure it is correct. While being a risk-taker is generally positive as it leads to greater fluency, some students only seem to be concerned with fluency at the expense of accuracy. The same can be true when it comes to writing. Some students take an eternity to produce a piece of writing as they are constantly rubbing out what they have written while at the opposite extreme the writing is done as fast as possible without any planning or editing.

Categorising errors

We can categorise an error by the reason for its production or by its linguistic type.

- What's the reason for the error?
- It is the result of a random guess (pre-systematic).
- It was produced while testing out hypotheses (systematic).
- It is a slip of the tongue, a lapse, a mistake (caused by carelessness, fatigue etc.) (post-systematic).

To be sure about the type of error produced by a student we need to know where the student's interlanguage is (the language used by a student in the process of learning a second language).

What type is it?

We can classify errors simply as productive (spoken or written) or receptive (faulty understanding). Alternatively we can use the following:

- A lexical error - vocabulary
- A phonological error - pronunciation
- A syntactic error- grammar
- An interpretive error - misunderstanding of a speaker's intention
- or meaning
- A pragmatic error - failure to apply the rules of conversation

A model for Correcting Writing

When writing we do not have the chance to rephrase or clarify what we are saying. Our message must be clear the first time. Written errors are also less tolerated than spoken errors outside the classroom.

Look at this model for correcting written work and evaluate it for your teaching situation.

1. Comprehensibility
    - Can you understand the output?
    - Are there areas of incoherence?
    - Do these affect the overall message?
    - Does communication break down?
2. Task
    - Has the student addressed the task?
3. Syntax and Lexis
    - Are they appropriate to the task?
    - Are they accurate?

The role of planning

Giving students time to plan not only results in a wider range of language being used, it also helps students to avoid some of the following:

- Inappropriate layout
- No paragraphs
- Lack of cohesion
- Inappropriate style

Whichever style of plan (linear notes or a mind map) these questions will help students to plan their writing:

- What am I going to write? (An informal letter etc.)
- What layout do I need?
- What information am I going to include?
- How many paragraphs do I need?
- What grammar / vocabulary am I going to use?
- What linking words (because, and etc.) am I going to use?

Practical techniques / ideas for correcting writing

- Training students to edit

  Even though they have invested time in doing a writing task, students often don't spend a few more minutes checking their writing. The following activities not only help to develop students' editing skills in a fun way, but also enable the teacher to focus on key errors without individual students losing face.
- Grammar auctions: (From Grammar Games by M.Rinvolucri CUP) Students receive a number of sentences taken from their written work. Some are correct, some wrong. Students in groups have to try to buy the correct ones in the auction. They have a limited amount of money. The team with the most correct sentences wins.
- Mistakes mazes: (From Correction by Bartram and Walton Thomson Heinle). Students have a list of sentences. Their route through a maze depends on whether the sentences are right or wrong. They follow white arrows for correct sentences and black ones for incorrect ones. If they have identified all the sentences correctly they escape, if not they have to retrace their steps and find out where they went wrong.
- Correction techniques

  It can be difficult to decide on what and how much to correct in a student's piece of writing. Students can develop a negative attitude towards writing because their teacher corrects all their errors or if the teacher only corrects a few, they might feel that the teacher hasn't spent sufficient time looking at their work. Evaluate the following techniques and decide which would be appropriate for your teaching situation.Underline inappropriate language in a piece of writing using a specific colour.
- Using a different colour from above, underline examples of appropriate language.
- Correct errors by writing the correct forms in their place.
- Use codes in the margin to identify the type of error(s), for example, VOC = a lexical error. Students have to identify the error(s) and if possible make a correction.
- Alternatively put crosses in the margin for the number of errors in each line. Students then try to identify the errors and make corrections.
- Put students into pairs / groups. They correct each other's work using one or more of the techniques above.
- From time to time give students an individual breakdown of recurring problems in their written work.

Theme: Testing in foreign language teaching

Plan:

1. **Making tests relevant**
2. **Task-based testing**
3. **Making tests motivating**
4. **Reducing test anxiety**

References:

Tests for people of any age can seem a threat or, at the very least, an obstacle that needs to be overcome. Testing children is even more fraught with sensitivities. A poor experience early on could influence ongoing attitudes to learning itself. But testing doesn't have to be the "bump" in the flow of classroom life.

- Testing what we teach
- Making tests relevant
- Task-based testing
- Making tests motivating
- Reducing test anxiety

Testing what we teach

Background research and work on developing the Cambridge ESOL Young Learners English (YLE) Tests has shown how tests can be a useful focus of classroom activity, help shape and support the work done by teachers, and provide a genuinely positive experience that helps smooth the way forward for learning.

If tests and other assessment procedures for younger learners are to be useful, then they should, for example:

Take account of children's and young people's cognitive and social development

Be consistent with good practice in primary and secondary school teaching;

Support language use with clear contexts and accessible tasks

Reward children for what they do know, not penalise them for what they don't

Be relevant and look interesting (by making use of colour, graphics, technology)

Report meaningful results in order to encourage further learning.

Making tests relevant

Children relate to the world quite differently from adults. The first language skills to develop are normally in speaking and listening, and that is where the emphasis in testing children should be. Topic areas should be chosen which are relevant to children's lives - such as school, food, sports and animals - and all language should be used in an everyday context, matching the way in which young learners process language.

Any writing activity in testing is probably best limited to the word / phrase (enabling skills) level since young children have generally not yet developed the imaginative and organisational skills needed to produce extended writing. Older children and young teenagers will still benefit from a focus on listening and speaking skills, but they will also need to develop their literacy skills in the second language, so a focus on reading, and to a lesser degree writing, will be important. But whether the focus is on spoken or written language, it is still the emphasis on meaning in context rather than on language form which is preferable at any age. This means designing assessment tasks which test the meaningful use of language in clear, relevant, accessible contexts.

Task-based testing

If a task- or project-based approach is already used for language learning in the classroom, then this can be relatively easily reflected in approaches to assessment.

The communicative task-based approach is especially valuable since young people are motivated by and tend to perform best on tasks which directly reflect their own experiences of teaching/learning. For younger children it could be a simple listening task matching pictures to what they hear; or a simple oral task which involves choosing a present for a friend's birthday from a number of different possibilities. For young teenagers it might be a writing task in which they write a short review of their favourite TV programme for a school newsletter.

Tasks must also be appropriate to young learners' level of cognitive development, as some cognitive and linguistic strategies tend to be acquired later than others. For example, children only demonstrate 'search and stop' strategies around age 11; this means that scanning tasks are probably best used with older children (they are not included in the Cambridge YLE tests for 7-12-year-olds). In reading/listening comprehension, younger children sometimes have difficulty understanding who is the agent in a passive construction; and even young teenagers are not always confident at following reference chains through a text so this has implications for text selection and the comprehension questions that are devised. Task instructions also need to be easily understood and should not require extensive processing or memory abilities.

Making tests motivating

If material is presented in a lively and attractive manner, consistent with the age and background of the test-takers, then they are more likely to engage positively with a test and to perform to their best. It also helps to use tasks which are 'active' or 'game-like', e.g. colouring activities. Computer-based tasks offer the appeal of games through various facilities such as: click and drag, highlight, scroll, rearrange, art-pallette. Computers
can also make the teaching and assessment of writing skills much more fun because learners can exploit word processing features, such as boxes, font size, pictures, etc, to enhance the presentational quality of their work. They may also be more motivated if their work is put on display.

Reducing test anxiety

If tasks are relatively brief and narrowly-focused then test formats can include frequent changes of activity or task-type; this also has the advantage of giving learners multiple 'fresh starts' and avoids them becoming anxious or demotivated if a particular task doesn't seem to be going well. Test anxiety can also be reduced if children know clearly what is expected of them and can perceive a measure of fun in the activity. In the Cambridge YLE tests we wanted to create a low-anxiety situation, free from risk of confusion or fear of failure. Even the reporting of results can be designed as a positive experience to provide encouragement. The Cambridge YLE tests were designed so that no-one should 'fail', and everyone receives some credit for having taken part in the test.

Through continual improvement of testing for young learners, teachers are being given more support for their classroom work, and children given more confidence and enjoyment . In this way, testing can become the impetus rather than the brakes on learning.

Theme: Cooperative approaches to language learning

Plan:

1. **Introduction**
2. **Cooperative learning and reading**
3. **The Shared Book Experience Approach**

References:

1. Clay, M. (1980). *The Early Detection of Reading Difficulties: A Diagnostic Survey with Recovery Procedures*. Auckland: Heinemann.
2. Goodman, Y.M., & Burke, C. (1980). *Reading Strategies: Focus on Comprehension*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
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For the past forty-five to fifty years, since the demise of the one room schoolhouse, American education has been on a competitive and individualistic basis. In both learning situations, teachers try to keep students away from each other. "Don't copy," "Don't worry about your neighbor--take care of yourself," and "Move your desks apart" are some common phrases heard in classrooms. There is another way. Cooperative learning allows students to work together to reach common goals. Cooperation means more than putting students in groups. It means group participation in a project in which the outcome results from common effort, the goal is shared and each person's success is linked with every other person's success. In practice, this means that ideas and materials are shared, labor is divided, and everyone in the groups is rewarded for the successful completion of the task.

A cooperative group is defined as two to five students who are tied together by a common purpose--to complete the task and to include every group member. Cooperative groups differ from typical classroom groups in the following ways:

- In typical groups, one leader is chosen by the teacher; in a cooperative group, leadership is shared so that all students are responsible for completion of the task and all group members are included.

- In typical groups, groups are homogeneous in nature; in cooperative groups, members are chosen randomly, or selected by the teacher on the basis of gender, ability, interests, behavior, etc. so that the groups are heterogeneous as possible.
- In typical groups, members create their own product, have their own materials and have rewards based on individual accomplishment. In a cooperative group, the group creates one product and/or shares materials, and/or has a group reward based on the success as a group.
- In typical groups, students are told to "cooperate" with no attempt to teach social skills. In a cooperative group, social skills are defined, discussed, observed and processed.
- In typical groups, the teacher interrupts group work to solve problems, warn students and remind them. In a cooperative group, the teacher encourages group problem-solving. He is an interactor rather than an intervener.
- In a typical group, the top priority is to accomplish the task -- get the job done. In a cooperative group, the top priority is to accomplish the task *and* to include every member through each person's use of social skills. (Johnson & John son, 1983)

Cooperative learning situations, compared to competitive or individualistic ones, promote greater achievement motivation, more intrinsic motivation, more persistence in completing the tasks, and greater continuing motivation to learn. Cooperative learning experiences also result in more positive attitudes toward the subject area and instructor than do the other two instructional approaches. Cooperative learning experiences also result in higher levels of self-esteem, healthier processes for deriving conclusions about one's self worth, and greater psychological health than do competitive and individualistic learning experiences (Johnson & Johnson, 1983).

Cooperative learning and reading

Reading instruction is usually not seen as a time to develop these cooperative and social skills. Ninety-eight per cent of reading instruction in the United States is focused on the use of the basal reading series, and its typical management system encourages division and competition. Children are typically grouped and placed at appropriate levels of instruction according to academic ability. Individual performance in groups is stressed, not cooperation. Rasinski and Nathenson-Mejia (1987) argue that school, and particularly reading instruction, should promote cooperative and socialization skills, Schools must help children see that they live in a world of others and bear a responsibility to others. Selflessness, not selfishness, is as important a determinant of the viability of a society as are the academic levels its citizens achieve.

They conclude, "the purpose of school is to teach children how to live together as well as how to know"

A growing body of research on effective literacy instruction and developmental learning confirms that programs which stress the cooperative and social nature of literacy are most appropriate (Goodman, 1980; Meek, 1982; Smith, 1978; Clay, 1980). Such programs are characterized by shared literacy experiences, emphasis on the development of skills in the context of authentic literacy episodes and working and talking in groups to promote social and cooperative skills as the teacher adopts the role of a facilitator.

Hepler and Hickman (1982) refer to classrooms which exemplify these traits as "communities of readers." They feel that the establishment of such communities is essential to the successful development of literacy. The authors identify the ways in which classmates socialize and cooperate together as they find their way to reading. They observed children turning to each other: for information about what to read, to explore meanings together, as an audience for the sharing of extension activities, and as models for reading behavior. The teacher in these communities assumes the role of community planner. This notion of the social nature of reading is corroborated by researcher Margaret Meek who confirms that, "for all the reading research we have financed, we are certain only that good readers pick their own way to literacy in the company of friends who encourage and sustain them and that the enthusiasm of a trusted adult can make the difference" (1982, p. 60). This premise of learning literacy in the context of a cooperative community of learners best supports the Native American learning style because children use all their senses to make discoveries and are immersed in an environment where students and teachers work to support each other. This feeling of cooperation and community is reflected in the Native American family structure.

The Shared Book Experience Approach

One approach to beginning reading instruction which fosters these cooperative and social skills is the Shared Book Experience Approach developed by Don Holdaway. The materials and strategies provide equal opportunities for all students to share boo k experiences by de-emphasizing cultural and academic differences. Holdaway stresses that reading instruction should be non-competative and states,

There is no greater source of inefficiency in school methods of teaching language than the dependence on competition as a motivator. The real business of learning is concerned with performing better than yesterday or last week: it has absolutely nothing to do with performing better than someone else. Children want to learn any developmental task in order to be *the same* as their peers, not better than them. (1980, p. 18)

He developed his approach in response to New Zealand educators' concerns that populations of Native Polynesian and Maori children were not succeeding in traditional reading and language programs. Two major goals for instruction were established:

- children would not be segregated by ability
- children of different cultural backgrounds would experience success.

The Shared Book Experience Approach is modeled upon the framework for the natural acquisition of oral language (Holdaway, 1982). Young children learn to speak in a supportive social context in which they seek to communicate meaning. Their purpose is to be understood and to have their needs met. Holdaway strives to replicate these dimensions in his literacy program. Texts used in the approach are selections from quality children's literature and are to be shared and enjoyed. These selections have been enlarged so that they can be shared with large groups and are called Big Books. The teacher's role is to induce rather than to directly teach a process. As the class enjoys books, active participation is encouraged as together, children respond in unison, discuss, and become involved in extension activities. The lessons are presented to involve children in using their visual, auditory, and kinesthetic senses. In these contexts, social and cooperative skills are promoted and developed. Each child's progress is monitored individually and there is no competition among peers.

The success of this approach has been thoroughly documented and the model has been adapted internationally (Holdaway, 1982). children from diverse backgrounds perform at levels equal to or above their peers. In addition, all children seem to develop very positive attitudes about reading. Thus, children who participate in this program which emphasizes cooperative and social skills seem to become communities of readers as described by literacy experts such as Yetta Goodman and Frank Smith. They also are involved in opportunities to use all learning modalities and language learning is strengthened.

Cooperative learning and science

Testing hypotheses while conducting a science experiment can also offer groups of students opportunities to work cooperatively and use multiple functions of language. As participants work together to think critically about a science experiment, they use language to speculate about and develop conclusions. Social and cooperative skills are cultivated as the students listen critically to each other, work to involve all participants, and negotiate meaning together. Opportunities are also present to employ the visual, kinesthetic, and auditory senses to increase learning connections.

Conclusion

Educators must recognize the forceful ways in which both cultural differences and learning styles impact upon a child's ability to learn and use language. Research confirms that approaches to language learning which incorporate opportunities to use all learning modalities in cooperative contexts are optimal for all children. These strategies are particularly appropriate for Native American children who learn best by using all their senses in environments where cooperation is emphasized. The most powerful language curricula are those which maximize opportunities for multiple channeling and cooperative learning.

Theme: Classroom Management, Management of Student Conduct

Plan:

1. Introduction
2. Setting expectations for behavior
3. Managing inappropriate behavour
4. Promote appropriate use of consequences

References:

Surveys of graduates of education schools and colleges indicate that the #1 area of concern of new teachers is their feelings of inadequacy in managing classrooms. Despite clinical experiences, student teaching, and other observations in classroom settings, this problem has persisted for decades. There is no magic elixir that will confer skill in this area of professional responsibility. We only wish there were.

Classroom management and management of student conduct are skills that teachers acquire and hone over time. These skills almost never "jell" until after a minimum of few years of teaching experience. To be sure, effective teaching requires considerable skill in managing the myriad of tasks and situations that occur in the classroom each day. Skills such as effective classroom management are central to teaching and require "common sense," consistency, a sense of fairness, and courage. These skills also require that teachers understand in more than one way the psychological and developmental levels of their students. The skills associated with effective classroom management are only acquired with practice, feedback, and a willingness to learn from mistakes. Sadly, this is often easier said than done. Certainly, a part of this problem is that there is no practical way for education students to "practice" their nascent skills outside of actually going into a classroom setting. The learning curve is steep, indeed.

As previously mentioned, personal experience and research indicate that many beginning teachers have difficulty effectively managing their classrooms. While there is no one best solution for every problem or classroom setting, the following principles, drawn from a number of sources, might help. Classroom teachers with many years of experience have contributed to an understanding of what works and what doesn't work in managing classrooms and the behavior of students. The following information represents some of the things that good classroom teachers do to maintain an atmosphere that enhances learning. It is written in straightforward, non-preachy language, and will not drive you to distraction with its length. I think most students appreciate that. With that in mind, I truly hope this information is useful to you.

Please send any comments, suggestions, or questions to Dr. Robert Kizlik

An Effective Classroom Management Context (these four things are fundamental)

1. Know what you want and what you don't want.

2. Show and tell your students what you want.

3. When you get what you want, acknowledge (not praise) it.

4. When you get something else, act quickly and appropriately.

ROOM ARRANGEMENT

While good room arrangement is not a guarantee of good behavior, poor planning in this area can create conditions that lead to problems.

The teacher must be able to observe all students at all times and to monitor work and behavior. The teacher should also be able to see the door from his or her desk.

Frequently used areas of the room and traffic lanes should be unobstructed and easily accessible.

Students should be able to see the teacher and presentation area without undue turning or movement.

Commonly used classroom materials, e.g., books, attendance pads, absence permits, and student reference materials should be readily available.

Some degree of decoration will help add to the attractiveness of the room

SETTING EXPECTATIONS FOR BEHAVIOR

*Teachers should identify expectations for student behavior and communicate those expectations to students periodically.

* Rules and procedures are the most common explicit expectations. A small number of general rules that emphasize appropriate behavior may be helpful. Rules should be posted in the classroom. Compliance with the rules should be monitored constantly.

* **Do not** develop classroom rules you are unwilling to enforce.

* School-Wide Regulations...particularly safety procedures...should be explained carefully.

* Because desirable student behavior may vary depending on the activity, explicit expectations for the following procedures are helpful in creating a smoothly functioning classroom:

- Beginning and ending the period, including attendance procedures and what students may or may not do during these times.

- Use of materials and equipment such as the pencil sharpener, storage areas, supplies, and special equipment.

- Teacher-Led Instruction

- Seatwork

- How students are to answer questions - for example, no student answer will be recognized

unless he raises his hand and is called upon to answer by the teacher.

- Independent group work such as laboratory activities or smaller group projects.

Remember, good discipline is much more likely to occur if the classroom setting and activities are structured or arranged to enhance cooperative behavior.

MANAGING STUDENT ACADEMIC WORK

* Effective teacher-led instruction is free of:

- Ambiguous and vague terms
- Unclear sequencing
- Interruptions

* Students must be held accountable for their work.

* The focus is on academic tasks and learning as the central purpose of student effort, rather than on good behavior for its own sake.

MANAGING INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR

* Address instruction and assignments to challenge academic achievement while continuing to assure individual student success.

* Most inappropriate behavior in classrooms that is not seriously disruptive and can be managed by relatively simple procedures that prevent escalation.

* Effective classroom managers practice skills that minimize misbehavior.

* Monitor students carefully and frequently so that misbehavior is detected early before it involves many students or becomes a serious disruption.

* Act to stop inappropriate behavior so as not to interrupt the instructional activity or to call excessive attention to the student by practicing the following unobstructive strategies:

- Moving close to the offending student or students, making eye contact and giving a nonverbal signal to stop the offensive behavior.
- Calling a student's name or giving a short verbal instruction to stop behavior.
- Redirecting the student to appropriate behavior by stating what the student should be doing; citing the applicable procedure or rule.

Example: "Please, look at the overhead projector and read the first line with me, I need to see everyone's eyes looking here."

- More serious, disruptive behaviors such as fighting, continuous interruption of lessons, possession of drugs and stealing require direct action according to school board rule.

Assertive Discipline has been used by many schools, and is an effective way to manage behavior. Find out more by **clicking here.**

PROMOTING APPROPRIATE USE OF CONSEQUENCES

* In classrooms, the most prevalent positive consequences are intrinsic student satisfaction resulting from success, accomplishment, good grades, social approval and recognition.
* Students must be aware of the connection between tasks and grades.
* Frequent use of punishment is associated with poor classroom management and generally should be avoided.
* When used, negative consequences or punishment should be related logically to the misbehavior.
* Milder punishments are often as effective as more intense forms and do not arouse as much negative emotion.
* Misbehavior is less likely to recur if a student makes a commitment to avoid the action and to engage in more desirable alternative behaviors.
* Consistency in the application of consequences is the key factor in classroom management.

SOME ESOL PRINCIPLES (A FEW THINGS TO KNOW ABOUT L.E.P. STUDENTS):

* They are not stupid and they can hear what is being said.. They just don't necessarily understand the language or culture, yet.
* They come from a variety of backgrounds, even in the same country. For example schooled, unschooled, Americanized, etc.
* It is easy to misunderstand body language and certain behaviors. For example, eye contact, spitting, chalk eating, etc.
* Don't assume they understand something just because it seems simple to you. Simplify, boil down.
* Even when they have lost their accent, they often misunderstand common words and phrases.
* Correct repeated patterns or mistakes.
* Good E.S.O.L. strategies are good teaching strategies.

Themes: The role of using Games

Plan:

1. The role of games in learning English
2. When to use games?
3. Why use games in class times?

References:

'Many experienced textbook and methodology manuals writers have argued that games are not just time-filling activities but have a great educational value. W. R. Lee holds that most language games make learners use the language instead of thinking about learning the correct forms (1979:2). He also says that games should be treated as central not peripheral to the foreign language teaching programme. A similar opinion is expressed by Richard-Amato, who believes games to be fun but warns against overlooking their pedagogical value, particularly in foreign language teaching. There are many advantages of using games. "Games can lower anxiety, thus making the acquisition of input more likely" (Richard-Amato 1988:147). They are highly motivating and entertaining, and they can give shy students more opportunity to express their opinions and feelings (Hansen 1994:118). They also enable learners to acquire new experiences within a foreign language which are not always possible during a typical lesson. Furthermore, to quote Richard-Amato, they, "add diversion to the regular classroom activities," break the ice, "[but also] they are used to introduce new ideas" (1988:147). In the easy, relaxed atmosphere which is created by using games, students remember things faster and better (Wierus and Wierus 1994:218). S. M. Silvers says many teachers are enthusiastic about using games as "a teaching device," yet they often perceive games as mere time-fillers, "a break from the monotony of drilling" or frivolous activities. He also claims that many teachers often overlook the fact that in a relaxed atmosphere, real learning takes place, and students use the language they have been exposed to and have practised earlier (1982:29). Further support comes from Zdybiewska, who believes games to be a good way of practising language, for they provide a model of what learners will use the language for in real life in the future (1994:6).'

'Games encourage, entertain, teach, and promote fluency. If not for any of these reasons, they should be used just because they help students see beauty in a foreign language and not just problems that at times seem overwhelming.'

When to Use Games

'Games are often used as short warm-up activities or when there is some time left at the end of a lesson. Yet, as Lee observes, a game "should not be regarded as a marginal activity filling in odd moments when the teacher and class have nothing better to do" (1979:3). Games ought to be at the heart of teaching foreign languages. Rixon suggests that games be used at all stages of the lesson, provided that they are suitable and carefully chosen.'

'Games also lend themselves well to revision exercises helping learners recall material in a pleasant, entertaining way. All authors referred to in this article agree that even if games resulted only in noise and entertained students, they are still worth paying attention to and implementing in the classroom since they motivate learners, promote communicative competence, and generate fluency.'

'Games have been shown to have advantages and effectiveness in learning vocabulary in various ways. First, games bring in relaxation and fun for students, thus help them learn and retain new words more easily. Second, games usually involve friendly competition and they keep learners interested. These create the motivation for learners of English to get involved and participate actively in the learning activities. Third, vocabulary games bring real world context into the classroom, and enhance students' use of English in a flexible, communicative way.'

'Therefore, the role of games in teaching and learning vocabulary cannot be denied. However, in order to achieve the most from vocabulary games, it is essential that suitable games are chosen. Whenever a game is to be conducted, the number of students, proficiency level, cultural context, timing, learning topic, and the classroom settings are factors that should be taken into account.'

'In conclusion, learning vocabulary through games is one effective and interesting way that can be applied in any classrooms. The results of this research suggest that games are used not only for mere fun, but more importantly, for the useful practice and review of language lessons, thus leading toward the goal of improving learners' communicative competence.'

Why Use Games in Class Time?

* Games are fun and children like to play them. Through games children experiment, discover, and interact with their environment. (Lewis, 1999)

* Games add variation to a lesson and increase motivation by providing a plausible incentive to use the target language. For many children between four and twelve years old, especially the

youngest, language learning will not be the key motivational factor. Games can provide this stimulus. (Lewis, 1999)

* The game context makes the foreign language immediately useful to the children. It brings the target language to life. (Lewis, 1999)
* The game makes the reasons for speaking plausible even to reluctant children. (Lewis, 1999)
* Through playing games, students can learn English the way children learn their mother tongue without being aware they are studying; thus without stress, they can learn a lot.
* Even shy students can participate positively.

How to Choose Games (Tyson, 2000)

* A game must be more than just fun.
* A game should involve "friendly" competition.
* A game should keep all of the students involved and interested.
* A game should encourage students to focus on the use of language rather than on the language itself.
* A game should give students a chance to learn, practice, or review specific language material.

'In an effort to supplement lesson plans in the ESL classroom, teachers often turn to games. The justification for using games in the classroom has been well demonstrated as benefiting students in a variety of ways. These benefits range from cognitive aspects of language learning to more co-operative group dynamics.'

General Benefits of Games

Affective:

- lowers affective filter
- encourages creative and spontaneous use of language
- promotes communicative competence
- motivates
- fun

Cognitive:

- reinforces
- reviews and extends
- focuses on grammar communicatively

Class Dynamics:

- student centered
- teacher acts only as facilitator
- builds class cohesion

- fosters whole class participation
- promotes healthy competition

Adaptability:

- easily adjusted for age, level, and interests
- utilizes all four skills
- requires minimum preparation after development

Theme: What is Good language Teaching?

Plan:

Introduction
Principles for good language teaching

References:

Introduction

IT IS NOT OUR AIM to try to reproduce here any of the extremely useful and valuable work already published on good language teaching and learning. However, one of the fundamental principles upon which our approach to mentoring and to mentor training, monitoring and evaluation is based is that we have a common, shared understanding and Vision' of what constitutes good practice in terms of language teaching and learning, It is vital that we know where we are aiming with our trainee teachers and that all parties involved in the training process share that aim. Without this, coherent and effective training would be impossible - a bit like ejiibarJimg on a journey without having any idea of the ultimate destination!

The flowchart on the next page is the compilation of the work carried out by both new and experienced mentors when asked to describe what they would see in a languages classroom where they felt there was good practice. Of course many of the 'elements' would apply to any subject and are not just specific to Modern Languages teaching. However, by identifying the principles underpinning our philosophy and approach to teaching and learning, we are then in a position to start to plan the training and work out the route.

The list is not exhaustive and you may well think of other elements which we have not included. Feel free to add them to the chart. Another very useful, activity which it is worth doing every so often is to try to prioritise four or five key elements which you feel are the absolute key to good practice.

When asked to perform this task, mentors came up with the following:

- ENGAGEMENT AND INVOLVEMENT
- ACTIVE
- CATERING FOR DIFFERING LEARNING STYLES
- CHALLENGING
- PURPOSEFUL

For both pedagogical and educational reasons it is crucial to know what it is that makes language teaching; good language teaching. Surveys have been conducted to find out that the good language learner does; it would be wonderful to have a corresponding top-ten list of what the good language teacher does. But language teaching and language acquisition are complex entities and it is difficult to point to what exactly it is in teaching that leads to the results in learning. All language teachers have experienced activities being a success in one class but an absolute failure in the next. Good language teaching in practice is, then, to a great extent a series of relative processes, it is only good if it is constantly adapted to particular students' needs, potential and situation.

On the other hand, there are also certain principles that underlie practice. The concrete activities in the actual teaching are an expression of certain gencralisable principles, and it is in the interaction between principles and practice that good language teaching is to be delineated as a dynamic entity.

For language teaching to preserve its dynamic nature and to become, and remain, good language teaching, the language teacher must constantly work dialectically with principles and practice: convert principles into concrete teaching activities and, use the concrete activities to adjust the principles. Thirdly, the good language teacher must be able to develop principles and practice in the light of the theories underlying both principles and practice and therefore be able to reflect on what view of language, acquisition, culture and human beings is the driving force behind given principles and activities.

Good language teaching is then a dynamic entity which derives its dynamism from the teacher's 'research activity'.

Principles for good language teaching

We can ask the question and attempt to come up with some possible answers:

What must the good language teacher be able to do? What learning forum must he or she place at the disposal of those seeking to acquire the language?

Good language teaching opens up the possibility for a communicative learning forum

In a communicative learning forum language learners gain the opportunity to:

- experience themselves as users of the new language in genuine communication
- express themselves in the new language forum
- undergo experiences involving the new language
- undergo experiences involving cultural and social differences.

These principles are based on a conception of language as a functional means of communication and learning as a cognitive, social process where the search for language for mediation, interaction and understanding of an outside world are seen as the driving force behind acquisition.
The possibilities of putting these principles into practice lie in content-oriented problem-solving tasks that supplement each other and together create content-based contexts (tasks, problem-based assignments, projects).
A central criterion for assessing whether the planned activities will lead to the establishing of a communicative forum is where there lies behind the activities a visibly well-defined content-borne aim. Are there good reasons for the individual to set out on a linguistic interaction with the outside world - orally or in writing - as a listener or as a reader? Whether the pedagogical organisation with initiate linguistic interaction depends on whether there is any good reason for listening or reading that which is to be communicated, and whether there is any clear aim in talking or putting pen to paper.

2 Good language teaching creates linguistic attention in relation to the content-oriented communication

- Does the task require two-way communication? Does everybody in the group have to participate for the task to be solved - i.e. have all parties gathered information that the others need?
- Is interaction required for the task to be solved or the project completed?
- Is it built into the task that the parties have to attain a common goal?

The more times one can answer in the affirmative to the above questions, the greater the possibility will be that the activities taking place in the class will give rise to active, concentrated readers, listeners, speakers and writers. If one can answer in the affirmative to these questions, opportunities will exist for the participants to be part of activities that require them:

- to understand the input they are exposed to
- to try and clarify meaning whenever mere is something they do not understand
- to give feed-back on what they hear and to get feed-back on what they say.

This means that the conditions exist for language learners to note that which is one of the central learning tasks, i.e. the new language clothing that surrounds the content. The more it is built into the communicative activities that understanding, clarification and feed-back are necessary, the greater the chance that the participants will acquire new language and develop their interlanguage. One of the central conditions for a developing of interlanguage taking place is that the

individual discovers and notes the hole in his or her own interlanguage and then sets about Pegging it.
Learning a new language is a long-term, experimental process in which hypotheses have to be put forward and tested concerning the relationships between linguistic content and linguistic forms. This is best achieved if the activities one is involved in regularly enable one to consciously focus on the new language.
Learning a new language is also a process that requires opportunities to use the same language for a variety of purposes. Without repetitions, no automation of the new language will take place.

3. Good language teaching helps the students to assume responsibility for their own learning

One of ways of trying to promote communicative teaching has to do with moving from the more closed, teacher-defined types of tasks to open, self-defined activities. This is a hard lesson -not only for the language learner but for the teacher as well. The teacher has to learn to let go, and the students who are used to having teacher-controlled teaching have to go through a phase of reassessment as to what good teaching is. This is best achieved via a process. A sudden change to more open forms of organisation will probably not lead to autonomous, self "governing language learners but rather to discontented students who long to return to the good old authoritarian teaching forum.
The role of the teacher in the communicative forum will change from being the mediating 'tanker' to being a pedagogical organiser, initiator, observer and resource person. And most of the teacher's work will consist of planning - before and after the actual teaching.

4 Good language teaching breaks down walls

In autonomous, communicative teaching, walls have been broken down. The class seeks information and does project work in the right place, which will only rarely be in a classroom horseshoe. In second-language teaching there are ideal possibilities right outside. The Danish language, Danish society are right there and can be fetched and used in the activities of the class. In foreign-language teaching, the Internet opens up possibilities which, in many ways, can help to liberate the students.
IT and the Internet can enhance the process towards greater autonomy, but only if IT is conceived in conjunction with a pedagogical practice that builds partly on communicative activities and partly on a problem-solving learning forum where responsibility for one's own

learning is one of the portals. The worst scenario is every man his computer, without an iota of pedagogical innovation taking place. That would take us back to a teaching and a medium that are best at dealing with the structural filling-in exercises of the past. No amount of introducing technical aids will be of any benefit if they are simply anchored in a traditional, teacher-governed, grammar-fixated teaching practice.

Good language teaching seeks to establish free scope in the form of workshops and study centres as a centre of gyration for the activities of both the individual and the class. It creates work fora where there is not only freedom but also an obligation to assume responsibility for one's own learning.

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