О. А. Соловьева

TEACHING METHODOLOGY: A GUIDEBOOK

МЕТОДИКА ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ: КРАТКИЙ КУРС

*Рекомендовано учебно-методическим объединением
в сфере высшего образования Республики Беларусь
по лингвистическому образованию в качестве учебного пособия
для специальностей «Лингводидактика» и «Литературоведение»*

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Учебное пособие предназначено для формирования профессионально-методической компетентности магистрантов. Включает краткий обзор методов обучения иностранным языкам и определяющих их теорий в диахроническом аспекте, характеристику современной образовательной парадигмы и особенностей языковой политики в национальных образовательных пространствах, задания для аудиторной и самостоятельной работы.

Адресуется иностранным студентам, обучающимся по специальностям высшего образования второй ступени (магистратуры) «Лингводидактика» и «Литературоведение».

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PREFACE

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Contents

Glossary ◀

Foreign language learning	entails learning a non-native language in an environment in which the target language is not the majority language spoken in the community, such as learning Arabic in Japan or English in Belarus (Gregory D. Keating, 2016)
Second language learning	entails learning a non-native language in an environment in which the target language is the majority language spoken in the community, as is the case when learning Arabic in Morocco (Gregory D. Keating, 2016)
Second language (L2)	In SLA research this term refers to the learning of a non-native language in any context (Gregory D. Keating, 2016)
Domain-general learning mechanisms	refer to cognitive mechanisms which allow us to learn a variety of complex mental tasks such as reading, solving arithmetic problems, playing chess, and so forth (Gregory D. Keating, 2016)
Language-specific learning mechanisms	are cognitive mechanisms specifically designed to deal with language, ones separate from the domain-general variety (Gregory D. Keating, 2016)
Scaffolding	is a metaphor widely used in education and language teaching to describe the guidance, collaboration and support provided by teachers to lead children to new learning. As the metaphor implies, scaffolding is a temporary construct, which can be put up, taken down, reinforced and strengthened, or dismantled piece by piece once it is no longer needed, and as children develop language and skills which enable them to act in an increasingly competent, confident and independent way (Read, 2006).
Approach	deals with the philosophy of teaching, and it is a set of principles or ideas about the nature of language teaching and learning. It determines a theoretical strategy for teaching a language (Azimov & Shchukin, 2009). Taking into consideration that an approach (in comparison with a method) is a more flexible and less regulated phenomenon, a few methods can be developed within one and the same approach

Method	is a tactical model of the process of teaching which actualizes this or that approach, it is "an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material" (Anthony 1963: 63)
Technique	refers to classroom activities and procedures. Unlike a method, a technique is a very specific, concrete device designed to accomplish an immediate objective (Anthony 1963). Some techniques are widely used and can be found in many methods (e.g. imitation, picture presentations); others are specific to a given method (e.g. creating an information gap) (T.P. Leontieva).
Intuitive approach to teaching	is based on subconscious foreign language acquisition with the ban on the use of the mother tongue, lack of systematic practice of grammar structures, etc. (T.P. Leontieva)
Conscious approach to teaching	is based on conscious foreign language acquisition; it involves the students' mental processes, when new information is relatable to the learner's existing cognitive structure (T.P. Leontieva)
Suggestopedia	(derived from the words "suggestion" and "pedagogy") is "a science … concerned with the systematic study of the non-rational and/or non-conscious influences" that human beings are constantly responding to (G.Lozanov)
Hypermnesia	(from Greek ὑπέρ - super and μνήμη - memory) is an increased ability to remember and recall information
Competences	represent a dynamic combination of attributes, abilities and attitudes. Fostering these competences is the object of educational programmes. Competences are formed in various course units and assessed at different stages. They may be divided in subject-area related competences (specific to a field of study) and generic competences (common to any degree course) (ECTS Users' Guide, 2005)
Learning outcomes	statements of what a learner is expected to know, understand and/or be able to demonstrate after completion of a process of learning (D. Kennedy, 2007)

Formative assessment	a type of assessment that helps to inform the teacher and the students as to how the students are progressing. Formative assessment is usually carried out at the beginning of or during a programme. The intention is that the feedback that the students receive from the teacher helps to improve their learning (D. Kennedy, 2007)
Summative assessment	assessment that tries to summarise student learning at some point in time – usually the end of a module or course. The use of summative assessment enables a grade to be generated that reflects the student's performance (D. Kennedy, 2007)
Intercultural communication	is an appropriate interaction of speakers of different languages and culture-bearers, showing in one way or another the mismatch of national thinking stereotypes and communicative behaviour (N.D. Galskova, N.I. Gez, 2015, p. 19)
Multilingualism	the coexistence of different languages at the social or individual level (CEFR, 2020)
Plurilingualism	the dynamic and developing linguistic repertoire of an individual user/learner (CEFR, 2020). Plurilinguals have a single, interrelated, repertoire that they combine with their general competences and various strategies in order to accomplish tasks
Communicative stress	the performance conditions for a task: time limits and pressure to complete the task, material volume and speed of its presentation, number of interlocutors and opportunities to control interaction
Task-in-process	a communicative activity in which learners are to accomplish a non-linguistic outcome (e.g. order and sequence, match, categorize, prioritize, rank, solve a problem) often using pre-selected linguistic structures
Task-as-workplan	comparable to real-world organized activities in which learners are to accomplish a non-linguistic outcome using the linguistic resources available in their long-term memory

Chapter I. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Lecture "Learning theories and language-specific psychological theories" ◄

In the history of the method, the emergence of a new method is due to three main **factors:**

1. **the public demand at a given period of time**
2. **the development of related sciences**
3. **the way** in which a particular **methodological problem is solved** at a given historical period

Remember: each new method approach and method **does not negate the previous one**, but looks at the ways of solving methodological problems in a new way and absorbs the best.

Scan the theory the lecturer characterizes in class:

[Sources you may explore further if you wish:
https://www.wgu.edu/blog/five-educational-learning-theories2005.html#close
https://www.phoenix.edu/blog/educational-learning-theories.html
https://www.theedadvocate.org/social-constructivism-in-education/
http://www.gerardfriel.com/instructional-design/cognitive-load-theory/
https://www.simplypsychology.org/multiple-intelligences.html
https://www.mshouser.com/teaching-tips/8-strategies-for-scaffolding-instruction]

Theories in brief	Teaching techniques and teaching tools
Behaviorism **(I.P. Pavlov, 1903,** **B.F. Skinner, 1960s)** It suggests that behaviors are influenced and learned from external forces rather than internal forces. Positive reinforcement is a popular element of behaviorism—classical conditioning observed in Pavlov's dog experiments suggests that behaviors are directly motivated by the reward that can be obtained.	Teachers in a classroom can utilize positive reinforcement to help students better learn a concept. Students who receive positive reinforcement are more likely to retain information moving forward, a direct result of the behaviorism theory. **Teaching tools:** Lecture Drill and Practice *Rote learning* (memorization technique based on repetition) Multiple-choice tests

Cognitivism
(W. Kohler, 1930s)

In contrast to behaviourism, cognitivism focuses on the idea that students process information they receive rather than just responding to a stimulus, as with behaviourism.

There is still a behaviour change evident, but this is in response to thinking and processing information.

Cognitivism has given rise to many evidence based education theories, including cognitive load theory, schema theory and dual coding theory as well as being the basis for retrieval practice.

Atkinson and Shiffrin's memory processing model shows the role working memory plays in the learning process and Cognitive Load Theory can be applied to limit unnecessary effort in this area.
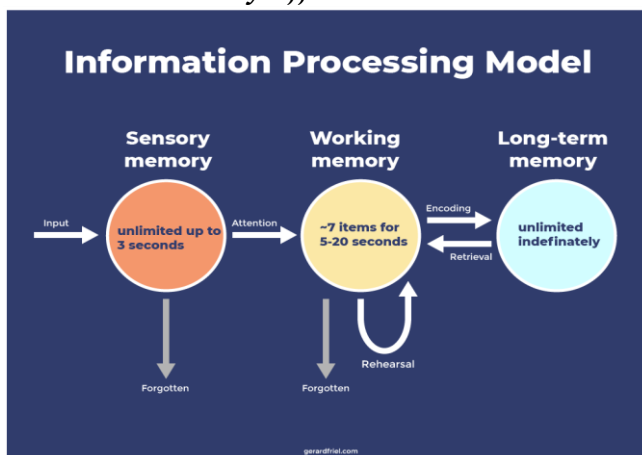
Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences

In cognitivism theory, learning occurs when the student reorganises information, either by finding new explanations or adapting old ones.

Teaching tools:
Lecture
Visual tools (mind-maps, charts)
to facilitate memorization
for learning

Multiple-choice tests
Essays

Constructivism **(J. Piage, 1930-40s)** It is based on the idea that students actually create their own learning based on their previous experiences. Students take what they're being taught and add it to their previous knowledge and experiences, creating a reality that's unique to them. This learning theory focuses on learning as an active process, which is personal and individual for each student. **Scaffolding** is a well-known metaphor widely used in education and language teaching to describe the guidance, collaboration and support provided by teachers to lead children to new learning. As the metaphor implies, scaffolding is a temporary construct which can be put up, taken down, reinforced and strengthened, or dismantled piece by piece once it is no longer needed, and as children develop language and skills which enable them to act in an increasingly competent, confident and independent way (Read, 2006).	Teachers can utilize constructivism to help understand that each student will bring their own past to the classroom every day. Teachers in constructivist classrooms act as more of a guide to helping students create their own learning and understanding. They help them create their own process and reality based on their own past. This is crucial to helping many kinds of students take their own experiences and include them in their learning. **Teaching tools:** Discovery Self-guided learning based on personal experience Scaffolding (C.Read, 2008):
Socio-constructivism **(L.Vygotsky, 1930s)** According to it, social worlds develop out of individuals' interactions with their culture and society. Social constructivism teaches that all knowledge develops as a result of social interaction and language use, and is therefore a shared, rather than an individual, experience. Knowledge is additionally not a result of observing the world, it results from many social processes and interactions.	The process of learning requires that the learners actively participate in creative activities and self-organization. Teachers should allow their students to come up with their own questions, make their own theories, and test them for viability. Teachers should encourage errors resulting from the learners' ideas, instead of minimizing or avoiding them. **Teaching tools:** Collaborative group-work Peer-grading Peer-review Scaffolding (example by K.Houser, 2021):
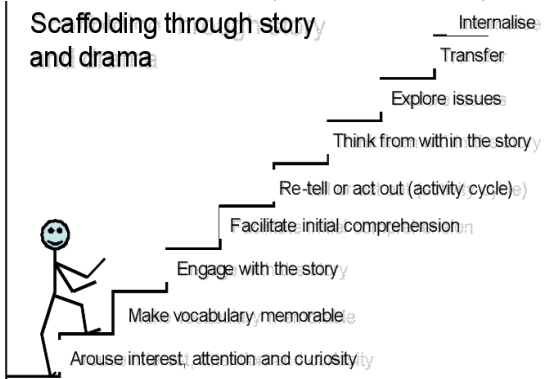
Zone of Proximal Development

What a child can do on their own

ZPD

What a child can do with help

What a child cannot do even with help

Difficulty of an activity

Learning and development

ZPD = The gap between what a child can currently do on their own and what they can do with help

Use of first language

Visuals and Realia

Read Aloud

Modeling/Gestures

Graphic Organizers

Scaffolding Strategies

Intentional Small Group/Partner Work

Connect to Background Knowledge

Sentence Structures/ Starters

▪I know _____ because _____.

The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is the distance between a learner's ability to perform a task under adult guidance and/or with peer collaboration and their ability to solve the problem independently. According to Vygotzky, learning occurs in this zone.
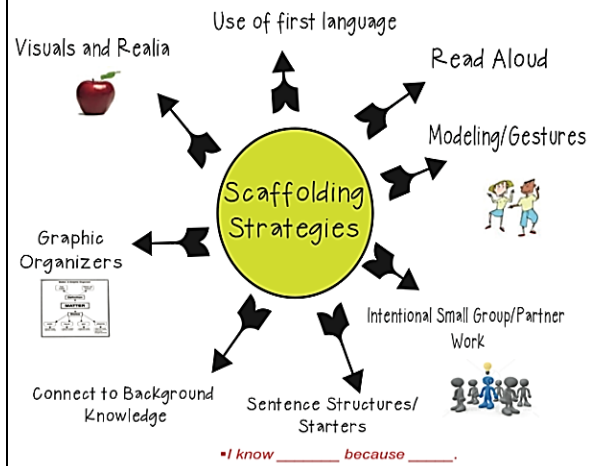
Experiential learning
(David L. Kolb, 1970s)

The Experiential Learning Model (ELM) is composed of four elements: 1) concrete experience, 2) observation of and reflection on that experience, 3) formation of abstract concepts based upon the reflection, 4) testing the new concepts. The first two elements, concrete learning and reflective observation, focus on grasping an experience. The latter two, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation are about transforming an experience. To Kolb, effective learning is seen as the learner goes through the cycle of experiential learning theory. Students can enter the cycle in any way and at any point.

Some examples of this form of learning include taking students to the zoo to learn about animals instead of just reading about them or growing a garden to learn about photosynthesis instead of watching a video about it. By creating environments where students can learn and experience at the same time, teachers offer students the opportunity to immediately apply their knowledge and get real-world experiences. This approach also encourages teamwork and is shown to improve motivation.

Teaching tools:
Experiments
Kolb's experiential learning cycle:

Concrete Experience
(doing / having an experience)

Active Experimentation
(planning / trying out what you have learned)

Reflective Observation
(reviewing / reflecting on the experience)

Abstract Conceptualisation
(concluding / learning from the experience)

Connectivism **(G. Siemens and St. Downes, 2004)** It suggests students should combine thoughts, theories, and general information in a useful manner. It accepts that technology is a major part of the learning process and that our constant connectedness gives us opportunities to make choices about our learning. It also promotes group collaboration and discussion, allowing for different viewpoints and perspectives when it comes to decision-making, problem-solving, and making sense of information. Connectivism promotes learning that happens outside of an individual, such as through social media, online networks, blogs, or information databases.	Connectivism shifts the learning responsibilities from the teacher to the student. It's up to the learner to create their own learning experience. The role of the educator then becomes to "create learning ecologies, shape communities, and release learners into the environment" (Siemens, 2003). **Teaching tools:** Self-directed quest for content Sharing of content / sources Spontaneous learning groups Collaborative creation of knowledge
Nativistic theory of language development It is a biologically-based theory which states that language is innate, physiologically determined, and genetically transmitted. This means that a newborn baby is "pre-wired" for language acquisition and a linguistic mechanism is activated by exposure to language (Hulit, Howard, & Fahey, 2011). This theory believes that language is universal and unique to only humans and that unless there are severe mental or physical limitations, or severe isolation and deprivation, humans will acquire language. The nativistic theory argues that caregivers do not teach children the understanding of language and do not usually provide feedback about the correctness of their utterances. (Pinker, 1984). **Noam Chomsky** (linguist) came up with the idea of the *language acquisition device* (LAD). The LAD is a language organ that is hard-wired into our brains at birth. Once a child is exposed to language, the LAD activates.	

Speech activity theory **(A.A. Leontiev, 1950-1960s)** According to A.A. Leontiev, speech activity is a type of activity (along with labor, cognitive, game, etc.). Psychologically, it is organized like other types of activity: it is characterized by a substantial motive, purposefulness, heuristic character, and consists of several **consecutive phases** (orientation, planning, implementation plan and control).	

C h a p t e r II. History of teaching foreign languages in outline

Workshop "Traditional Approaches to Teaching Foreign Languages" ◄

History of teaching foreign languages: timeline
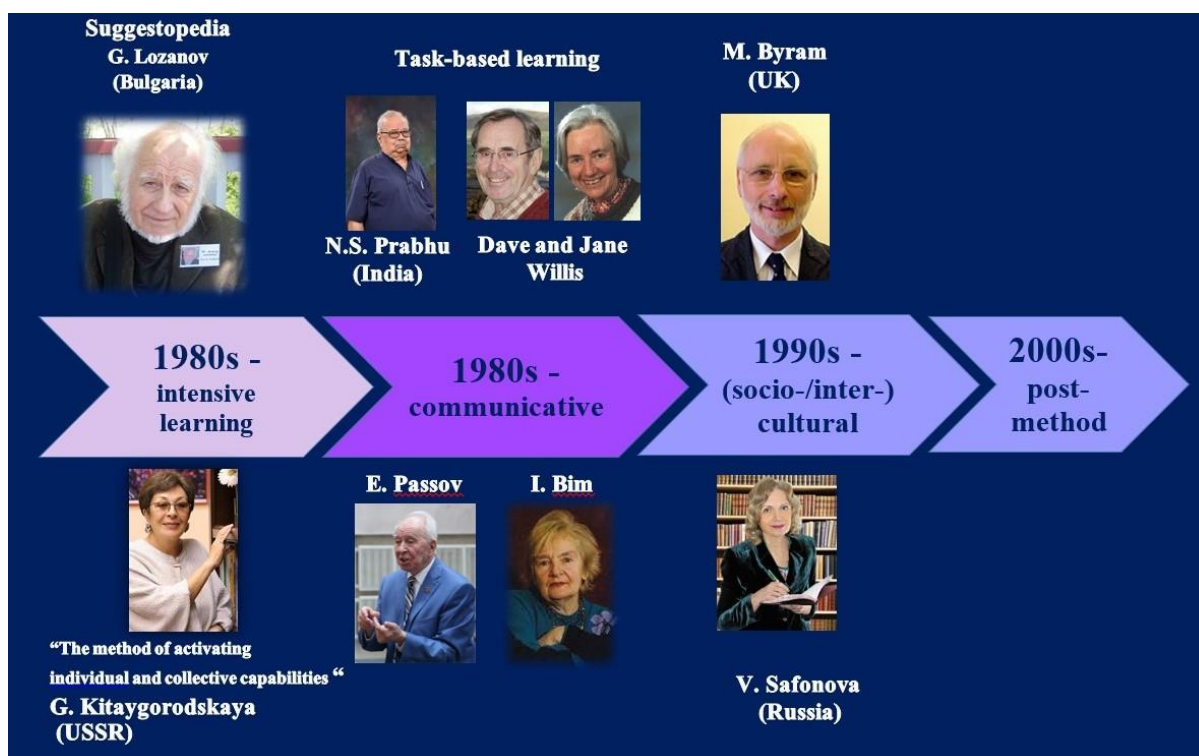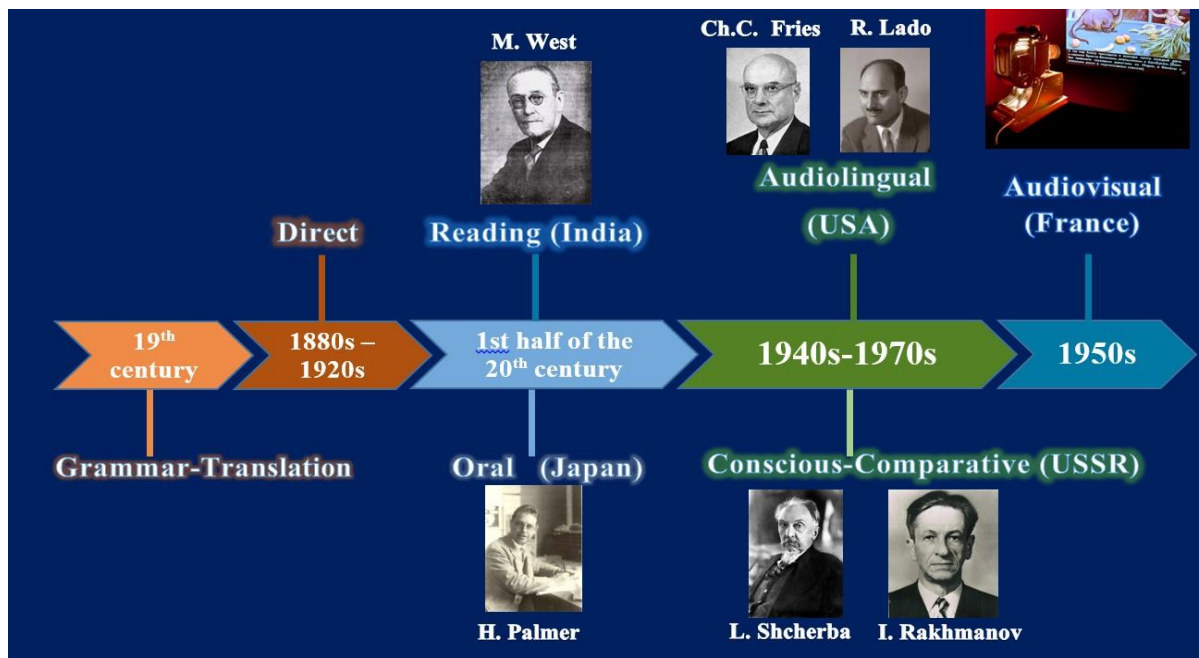
Dig Deeper: input processing task ◄

Study "Traditional Approaches to Teaching Foreign Languages" below. Work in groups and fill in the table:

group №	method (period of implementation, prominent authors)	the main goal	theoretical foundations		approach (intuitive or conscious or eclectic)	typical techniques
			learning and language-specific theories	linguistic theories		
1	the Grammar-translation					
	the Direct					
2	the Oral					
	the Reading					
3	the Audiolingual					
	the Audiovisual					
4	the Conscious-Comparative					
5	Suggestopedia					
	The Total Physical Response (TPR)					

Group 1 go to https://docs.google.com/document/d/1R71DlLghtFBU91JgaglOvoPH_I1U9YGSyXchCSrsTro/edit?usp=sharing
Group 2 go to https://docs.google.com/document/d/14nuL3GgcWDa8lmAq2vHsbkC6LrTB6J_9WbgtHEnMIXw/edit?usp=sharing
Group 3 go to https://docs.google.com/document/d/10iVkSbisBenGbzBEuLeIy91AI45rH523zLEB7t0PAvU/edit?usp=sharing
Group 4 go to https://docs.google.com/document/d/1KvWlYSgI2tMIkzfghR1lKe_nhggrVaf9jRsRUc_FhHY/edit?usp=sharing
Group 5 go to https://docs.google.com/document/d/1lD2bHAdGB_33aDVstq2A0Q77Pd8LtMt19x3dAJW-y1s/edit?usp=sharing

"Traditional Approaches to Teaching Foreign Languages" (excerpts from the manuscript by prof. T.P. Leontieva, contributed to an international project TEMPUS CoMoLTE). ◄

We will trace the history of teaching methods relying on the existing approaches to teaching a language: **intuitive**, **conscious**, **combined (eclectic)**. We will be guided by the following evaluative criteria for the methods within each approach: theoretical foundation, the goals of instruction, the role of the native language, the balance between productive and receptive skills, basic teaching techniques. According to these criteria, we can refer each traditional method to one of the 3 approaches, as is shown in Figure 1.

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Intuitive approach	Conscious approach	Combined (eclectic) approach
The Direct Method The Oral Method The Audiolingual Method The Audiovisual Method The Total Physical Response	The Conscious-Comparative Method The Conscious-Practical Method	The Reading Method Suggestopedia The Communicative Methods (see Chapter 4.2 of this Guidebook)

Figure 1: The traditional approaches and methods applied in teaching foreign languages (Adapted from A. Shchukin 2004: 183).

The Grammar-Translation ◄

Grammar-Translation was a method developed within the framework of the verbally-scholastic approach. This method represented an attempt to extend the approach used in teaching classical languages (Latin and Greek) to the teaching of modern languages in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The main goal of learning/teaching a foreign language, as stated in the Grammar-Translation Method, was to develop the students' logical thinking by doing grammar exercises and while reading the original texts (in the later variety of the method). The development of the method was influenced by association psychology, in particular by the thesis that immediate associations can be established between the words in the native and the target languages. Thus, great attention was given to translating sentences from the target language into the mother tongue (and vice versa). Other basic characteristics of the method were as follows (Larsen-Freeman 2011):

a) reading and writing were the primary skills to be developed; practically no attention was given to teaching pronunciation;
b) the focus in the learning process was on grammar, as mastering it gave the students the general idea of the language system;
c) grammar was taught deductively: first, students were given the grammar rules with examples and were told to memorize them, then they were asked to apply the rules to other examples;
d) translation and memorization were the primary techniques for presenting and practicing new material, as they helped to create stable associations;
e) the instructions were given to students in their native language.

Alongside with translation and memorization the common techniques used in the method included: finding synonyms / antonyms for the given words; recognizing cognates; making up sentences with new words; writing a composition, etc.

To sum it up, the Grammar-Translation Method was not oriented towards teaching students to use the language for communication. Most of the class time was devoted to talking about the language and no time was spent talking in the language (Omaggio 1986). There was little use of the target language. Students had to learn long lists of vocabulary and do numerous translation exercises. Studying a foreign language was considered a kind of mental gymnastics which helped to develop the students' minds. No pair or group work was envisaged. So, the method had all the features of teacher-centered (and not the learner-centered) approach.

The Direct Method ◄

The method originated in the 19th century as a reaction to the failure of the Grammar-Translation Method to prepare the learners who could use the foreign language for communication. The advocates of this method (M. Berlitz 1887; F. Gouin 1880; O. Jespersen 1904; W. Walter 1912; W. Vietor 1902 and others) believed that a foreign language acquisition should follow the way the children learn their native language, i.e. through the direct association of words and phrases with objects and actions, without the use of the mother tongue. Hence, the name of the method.

The theoretical underpinning of the **Direct Method** is connected with the ideas of the linguist H. Steintal (1855) and the creator of the experimental psychology, W. Wundt (1900). The fundamental principle of the method was that no translation was allowed in the classroom which was a revolutionary idea at that time. It was justified by the linguistic conception that most of the notions in the target and native languages differ from each other. So it was considered impossible to adequately render the meaning expressed in one language by means of another language. No wonder, the teacher did not need to know the students' native language. According to W. Wundt, the primary role in the instruction had to be given to sound and motor sensations, and that fact predetermined greater attention to oral speech.

Thus, the main goal of the Direct Method was to teach students to orally communicate in the target language. As for reading and writing skills, in the purest form of the Direct Method they were developed at later stages and on the basis of the material which the students had already practiced orally.

According to Larsen-Freeman (2011), Gez & Frolova (2008), Omaggio (1986) and others, the Direct Method had the following characteristics:
   a) the syllabus was designed around everyday situations the students might encounter in the target community (for instance, at a bank, at a shop, etc.), and not around linguistic structures;

b) from the very beginning the students listened to whole sentences (not isolated words) in simple discourse, which often took the form of question-answer exchanges;

c) as the students were supposed to associate meaning and the target language directly, the teacher introduced new vocabulary by demonstrating its meaning through the use of realia, pictures or pantomime, avoiding the use of translation;

d) correct pronunciation was an important consideration, and emphasis was placed on the development of accurate pronunciation from the very beginning of language instruction;

e) grammar was taught inductively: students were not given explicit grammar rules and were encouraged to form their own generalizations on basis of the given examples.

The basic techniques used by the advocates of the Direct Method were: question and answer exercises, commenting the actions in the logical / chronological order, reading aloud, conversation practice, getting students to self-correct, etc.

In contrast to the Grammar-Translation Method, in the Direct Method the students were urged to use the target language, not to demonstrate their knowledge about the language (Larsen-Freeman 2011). They studied common, everyday speech, and there was some description and narration in the lesson on the base of different visual aids, although the major part of the classroom activities consisted in responding to teacher questions (Omaggio 1986). The target culture was also taught via the use of culturally oriented pictures.

However, the Direct Method in its purest form was not really effective in teaching a foreign language. On the one hand, its advocates ignored the speech experience gained by the learners (especially adults) in their native language, and underestimated the role of thinking in language acquisition (Gez & &Frolova 2008). On the other hand, the lack of systematic practice of structures and a ban on translation often led to inaccuracy and vagueness in a foreign language speech, and to the phenomenon of fossilization (Omaggio 1986). That is why translation was permitted in some later versions of the method.

The Oral Method ◄

This method was developed in the first half of the 20-th century by Harold Palmer, a well-known English linguist and educator. For about 15 years he worked in Japan teaching English to adults, and it was there that he theoretically grounded the **Oral Method** and introduced his ideas into practice. Although at the beginning of his career he was an advocate of the Direct Method, he later re-examined the foundations of the method because of the ineffective results of the application of its

principles to teaching a foreign language. H. Palmer clearly stated how his method differed from the Direct Method with regard to the goals and application process (Palmer 1923):

The Direct Method	The Oral Method
• in its purest form excludes written work and translation at an initial stage of language learning;	• any written work is completely excluded; translation can be used for introducing new vocabulary and as a form of checking comprehension;
• reading materials should include interesting and easy texts, dialogues, descriptions, etc.;	• any kind of reading materials is excluded;
• develops students' ability to analyze and synthesize the material;	• develops students' memory and language habits;
• either aural or visual perception of the material is permitted.	• only aural perception is permitted.

Figure 2: The comparative characteristics of the Direct Method and the Oral Method.

H. Palmer shared the key idea of the Direct Method that a foreign language acquisition should follow the way the children learn their native language, and he developed and supplemented this tenet. Making an assumption that an active use of a native language is preceded by a fairly long period of its passive perception, he suggested that, similarly, in the process of a foreign language learning a long period of reception should precede active reproduction of the language material by the student. He argued that at an initial stage of a language learning the processes of reception and reproduction should be separated, because their unification would be difficult for beginners and would hinder habit-forming.

Apart from that, H. Palmer gave preference to unconscious language learning where important consideration was the student's capacity for direct and subconscious understanding without mental analysis (Gez & Frolova 2008). Language study was considered as a habit-forming process.

According to the Oral Method the main goal of a foreign language acquisition was purely practical – to acquire a native-like proficiency in listening comprehension and speaking. As for reading and writing, they were to be developed on the base of oral speech. H. Palmer was one of the first researchers who considered the importance of the selection and organization of language material for teaching and rationalized it. While selecting the material he was guided by the following principles: frequency, combination, concreteness, proportion, general expedience.

The Oral Method had the following basic characteristics (Palmer 1923: 5-7); Gez & Frolova, 2008):

a) the language course was divided into three stages: *elementary* (about half a year), *intermediate* (1 to 3 years) and *advanced* (1 to 3 years), with great emphasis on the first stage ("If we take care of the elementary stage, the advanced stage will take care of itself");

b) a special "incubation period" was introduced at an elementary stage of a language learning during which students were supposed "to bathe" in the speech stream, trying to grasp the general sense of what they hear;

c) a lot of class time was given to the formation of new and appropriate habits, and the consolidation of previously formed habits, with a great deal of memorizing and imitation, without any analysis and commenting;

d) the principle of gradation was applied in regard to both the material selection and to the system of exercises (*Ears before Eyes, Reception before Reproduction, Chorus-work before Individual Work,* etc.);

e) the principle of isolation (segregation) of the objects of study was observed at an elementary stage of a language learning: different language aspects (the phonetic, the semantic, the orthographic, the etymological, etc.) were studied isolated.

The techniques and exercises used in the Oral Method were in full compliance with its rationale. The two big groups of forms of work were singled out: 1) purely receptive forms of work; 2) receptive and productive forms of work. The first group included exercises for a) passive reception (see "incubation period"); b) active reception and c) imperative drills. In all these exercises students were not allowed to speak, their primary aim was to secure subconscious comprehension, so that a student could perceive correctly what he / she hears. The second group was comprised of: a) exercises in reproduction; b) conditional conversation; c) natural conversation. The complexity of the exercises gradually increased in accordance with the corresponding principle so that to develop the students' capacity to use spoken language.

We can admit that H. Palmer developed a theoretically grounded system of exercises that contributed to successful habit formation. Many of his exercises are still suggested in the coursebooks: completion exercises, imperative drills, substitution tables for practicing the language material, etc. At the same time the students in his method remained passive recipients for a long time, mechanical memorizing and imitation were the basic techniques for the language acquisition.

The Audiolingual Method   ◄

This method was developed in the USA in the 1940s due to the social need for people who could master a foreign language quickly for practical (initially military) purposes. A lot of prominent linguists were involved in theoretical underpinning of the new method, L. Bloomfield (1964) and Ch. Fries (1965) among them. As Ch. Fries put it, they tried to relate the results of the contemporary linguistic research to methodology of foreign language teaching (Fries 1965). At that time the dominant trend in linguistics was the structural, or descriptive theory. According to Omaggio (1986: 60-61), language teaching based on this theory operated on the following premises:

1. Language is primarily an oral phenomenon. Written language is a secondary representation of speech.
2. Linguistics involves the study of the recurring patterns of the language (each language has a finite number of patterns).
3. The major focus of study is phonology and morphology.
4. Language is acquired through the overlearning of its patterns (learning to answer automatically).
5. All native languages are learned orally before reading occurs. Therefore, second language should be learned in the "natural order": listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
6. In learning languages, a student should begin with the patterns of the language rather than with deductive learning of grammatical rules.

One more theory underlying audiolingual methodology was behaviorist psychology (E.J. Thorndike, J. Watson 1924). The representatives of this school of thought in psychology considered speech as a form of behavior and proposed behaviorist laws as the basis for the Audiolingual Method (Lado 1964):

1) language learning is a process of habit formation;
2) students should form language habits through stimulus-response technique;
3) the more frequently and intensely the response is practiced, the better it is learned and the longer it is remembered;
4) positive reinforcement helps to form correct habits;
5) errors should be immediately corrected as they lead to the formation of bad habits.

So, behaviorist theory defined the strategy of learning a language in this method – by trial and error. The main goal of a foreign language teaching was for students to be able to use the target language for communication. In order to reach the goal the students were to acquire structural patterns and to master the sound system of a language.

"The marriage of structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology" (Omaggio 1986: 61) is reflected in the basic principles of the Audiolingual Method (Lado 1964 : 49-56), summarized below:

a) Speech before Writing – it's necessary to teach listening and speaking before reading and writing, because the language is most completely expressed in speech. Only after mastering the basic constructions orally, the student can develop his or her reading and writing capacities;

b) Basic Sentences – students should memorize basic conversational sentences as accurately as possible. Preference should be given to conversational dialogues because they present words in structures and in context;

c) Patterns as Habits – knowing the language means to be able to use its patterns with appropriate vocabulary and at normal speed. Habit formation should be done through pattern practice by using analogy, variation and transformation;

d) Sound System for Use – it's necessary to teach the sound system practically by demonstration, imitation and contrast because merely listening to good models does not lead to good pronunciation;

e) Vocabulary Control – the vocabulary load should be restricted to a minimum while students are mastering the sound system and practicing the grammatical patterns;

f) Teaching the Problems – the most difficult for students are those patterns that show structural difference between the first and the second languages. They require conscious understanding and intensive practice, while structurally analogous units need only presentation in meaningful situations;

g) Graded Patterns – it's necessary to teach patterns gradually: each new element or pattern should be added to previous ones. The learning difficulty should be adapted to the students' capacity;

h) Language Practice versus Translation – translation cannot substitute language practice because only few words are fully equivalent in any two languages, and word-for-word translation can lead to incorrect constructions;

i) Practice – most of the learning time students must be engaged in practice because the quantity of learning is in direct proportion to the amount of practice. Ch. Fries (1965) recommended devoting 85 per cent to practice and no more than 15 per cent to explanation and commentary;

j) Immediate Reinforcement – the student should know immediately whether his/her response has been successful. It was proved experimentally by E. Thorndike and B. Skinner;

k) Attitude toward Target Culture – it's necessary to impart an attitude of identification with or sympathetic understanding of the people who speak the second language rather than a utilitarian attitude toward the language or negative attitude toward the people of the language;

l) Learning as the Crucial Outcome – it's necessary to teach primarily how to learn a language rather than to please or entertain. This principle is based on the observation that the most entertaining classes are not always the most effective.

There were three basic parts in translating the Audiolingual Method into practice: 1) learning dialogues; 2) pattern drills; 3) application activities (Omaggio 1986). The dialogues contained basic structures and were learned by students through mimicry-memorization. The types of pattern drills included: repetition drills, in which no change was made; transformation drills, in which the students were required to make some changes, reinforced afterward by the teacher or the tape-recorder. There were various types of transformation drills: person-number substitutions, response drills, tense transformations, directed dialogues, etc. Application activities included: dialogue adaptations, chain drills, recombined narratives, guided oral presentations, conversation stimulus activities, etc.

On the whole, the Audiolingual Method had some merits in comparison with the previous methods (Omaggio 1986):

1) the students used colloquial, sociolinguistically appropriate language in the dialogues;
2) the focus on oral skills led to good pronunciation and accurate speech (in regard to the structures that the students practiced);
3) the necessity of teaching culture of a target language was stressed.

At the same time the methodology had its demerits: it was totally teacher-centered; the students' role was restricted to responding to the teacher's stimuli. They followed the teacher's directions and responded as accurately and as rapidly as possible. Students were expected to be satisfied with parroting the cues given by the teacher, even if they didn't understand them. No wonder, the advocates of the method assumed that the best student was the one who had a capacity for imitation. The stimulus-response techniques did not account for the variety of learning styles in the classroom. Furthermore, the continuous repetition required for memorization was monotonous and was a considerable physical strain on both teachers and students.

The Audiovisual Method ◄

This method originated in France in the 1950s as a response to UNESCO appeal to Great Powers to promote the development of French as one of the languages of intercultural communication. The greatest contribution to the implementation of the Audiovisual Method was made by CREDIF, a center of applied linguistics at Saint-Cloud, which was headed by Prof. G. Gougenheim. Due to the joint efforts of G. Gougenheim (1966), P. Guberina (1963) et al, an intensive course of French was designed – "Voix et images de France" (Voices and Images of France).

The full name of the method was *Audiovisual Structurally-Global*. It was accounted, on the one hand, for the maximum use of audiovisual aids (slide films, motion pictures, TV programs), popular at that time. On the other hand, the language material was presented in structures which were perceived by students globally, as whole units.

The linguistic theory underlying audiovisual methodology was the conception of F. de Saussure (1916), who had made the distinction between **langue** (the knowledge of the language) and **parole** (the speech, as the performance that can be observed). According to this conception emphasis was placed on teaching speech as a form of oral communication, in which several groups of elements are used: linguistic (sounds, prosody, etc.), paralinguistic (gestures, facial expressions) and extra linguistic (context, situation). In the opinion of the method developers, the use of audiovisual aids helped to actualize the indissoluble connection between these elements. Special attention was paid to the intonation and rhythm.

The psychological underpinning of the method, even more than in audiolingual methodology, was based on the behaviorist theory (Gez & Frolova, 2008). It was assumed that behavior (not thinking) had a crucial role in mastering a foreign language. The process of a foreign language acquisition was sequenced in the following way: aural comprehension via the sound and image synthesis, imitation and reproduction of speech patterns.

The main goal of a foreign language teaching in the Audiovisual Method was to develop oral communication skills (in particular, dialogue speech), then writing and, finally, reading skills. In the later forms of the method there was no such a big gap in the development of oral and written skills. It should be stressed that the advocates of the method applied a revolutionary approach to the selection of language material. For the first time in the history of methodology of foreign language teaching, the minimum of vocabulary and grammatical structures was selected as a result of the analysis of live conversations which had been tape-recorded in natural situations (at the café, at the station, in the supermarket, etc.) in Paris and other regions of France. The language minimum included about 1500 words, most frequently used in social discourse, oriented at tourists.

According to Gez & Frolova (2008), Shchukin (2004) and others, the Audiovisual Method had the following characteristics:

a) the use of the native language in the pure form of the method was totally excluded, as its interference might cause difficulties in the process of habit formation; however, in the later forms of the method translation was sometimes permitted;

b) new material was presented orally in the form of dialogues, containing structures that had been selected with regard to their frequency and prevalence in communicative situations;

c) in accordance with the principle of the sound-image synthesis, slide films (and other audiovisual aids) helped students to directly associate meaning and the target language;

d) teaching a foreign language was accompanied by studying its culture.

There were four main stages in applying the Audiovisual Method for teaching a target language: 1) presentation; 2) explanation; 3) consolidation; 4) activation (Shchukin 2004). At the presentation stage new material was introduced by demonstrating a slide film in which one slide corresponded approximately to one line of a dialogue. Students were assigned the following task: "Watch, listen and remember". For the first presentation a few slides could be also shown with the sound off in order to introduce the situation. During the second presentation the students were to imitate the lines in the interval after the speaker. At the explanation stage the teacher made comments in the target language on each slide, explaining the meaning by definitions, synonyms /antonyms, etc. and by using non-verbal means. He or she also checked the students' comprehension of a dialogue through question-answer technique. There was a combination of individual and chorus work. The consolidation of the learning material took place first in the language laboratory, and then in class. In the lab the students worked mostly with the sound track of the slide film. The pattern practice was actualized through repetition, substitution and transformation (like in the Audiolingual Method). Special emphasis was laid on rhythm and intonation. In class, the students had more meaningful practice guided by the teacher. Activation of the consolidated material was oriented towards developing oral communication skills. The students reproduced the dialogues in the name of different persons, dubbed the slide film, described the characters from the film, role-played the situations, etc. These exercises were followed by reading and writing tasks.

The Audiovisual Method was widely practiced not only in France but in the USA, Britain, Poland, Canada and other countries as a short-term intensive course of teaching a foreign language to adults. Its popularity was accounted for its positive features. It helped to create a learning situation that was similar to natural communication. A wide use of audiovisual aids intensified the process of a foreign language acquisition. Synchronized sound and image promoted better comprehension and memorization of speech patterns. The slide films were a valuable source for studying a target language culture. As the proverb says, "One picture is worth a thousand words". Some techniques worked out in this method (for example, sound off, vision on and vice versa) were later extrapolated to the use of video in the foreign language classroom. The method also envisaged students' independent work in the language laboratory.

At the same time the Audiovisual Method had typical features of an intuitive approach. The principle of the sound and image synthesis was not always valid in introducing new vocabulary: the students didn't establish correct associations between the meaning of the words and the slides, because not all the speech actions can be depicted through visual means. Furthermore, the principle of the global perception of the structures (without analysis) was overestimated. The pattern practice included continuous imitation and transformations, the creative tasks were a rare feature.

The Total Physical Response Method ◄

This method was developed by James J. Asher (1982) in order to reduce the stress people feel when studying foreign languages (Larsen-Freeman 2011). That is why it was based on the way children learn their native language. J. Asher stated that listening comprehension of the target language was to be fully developed before any oral participation was expected from students. There was no pressure to speak: students began speaking only when they were ready to do so. The psychological foundation of the method was based on the belief that skills could be more rapidly assimilated if the teacher appealed to the students' kinesthetic-sensory system (Omaggio 1986). Thus, in the early foreign language instruction it was advisable to address the right hemisphere of the brain which controls non-verbal behavior (Larsen-Freeman 2011). J. Asher summarized three key ideas that underlie the Total Physical Response Method (Asher 1982):

1. Understanding of the spoken language must be developed before speaking.
2. Understanding and retention is best achieved through movements of the students' bodies in response to commands. The imperative form of the language is a powerful tool because it can be used to manipulate students' behavior and guide them through action.
3. Students should never be forced to speak before they are ready. As the target language is internalized, speaking will emerge naturally. Forcing students to speak will only create anxiety. One of the ways to relieve anxiety is to make language learning enjoyable.

The main goal of a foreign language teaching in this method was to develop students' listening and speaking skills. Grammatical structures and vocabulary were learned through the use of the imperatives.

The basic characteristics of the Total Physical Response Method were as follows (Larsen-Freman 2011), (Omaggio 1986):

a) the teacher gave commands, such as "Stand up!", "Walk!", "Sit down!" and after performing the activity himself/herself to demonstrate the meaning, the students executed these commands, first in groups and then individually;

b) the inventory of commands moved from simple to complex and from a few to many; the commands were often humorous;

c) after about ten hours of listening practice students were invited (but not pressured) to reverse roles with the teacher and gave their own commands in the target language; after students began speaking, activities expanded to include skits and games;

d) there was no formal practice in reading and writing, as described by J. Asher, but the teacher spent some time at the end of the class session writing structures or vocabulary on the blackboard for students requesting explanation;

e) students were expected to make errors when they first began speaking, the teachers were tolerant of them and corrected only major errors in an unobtrusive way.

The major technique in the method was the use of commands. The students' actions told the teacher whether or not they understood the language. A series of commands was called an action sequence, or an operation. J. Asher advised teachers to vary the sequence of the commands so that students did not simply memorize the action sequence without connecting the actions with the language (Omaggio 1986). Among other techniques applied in the method there were role reversal, games and humorous skits. The latter were used in order to introduce novelty and to show that language learning could be fun.

According to Omaggio (1986), Larsen-Freeman (2011) and others, the Total Physical Response Method had a strong point in that it was affectively appealing to some students: the atmosphere in the class was always warm and accepting. The feeling of success and low anxiety facilitated learning a language. Active participation of students was insured and the context was provided to help them understand the language they hear. The method was applied with children and adult learners as well. However, it was possible that some adult learners would feel uncomfortable or embarrassed in the classroom, especially if that way of instruction was never supplemented with other types of practice. The target language was the exclusive language of instruction. Furthermore, teaching grammar through imperatives had also constraints due to the lack of feedback for the development of accuracy. There was little chance that students would learn to handle the language functionally, for natural or normal purposes.

The Conscious-Comparative Method ◄

This method was developed in 1940s in the Soviet Union by L. Shcherba (2003), a prominent Soviet linguist, and was implemented both in secondary and higher education institutions of the country. In contrast to the methods within the framework of the intuitive approach (the Direct Method and its later

modifications), in the **Conscious-Comparative Method** the native language was not neglected, it played an important role in acquiring a foreign language. L. Shcherba assumed that in teaching a foreign language the native language had to be always taken into account and it was necessary to consciously contrast the language facts in the mother tongue with those in the target language.

The key idea underlying the method was that in studying target language students should always compare it with the native one. It should be done in order to overcome the interference of the mother tongue, on the one hand, and to rely on positive transfer from the native to the foreign language, on the other hand. Furthermore, all the language phenomena under study were to be explained to students before practicing how to use them.

Being a linguist, L. Shcherba suggested a theoretical rationale for his method arising from the three aspects of the linguistic phenomena. He made a distinction between: 1) speech (the processes of speaking and listening comprehension); 2) language as a structured linguistic experience of a definite society and 3) language material as non-structured linguistic experience (separate acts of speaking and comprehension of each individual). Thus, L. Shcherba argued that teaching a foreign language had to begin with a structured linguistic experience, in particular with studying grammatical rules.

The psychological underpinning of the method originated from the system-and-activity based approach (L.S. Vygotsky 2000, A.N. Leontyev 2000). According to this approach a speech activity is considered to be a system which is characterized by motives, purposefulness and hierarchic structure. In order to develop the speech activity (in oral or written form) it is necessary to offer students a system of reference points.

The primary goal of a foreign language teaching in the Conscious-Comparative Method was to develop students' reading, speaking, listening and writing skills depending on the learners' needs. Alongside with this pragmatic goal, the pedagogical, educational and the cognitive goals were envisaged. The latter was aimed at cognitive development of students while acquiring a foreign language and better understanding of how their native language works.

The basic characteristics of the method were as follows:

a) the language skills (reading speaking, listening and writing) were developed interdependently, which was grounded by the close interaction of all the channels of sense perception (aural, visual, kinesthetic): there was no time lapse between teaching oral skills and reading and writing practice;

b) the learning process was conscious and it advanced from rule acquisition to the formation of habits and skills: students always understood what they were asked to do;

c) the language material was divided into active and passive one (with regard to the productive and receptive skills) and it was studied in different ways through a set of exercises;

d) grammar was taught primarily in a deductive way, the teacher relied on the students' positive and negative experience in acquiring the native and foreign languages.

A necessary prerequisite for studying a new material in the Conscious-Comparative Method was to get students familiarized with the corresponding rules of the target language. The rules were explained explicitly and discussed in the classroom. In this way the students were provided with a kind of a model or framework for using the material. Only after that they proceeded to practicing new structures and vocabulary in exercises. The basic techniques included grammatical analysis, teacher-centered questioning, sentence construction, translating texts from the target language into the native one (and vice versa), retelling the texts, etc.

The ideas underlying the Conscious-Comparative Method were implemented in a great number of coursebooks and teaching manuals, especially for teaching foreign languages to adult people. The positive feature of the method was that all the language skills were equally important and were developed with regard to the students' cognitive base. It promoted mental development of students and fostered their general knowledge. However, too much of the classroom time was devoted to the explanation of grammar rules in the native language to the detriment of the communicative practice. The instruction was not individualized, and students' interaction was rare.

The Reading Method   ◄

The Reading Method was developed by Michael West (1926), a well-known English educator. For many years he worked in India teaching English as a foreign language to schoolchildren. His rich experience acquired while teaching English in difficult circumstances (overcrowded classes, students who had different levels of language skills, teachers with inadequate proficiency in the target language, etc.) influenced the theoretical foundation of the method. M. West set a goal to design a methodological system which would be most appropriate and effective in such circumstances and which would help foreign language teachers gain quick results.

In the rationale of the method, M. West argued that the receptive aspect of a language was much easier to develop than the productive one, as it demanded fewer efforts from students. Moreover, out of two receptive skills, reading was considered easier than listening because while reading there was no need to understand different variants of pronunciation, the student could read the text in

his/her tempo and could reread difficult passages. It was also stressed that acquiring reading skills had a motivating power as it helped students realize the achieved results right from the very beginning.

Like all the advocates of the Direct Method, M. West viewed a native and a foreign language acquisition as identical processes. He argued that intensive reading practice could bring the context of studying a foreign language closer to that of acquiring a native language, i.e. could help to establish direct associations between the notions and the words in a target language. In this respect M. West followed the key idea of the intuitive approach. However, his method can be referred to the combined approach because the use of the native language was permitted as an additional means of explaining vocabulary and as a means of checking comprehension. M. West pointed out that good reading skills developed in the native language promoted the development of corresponding skills in a target language.

Thus, the primary goal of a foreign language instruction in the Reading Method was to develop students' reading skills, and on this basis – the skills of oral speech. M. West made a distinction between two types of reading: observation reading and scanning. He considered that scanning had more practical value and was most frequently applied by an experienced reader who did not focus his/her attention at every word. This type of reading was to be taught first. The educational value of reading was also pointed out, as it helped students to become familiar with the British and world culture.

In his method M. West paid great attention to selecting material for reading and to the problem of enriching the students' vocabulary. From his point of view it was possible to use the same material for teaching reading and oral speech only at the initial stage of mastering a language, within the amount of 500 words. After that, developing reading and speaking skills had to follow different routes in regard both to the language material and to the techniques. The vocabulary for teaching oral speech amounted to 1200 lexical units; the one for teaching reading – to 3000-5000 lexical units. The new words were to be distributed in the text in a special order: no more than 5-6 new words on a page so that not to prevent the comprehension of the text without translation.

While selecting the material for reading, M. West was guided by the following tenets (Shchukin 2004):

1. Coherent texts should be used for reading from the very beginning, so that students get satisfied with comprehension of the material.
2. Motivation to reading can be promoted by two types of readers: Reading-Vocabulary Building Books and Plateau Readers. The first type contains new language material; the second one is constructed on the material that has already been studied.

3. The reading texts should correspond to students' age and interests. That is why most of them are fabulous, and Supplementary Readers comprise paraphrase of adventure stories.

The basic characteristics of the Reading Method were as follows:

a) since M. West considered reading as a kind of a habit, intensive reading practice was envisaged on the basis of the Readers: "learn to read by reading" (cf. Gez & Frolova 2008: 82);

b) each text was accompanied by reading tasks in order to prevent "eye-mouth reading" and motivate students to comprehend the contents;

c) a number of phonetic and grammatical exercises was very limited, grammar wasn't taught in a systematic way;

d) the oral speech skills were developed after the reading comprehension was checked, mostly through retelling the texts with the help of key words;

e) writing had a subsidiary role and was used with the aim of switching the students' attention to another activity.

M. West suggested useful techniques for working with pupils in overcrowded classes. Such techniques as **Mass drill** and **Mass practice** helped to increase the time of practicing the language material for each student. Other techniques applied in the method included: Before-questions and After-questions, Reading with response, Practice in Pairs, Read and look up. The latter was considered by the author as the most efficient for teaching reading and oral speech. Special exercises were also designed by M. West for developing the speed of reading (Top-speed reading exercises).

Thus, M. West developed a theoretically grounded and original system of teaching reading in a foreign language. He designed a well-constructed and rationalized set of text-books (Readers, Supplementary readers, Composition Book, Companion, etc.) that promoted the development of reading skills. One more positive feature of the method was that M. West paid great attention to the students' autonomous learning activities and stated that "language teaching must become language learning" (West 1960: 9). He considered that the major role of the teacher was to organize the learning process and facilitate the students' work.

Suggestopedia originated in Bulgaria.　◄

It was developed by Georgi Lozanov (1982), a psychotherapist, who believed that a foreign language could be mastered at a much faster rate if special conditions were created that would help students to tap their subconscious resources and overcome barriers to learning. These conditions and special techniques promoted the acquisition of great amounts of vocabulary and structures.

Suggestopedia was based on the application of means of suggestion in the education process (Lozanov 1982). Among the most essential means G. Lozanov singled out: the teacher's authority, "infantilization", the concert pseudo-passiveness, "two planes" (i.e. a unity between conscious and subconscious) etc.

The authority of the teacher was of paramount importance in the method. It was considered that if students trusted the teacher and respected her/him, they could retain information much better and become more responsive to the teacher's actions. Consequently, the teacher increased their confidence that they would be successful learners (Larsen-Freeman 2011). "**Infantilization**" meant that it was necessary for the students to break down age barriers and to adopt a child-like attitude to the process of teaching. That helped them be less constrained, more spontaneous and open to learning. The **concert pseudo-passiveness** was also directed at breaking the psychological barriers. There were two special "concert" phases in the method when the students listened to the learning material, accompanied by music, sitting in comfortable armchairs. This state of relaxation activated the students' brains and allowed them to memorize a great number of words at an unconscious level. The **"two planes" principle** envisaged the combination of conscious and subconscious aspects in acquiring the new material by students: varying rhythmic presentation of dialogues, intonation and other paralinguistic means, music and the atmosphere of play, the teacher's artistry, etc.

The primary goal of a foreign language instruction in Suggestopedia was to develop everyday communication skills within a short period of time. Vocabulary was emphasized and G. Lozanov claimed that increased memory power was a result of "positive, comprehensive stimulation of personality" (cf. Richards & Rodgers 2001: 102). Grammar was taught explicitly but minimally (Larsen-Freeman 2011). It was assumed that students learned best if their attention was focused on using the language and not on the language forms. Reading skills were also developed through reading dialogues.

The Suggestopedic instruction had the following basic characteristics (Larsen-Freeman 2011), (Richards & Rodgers 2001), (Omaggio 1986):
   a) a relaxed and comfortable atmosphere was created with the help of soft lights and music, cheerful classroom decorations, the dramatic techniques used by the teacher;
   b) students were asked to choose new occupations and target language names; these new identities served as a kind of "mask" for them, enhancing the feeling of security and minimizing constraint;
   c) new material was presented to students in a form of lengthy dialogues in the target language with a native language translation in a parallel column; the dialogues represented typical situations in the target culture and had continuity in plot and context throughout the course;

d) the dialogues were introduced in two "concerts": in the first one the teacher read the dialogue, matching the voice to the rhythm of the music, and the students followed it in the book, checking the translation; during the second concert the students put the scripts aside and listened with their eyes closed as the teacher read the dialogue at a normal rate of speech, with musical accompaniment;

e) the new material was practiced in activation phase which included dramatizations, pair and group work, singing, games and other activities; if grammatical explanations were needed, they were provided in the native language.

The techniques applied in Suggestopedia were in compliance with its theoretical underpinning. In order to secure memorization at an unconscious level paralinguistic means were used most often. For instance, the students were asked to pronounce the lines of a dialogue loudly (in the target language), in whisper (in the native language) and in a normal voice (in the target language again). In the later adaptations of the method this technique was called "intonation swing". Visualization exercises were also provided in order to develop students' imagination and creativity. For example, the students were offered to listen to some piece of music, imagine a scene and then describe it. "Snowball" technique helped to increase memory power. Role-play and different skits promoted the activation of the learning material (Lozanov 1982).

On the whole, Suggestopedia and its adaptations in different countries proved the importance of a relaxed and comfortable classroom environment that provides nonthreatening atmosphere for learning a language (Omaggio 1986) and helps to tap subconscious resources. The method had other positive features important for the language acquisition. The language was presented in a communicative context which was culturally based, there were a lot of student-student interactions directed by the teacher, and students often initiated interactions themselves. However, the lack of systematic grammar practice had a negative impact on the accuracy of students' speech. The implementation of the method demanded a considerable amount of learning hours and an overwhelming psychological involvement of the teacher. However, some elements of Suggestopedia proved useful in a foreign language classroom.

Self-assessment test ◄

Follow the link below (*open in class*). Study the method description. Decide which method is being described.
https://onlinetestpad.com/47g7ddembbbwm

Dig Deeper: discussion (H. Palmer)

[Source: I. Andreasyan, Y.Maslov "Foreign-language Methodology Abroad:
a view of history", Minsk, 2011, P.25-28.]

Read Palmer's six factors making for student interest. Decide which of those have lost none of their relevance. Rate the factors in your own order of priority. Discuss in your mini-groups

Factors making for increased Ss' interest	Palmer's priority rating	Your priority rating
the elimination of bewilderment	1	
the sense of progress achieved	2	
competition	3	
game-like exercises	4	
the relations between Teacher and Student	5	
Variety	6	

Palmer's six factors making for student interest:

Factor 1. The Elimination of Bewilderment

Difficalty is one thing – bewilderment is another. The student must, in the ordinary course of events, be confronted with difficulties, but he should never be faced with hopeless puzzles. Rational explanations and good grading will eliminate bewilderment and, in so doing, will tend to make the course interesting.

Factor 2. The Sense of Progress Achieved

When the student feels that he is making progress, he will rarely fail to be interested in his work.

Factor 3. Competition

The spirit of emulation adds zest to all study.

Factor 4. Game-like Exercises

Many forms of exercises so resemble games of skill that they are often considered as interesting as chess and similar pastimes.

Factor 5. The Relations between Teacher and Student

The right attitude of the teacher towards his pupils will contribute largely towards the interest taken in the work.

Factor 6. Variety

Change of work generally adds interest: an alteration of different sorts of monotonous work makes the whole work less monotonous. Spells of drill work, however, should be relieved by intervals devoted to work of a less monotonous character.

Dig Deeper: discussion (M. West) ◄

[Source: I. Andreasyan, Y.Maslov "Foreign-language Methodology Abroad:
a view of history", Minsk, 2011, P.53-58.]
You may borrow a hard copy of the book in Reading Room B 400

Read M. West's ideas on teaching techniques that can be applied in a large class of language learners. Fill in the table and discuss if they are of practical value for today's foreign language teachers:

Techniques	Objective(s)	Procedure(s)	Desired results
Mass drill			
Mass practice			
Pin-drop			
Read and look up			
Practice in pairs			

"Foreign-language Methodology Abroad: a view of history"

https://drive.google.com/file/d/1vzRzuCNBVnL37MjevAEWF9MmzYp-0aFl/view?usp=sharing

Lecture "Traditional approaches
to teaching foreign languages" Part 2 ◄

Universal Grammar Theory: bottom line [Source: https://www.healthline.com/health/childrens-health/chomsky-theory]

Noam Chomsky's theory of universal grammar says that we're all born with *an innate understanding* of the way language works. Chomsky based his theory on the idea that all languages contain similar structures and rules (*a universal grammar*), and the fact that children everywhere acquire language the same way, and without much effort, seems to indicate that we're born wired with the basics already present in our brains. Although not everyone agrees with Chomsky's theory, it continues to have a profound influence on how we think about language acquisition today.

"**Colorless green ideas sleep furiously**" is a sentence composed by Noam Chomsky in 1957 as an example of a sentence whose grammar is correct but whose meaning is nonsensical. It was used to show inadequacy of the then-popular probabilistic models of grammar, and the need for more structured models.

The hypothesis of linguistic relativity: the structure of language affects the worldviews and perceptions of its speakers, as well as their cognitive processes. *The strict version*: language determines thinking, and, accordingly, linguistic categories limit and determine cognitive categories.*The soft version*: language only influences thinking, and along with linguistic categories, thinking is also formed under the influence of traditions and some types of non-linguistic behavior.

Dig Deeper: lesson observation (Audiolingual method) ◄

Watch a lesson example starting with minute 3 (1990, comments by Diane Larsen-Freeman). Note down how these stages are applied: 1) learning dialogues; 2) repetition and transformation drills; 3) application activities (Omaggio 1986). https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Pz0TPDUz3FU&ab_channel=AmericanEnglish

Lecture "Intensive methods" ◄
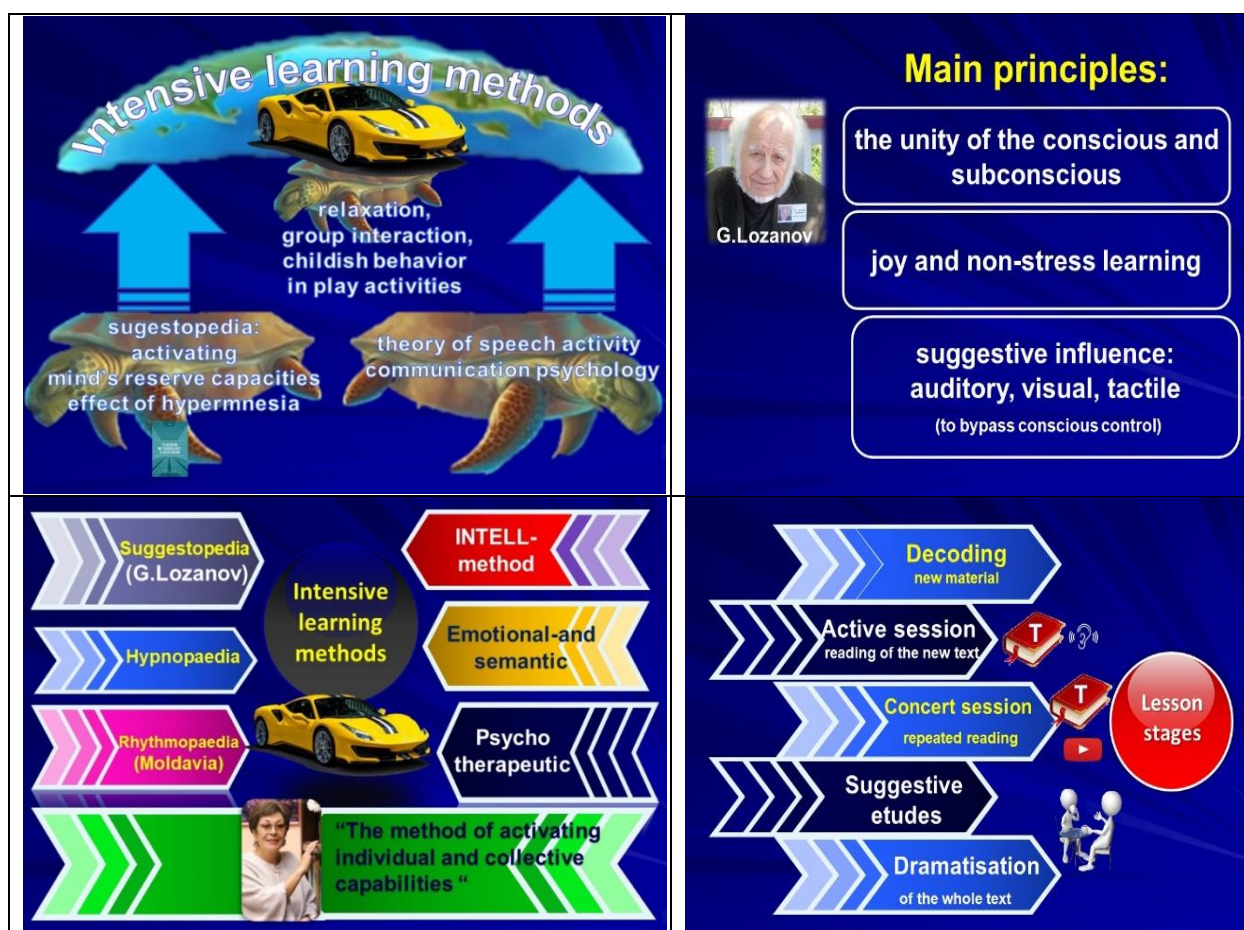
Dig Deeper: Lesson observation 1 (Intensive learning methods) ◀

Watch a Suggestopedia lesson. Follow Lozanov's lesson stages:
https://youtu.be/3rkrvRlty5M

Dig Deeper: lesson observation 2 (Intensive learning methods) ◀

Watch a lesson example "French for beginners" starting with minute 35 (1987, G. Kitaigorodskaya). Note down the techniques used to present a dialogue and explain its content (e.g. whisper a translation, mimic actions):
https://youtu.be/qTDoJcEEvd8

C h a p t e r III. Educational aims and
the FLT landscape across the world ◄

1. Educational aims through history
2. Belarusian school of FLT
3. Modern West European and North American schools of FLT

Educational aims through history: timeline ◄

https://drive.google.com/file/d/1nqdBpppRaskJ4fgsWOVCzYJDEaJVfvhY/view?usp=sharing

Grammar-translation
enable Ss to read and translate literature written in the L2, and to promote Ss' general intellectual development

Direct
enable Ss to orally communicate in the L2

Oral
develop Ss' listening and speaking skills, and then reading and writing skills on the base of oral speech

Reading
develop Ss' reading skills, and on this basis – the skills of oral speech

Audiolingual
enable Ss to use the target language for communication

Audiovisual
enable Ss to develop oral communication skills (in particular, dialogue speech), and then writing and reading skills

Conscious-comparative
develop Ss' reading, speaking, listening and writing skills (practical goals) + the pedagogical, educational and the cognitive goals

Suggestiopedia
develop everyday communication skills within a short period of time, develop reading skills through reading dialogues

Communicative
TBL: improve communicative competence by getting learners to solve a task or set of problems by communicating in the L2, refining their production and presenting their findings

enable a spiritual person to master a foreign language culture on the basis of an integrated skill (to conduct a dialogue of cultures, be an active learner. fulfil a moral potential, communicate in L2) (E. Passov)

Socio- / Intercultural
develop intercultural communicative competence in the context of the dialogue of cultures and civilizations (through co-learn languages and cultures, and in the unity of its verbal and non-verbal components) as a precondition for developing Ss' intellectual powers, communicative culture, aesthetic horizons and visions, ICT powers, political culture etc. (V. Safonova)

The Education Code (Belarus, 2018г.)

Integrated learning outcomes

Personal = **developing the qualities of a multicultural personality**

Metacognitive = **readiness for learning and cognitive activities, mastery of universal learning activities and interdisciplinary concepts**

Cognitive = speech skills, language and socio-cultural knowledge as part of **FL communicative competence**

Qualities of a multicultural personality

linguistic-and-cultural, sociolinguistic, cultural **awareness and discernment**

sociocultural sensitivity
to identifying the common and specific features of national and foreign stereotypes that emerge in the process of communication

sociocultural tolerance
for the expression of nationally specific norms and traditions of intercultural communication

The content of language learning :
(subject matter + emotional-value components)

communication spheres and topics to be discussed

speaking, listening, reading, writing

language material

sociocultural knowledge

compensatory skills

learning and cognitive skills

Dig Deeper: input processing task ◀
(aims in different countries)

1. Study general and communicative competences outlined in Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

Note the influence of an intercultural environment.

[*Source*:https://www.ecml.at/Portals/1/documents/ECML-resources/2011_08_29_ ECEP_EN_web.pdfhttps://rm.coe.int/168069ce6e]

General competences				Communicative language competences		
Declarative knowledge	*Skills and know-how*	*Existential competence*	*Ability to learn*	*Linguistic competences*	*Sociolinguistic competence*	*Pragmatic competences*
· knowledge of the world · socio-cultural knowledge · intercultural awareness	· practical skills · intercultural skills		· language and communication awareness · general phonetic awareness and skills · study skill · heuristic skills	· lexical competence · grammatical competence · semantic competence · phonological competence · orthographic competence · orthoepic competence	· social relations · politeness conventions · expressions of folk wisdom · register differences · dialect and accent	· discourse competence · functional competence

The **general competences** are the abilities that are needed for performing **general** tasks during collaborative design. Theses abilities are **general** in nature and applicable in different situations, e.g. ability to plan, ability to form teams or creativity, declarative and socio- cultural knowledge (e.g. how to rent a house in a country in focus or buy tickets etc.), intercultural awareness and skills.

Learners already possess general competences, which increase at school, including: **declarative knowledge (savoir), skills and know-how (savoir-faire), existential competence (savoir-être) and ability to learn (savoir-apprendre).** Declarative knowledge includes learners' "knowledge of the world" [CEFR, p. 101], which embraces: knowledge of people, locations and characteristics of the country or countries in which the target language is spoken. Knowledge of a society and a country cannot be acquired by users without developing sociocultural knowledge as well as intercultural awareness. The former consists of the knowledge of "features distinctively characteristic of a particular European society" [CEFR, p. 102], which may relate to everyday life, living conditions, interpersonal relations, values, beliefs and attitudes, body language, social conventions and ritual behaviour. Certain features may be "traditional" – for instance, institutions, history or politics – but there are also features that are

seldom obvious, such as social conventions. When hosting visitors from abroad, there are many social conventions such as punctuality, expectations for gifts, length of stay or leave-taking that constitute appropriate interpersonal relationships. Behavioural and conversational conventions are also integral as are taboos, ritual behaviour, religious observances and rites, festivities and celebrations. In addition, non-verbal communication and body language are important. Knowledge of intercultural features and the capacity to relate them to one's own world and the world of the target community produce intercultural awareness, which is essential for developing European citizenship. Intercultural awareness includes the capacity of reconsidering one's own culture and to be open-minded towards foreign cultures. The CEFR stresses that sociocultural awareness is not necessarily included in learners' previous experiences or, if it exists, it may be influenced by stereotypes. Learning at school is therefore very important for developing appropriate intercultural knowledge. Relevant skills and knowledge include "intercultural skills and know-how", such as "cultural sensitivity" [CEFR, p. 104] and the ability to identify a variety of strategies in a particular situation. These intercultural skills and know-how call upon learners' capacities to build upon contacts with a foreign culture to fulfil the role of intercultural intermediary between the home and the target culture, thereby overcoming stereotyped relationships and possible conflict situations. Linguistic or intercultural misunderstanding can relate, for instance, to politeness conventions and register. Although solutions for linguistic errors or mistakes may easily be found, intercultural misunderstandings may give rise to negative attitudes toward other people, which are much more difficult to overcome. Learners therefore require appropriate knowledge as well as skills and know-how to deal with intercultural situations in the real world. Indeed, learning and teaching activities often focus more on the acquisition of linguistic competence than on learners' intercultural competence. Each learner has a personal identity characterised by attitudes, motivations, values, beliefs, cognitive styles, and personality types. A taciturn, shy and introverted learner will act in a different way towards other people than a loquacious, enterprising and extroverted one. The development of one's personal identity is an important goal. Awareness and aptitudes for learning underpin the construction of an "intercultural personality" [CEFR, p. 106] that takes into account different personality types. "Ability to learn" means the aptitude to observe new experiences and to incorporate them into one's own knowledge of the world, modifying it if necessary. The ability to learn includes various components: language and communication awareness as well as general phonetic skills, on the one hand, and study skills and heuristic skills on the other [CEFR, pp. 106–107]. Sensitivity to language as a communication tool involves learners' capacity to consider new experiences in the target language as

an enrichment. These can enhance learners' motivation as well. In a similar way, phonetic skills can help people to master their processes of language learning. Study skills underlie learners' ability to organise and use materials for autonomous and self-directed learning in order to become increasingly independent in their language learning. Finally, heuristic skills include language users' abilities to take advantage of new experiences and to be proactive in their own (inter)cultural learning.

The development of **communicative competence** involves working on three of its components:

Linguistic competence comprises the knowledge and skills related to lexis, phonology and syntax and other features of language systems, considered independently of the sociolinguistic impact of variations in use and of the pragmatic functions of the utterances produced. It concerns not only the range and quality of knowledge (for example, the range and precision of lexical knowledge) but also involves cognitive organisation and the way this knowledge is stored in memory (for example, the question of how a lexical item fits into the networks of associations the speaker has available) and the accessibility (for example, how an item can be recalled, activated and its availability for use).

Socio-linguistic competence refers to the knowledge and skills involved in using language functionally in a social context. Since language is a social phenomenon, its use requires sensitivity to social norms and customs which affect to an important degree all linguistic communication between representatives of different cultures, even if the participants are frequently unaware of them.

Pragmatic competence involves the functional uses of linguistic resources (carrying out language functions, speech acts) using scenarios or predetermined scripts of interactional exchanges. It also involves mastery of discourse, cohesion and coherence, the recognition of text types and genres, using irony or parody. Even more than in the case of this factor than for linguistic competence, the development of pragmatic skills is strongly influenced by interactive experience and by the cultural environment.

2. *Group 1:* **Look through the** *Scheme of assessment at A-level exams in the UK* **(2022). Discuss in a group and correlate target knowledge, skills, strategies, abilities with the list of target competences in CEFR**

Group 2: **Look through** *5C's of the USA National Standards for learning languages.* **Discuss in a group and correlate goal areas with the list of target competences in CEFR**

Group 3: **Look through your notes and The Guidebook above. Discuss in a group and correlate Belarusian target competencies and learning outcomes with the list of target competences in CEFR**

	CEFR: target competencies	UK: target knowledge, skills, strategies, abilities	USA: goal areas	Belarus: target competencies and learning outcomes	Your home country
general	declarative knowledge				
	skills and know-how				
	existential competence				
	ability to learn				
communicative	linguistic				
	sociolinguistic				
	pragmatic				

Reading resources for Group1:

Scheme of assessment at A-level exams in the UK (2022):
French as a foreign language

[Source: https://www.aqa.org.uk/subjects/languages/as-and-a-level/french-7652/scheme-of-assessment]

Aims of learning French as a foreign language

Courses based on this specification should encourage students to:

- **enhance their linguistic skills** and promote and **develop their capacity for critical thinking** on the basis of their knowledge and understanding of the language, culture and society of the country or countries where the language is spoken
- **develop control of the language system** to convey meaning, using spoken and written skills, including an extended range of vocabulary, for both practical and intellectual purposes as increasingly confident, accurate and independent users of the language
- **develop their ability to interact effectively** with users of the language in speech and in writing, including through online media
- **develop language learning skills and strategies**, including communication strategies to sustain communication and build fluency and confidence
- **engage critically with intellectually stimulating texts, films and other materials** in the original language, developing an appreciation of sophisticated and creative uses of the language and understanding them within their cultural and social context

- **develop knowledge about matters central to the society and culture**, past and present, of the country or countries where the language is spoken
- **mediate between cultures and between speakers** of the language and speakers of English
- **foster their ability to learn other languages**
- equip themselves with **transferable skills** such as autonomy, resourcefulness, creativity, critical thinking, and **linguistic, cultural and cognitive flexibility** that will enable them to proceed to further study or to employment
- develop their capacity for **critical and analytical thinking** through the language of study
- develop as **independent researchers** through the language of study.

Reading resources for Group2:

WORLD-READINESS STANDARDS FOR LEARNING LANGUAGES

GOAL AREAS	STANDARDS		
COMMUNICATION Communicate effectively in more than one language in order to function in a variety of situations and for multiple purposes	**Interpersonal Communication:** Learners interact and negotiate meaning in spoken, signed, or written conversations to share information, reactions, feelings, and opinions.	**Interpretive Communication:** Learners understand, interpret, and analyze what is heard, read, or viewed on a variety of topics.	**Presentational Communication:** Learners present information, concepts, and ideas to inform, explain, persuade, and narrate on a variety of topics using appropriate media and adapting to various audiences of listeners, readers, or viewers.
CULTURES Interact with cultural competence and understanding	**Relating Cultural Practices to Perspectives:** Learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the cultures studied.	**Relating Cultural Products to Perspectives:** Learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the relationship between the products and perspectives of the cultures studied.	
CONNECTIONS Connect with other disciplines and acquire information and diverse perspectives in order to use the language to function in academic and career-related situations	**Making Connections:** Learners build, reinforce, and expand their knowledge of other disciplines while using the language to develop critical thinking and to solve problems creatively.	**Acquiring Information and Diverse Perspectives:** Learners access and evaluate information and diverse perspectives that are available through the language and its cultures.	
COMPARISONS Develop insight into the nature of language and culture in order to interact with cultural competence	**Language Comparisons:** Learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the nature of language through comparisons of the language studied and their own.	**Cultural Comparisons:** Learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the concept of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own.	
COMMUNITIES Communicate and interact with cultural competence in order to participate in multilingual communities at home and around the world	**School and Global Communities:** Learners use the language both within and beyond the classroom to interact and collaborate in their community and the globalized world.	**Lifelong Learning:** Learners set goals and reflect on their progress in using languages for enjoyment, enrichment, and advancement.	

C h a p t e r IV. Current approaches to foreign language teaching (FLT) ◄

Cultural approaches to FLT
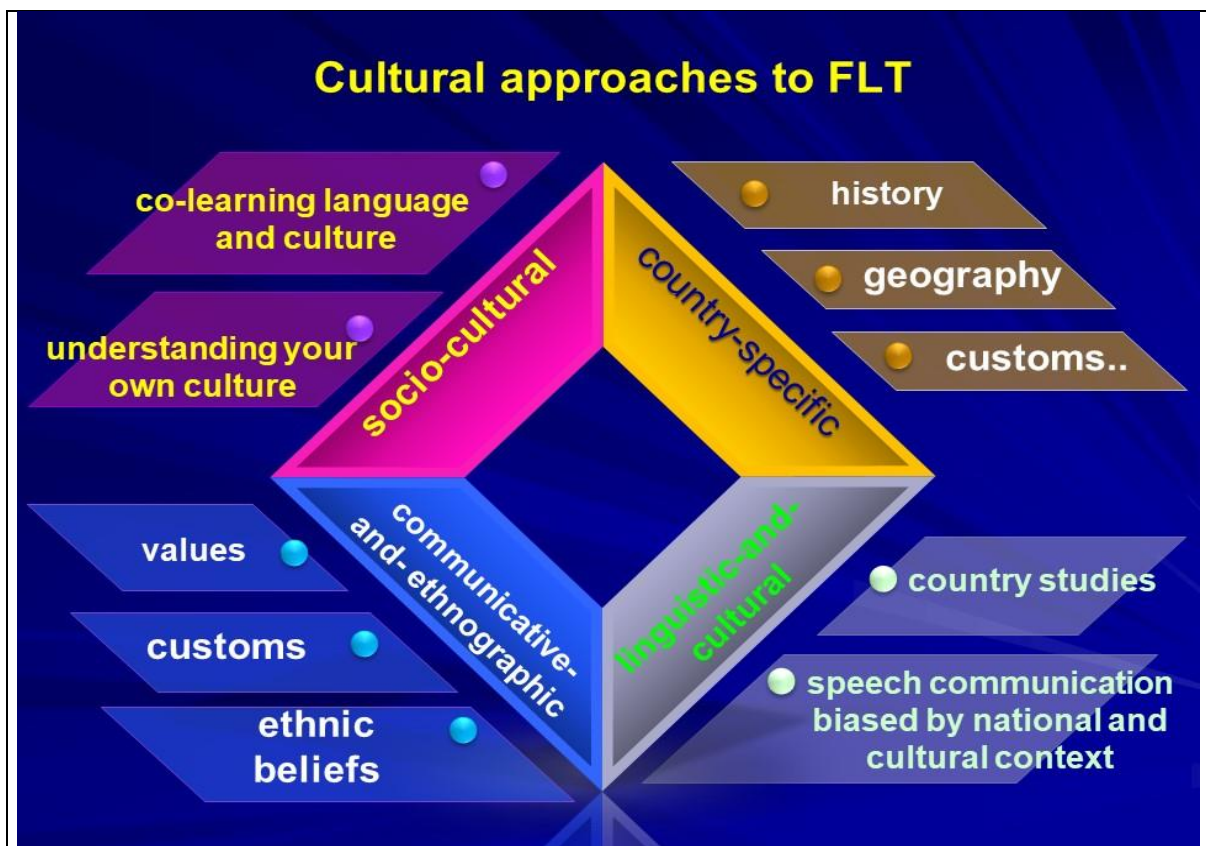
Lecture "Overview of Task-based learning methodology" ◄

Extra readings on:

Speech Act Theory https://youractinfo.blogspot.com/2018/05/speech-act_25.html
Bloom's Revised Taxonomy Wheel https://zaidlearn.wordpress.com/2009/07/24/use-blooms-taxonomy-wheel-for-writing-learning-outcomes/

"Methodology behind Task-based learning" (excerpts from the manuscript by prof. O.A. Solovyova, contributed to an international project TEMPUS CoMoLTE) ◄

Application of the communicative approach to language learning, and growing classroom data from the studies have highlighted again the issue of finding the balance between solving communicative tasks and developing fluency, accuracy and complexity of the language production. The adherents of communicative language teaching still face two main challenges: 1) how to boost the communicative use of a foreign language in the classroom (within a weak version of the approach), and 2) how to incorporate focus-on form (within a strong version).

Even though declarative and procedural knowledge is neuroanatomically independent (Dörnyei 2009), the form-function-meaning triad forms a symbolic structure which can't be separated in language use (Langacker 2013). As a consequence, each dimension is to be attended in the classroom in order to reach a fully developed language competence in the foreign language. These dimensions, however, are often divided for pedagogical purposes, and, depending on the approach applied, are given more or less priority. Within the communicative approach more pedagogical attention is given to function, to proper language use in meaningful interactions in certain contexts. Recent studies, though, show that "even under favourable conditions, classroom learners fail to develop full L2 linguistic competence simply by communicating" (Ellis 2008: 847). It doesn't mean that the choice should be between communicative or non-communicative studies. It is more a matter of balance between meaningful interactions and a focus on form in the foreign language classroom. Moreover, further aspects like salience, personal relevance, social-psychological and situational factors etc. are supposed to play a crucial role in learning language (Passov 2010; Roche 2012).

PPP (Presentation, Practice, Production) way of organizing a lesson has proved to be good enough, because of its simplicity in terms of classroom management, professional development and accountability (Skehan 2001: 94). However, it is teacher-centered, while modern educational paradigm is predominantly learner-centered. Furthermore, it doesn't consider the most recent research on language acquisition that assumes some other stages in language learning (chunking, categorization, generalization, abstraction) (cf. Behrens 2009). According to these stages, linguistic knowledge is procedural from the very beginning, as it emanates from the communicative context. This, in turn, explains, why teaching the form and the rules from the very beginning can't facilitate language learning.

PPP is deductive and form-driven, while the focus today is on communicating meaning in close to real-life situations, on inductive, exploratory ways of learning a foreign language. No wonder, Task-Based Learning (which combines communicative and form-focus approaches) gains popularity and rivals PPP in many educational contexts.

TBL creates favourable conditions for learner-centered environment in the foreign language classroom, because learners: a) are provided with opportunities to use the target language for real communication; b) are motivated to engage in the learning process; c) are exposed to the target language and an opportunity to 'notice' it in natural context; d) receive focused instruction as their attention is drawn not only to meaning, but also to language form to prevent fossilization (Willis and Willis 2007: 121). Within TBL teachers of foreign languages are supposed to use intrinsically interesting and cognitively engaging tasks (Safonova, 2001; Passov, 2010). Such tasks should motivate learners to produce meaningful

foreign language utterances; activate learner's prior knowledge of the content; demand deeper cognitive processing and consequently help to build stronger meaningful connections with the related information already stored in the long term memory, speed up the concepts formation and the restructuring of learner's previous knowledge and experience (Dörnyei 2009).

Based on the recent research in the field of communicative and cognitive theories of foreign/second language acquisition and teaching (Passov 2010; Nunan 2004; Willis & Willis 2007; Slavin 2010; Roche, Reher & Simic 2012), we may say that 4 main principles underpin Task-based approache, namely the principles of: 1) relevance, 2) cognitive activity, 3) collaborative learning and 4) integrated-skills instruction.

The principle of relevance defines both the selection of the learning material and its organisation. According to this principle, a teacher or syllabus designer in TBL framework must select the topics relevant for the learner's age, everyday life and academic interests. Furthermore, relevant authentic material should be selected to cover various authentic situations, relevant to learners' everyday life or academic interests, as all tasks are derived from and coordinated with the input. Even though in TBL the main focus is on meaning, relevant language means can be selected to help learners express their thoughts in the target language in the most effective way. What is important to remember is that the language choice in TBL is dictated by the content material, not vice versa. For example, in the communicative approach the input is chosen in accordance with the language items being presented and studied. In TBL language use emanates from and becomes relevant within the tasks and contents offered in the learning scenarios.

According to the **principle of cognitive activity**, the learning tasks used in TBL are to contain a certain problem to stimulate the active processing of the information presented. Learners are not supposed to reproduce thoughtlessly the facts retrieved from the material or just practice the language use for its own sake. The tasks should challenge them to apply, analyze, evaluate and create something new based on the studied input.

Within TBL framework most of the tasks are accomplished in collaborative dialogues "in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building" (Swain 2000 cf. Ellis 2008:527). The **principle of collaborative learning** is based on the idea, that by working together learners boost both cognitive and metacognitive development of each other, reach better academic results, acquire solid foreign language skills including through incidental learning (Ellis 2008:539). Collaborative dialogues are supposed to foster positive interdependence of all group members, maintain a balanced individual accountability for the team rewards, ensure equal participation and opportunities for successful communication of low and high achievers, encourage meaningful interaction within the group (Kagan 1994; Slavin 1999, 2010).

The successful task accomplishment depends on two major factors: a) the presence of group goals where each team member is motivated to reach them, and b) the contributions of each individual in effective group learning and problem solving. It is assumed that collaborative learning will enhance individual academic performance, if learners work together on achieving one goal, for example, to decode the input, draw mutual conclusions, create a new product. Their motivation to provide scaffolded help to each other depends on their social cohesion: the degree of group integration and the consistency of learning strategies used in problem solving activities, the strength of interpersonal relationships within the group. Individual accountability motivates each learner to give and get detailed explanations (instead of thoughtless retelling of the input) which stimulates their cognitive development. Peer modeling and peer practice allow to promote learners' leadership and organizational skills, incorporate their cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies, develop learning autonomy. In the process of self and peer formative assessment learners are given a chance to analyze their contribution in the task fulfillment and their language progress without the traditional stress of error correction. It facilitates a friendly educational environment necessary for effective communication in a foreign language.

Peer interactions and peer tutoring make the **integrated-skills instruction** possible and preferable. Learners are supposed to use and understand authentic reading, listening and watching materials, which means that teachers should develop a complex of reading and listening skills. The content is interpreted and evaluated in a variety of collaborative dialogues which demands the development of learners' speaking skills. To fulfill a culminating activity or present a final product, learners are to possess academic writing skills among many others. Besides while performing such tasks learners often have to demonstrate information technology, organisational, leadership and other competences. Thus the principle of the integrated-skills instruction can be implemented at full extent.

Implementation of the principles of relevance, cognitive activity, collaborative learning and integrated-skills instruction is aimed at the development of learner's ability to use a foreign language to communicate with others in various communicative and socio-cultural settings. Following Willis (1996) and Nunan (2004) we can say that TBL allows to:

- develop learner's communicative language competences (linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic knowledge and skills);
- engage learner's personal experience and make learners "speak their mind" instead of regurgitating other people's meanings;
- allow learners to focus on the meaning expressed, not the language used;
- are learner-centered, delegating a teacher the role of a facilitator helping learners to meet the task demands;
- focus on communicative interactions, not grammar exercises;

- expose learners to authentic language used in natural socio-cultural context with no pre-selected structures embedded in the material.

These characteristics stress the non-linguistic purpose of TBL: the goal is primarily to expand the whole set of learner's communicative competences rather than their linguistic skills. Foreign language is seen not as a set of rules of sentence construction through which learners can produce and understand any number of utterances, and not as a goal of learning, but as the means of accomplishing some communicative purpose. Within TBL classes, learners are given more opportunities to promote real life skills in a variety of communicative activities: role-plays, discussions and debates, board games and quizzes, questionnaires and polls, drama and singing, and so on. Besides, they need extra practice in speaking, because they are normally not exposed to the target language outside the classroom. That is why teachers in such classes introduce a lot of pair or group work, and offer a number of collaborative activities, which promote additional competences like democratic competence, team working, social competence, media competence and so on.

TBL is build around a variety of carefully selected tasks which involve learners in meaningful interactions in a foreign language. Both interactionist and cognitive theories "view tasks as devices that predispose learners to engage in interactions" (Ellis 2008: 822), which is why tasks are widely used in the communicative methods of foreign language teaching. Ellis (2008) distinguishes task-supported language teaching and task-based language teaching. The former incorporates tasks-in-process (which are mostly language-based) into existing methods of teaching. The latter is build around tasks-as-workplan, which allow learners to develop their language skills in collaborative communicative interactions (see *Figure 1*).

Tasks-in-process	Tasks-as-workplan
• communicative goals • input data with pre-selected linguistic structures • communicative activities combining non-linguistic and linguistic focuses • situational setting	• pragmatic goals • input data without pre-selected linguistic structures • collaborative activities with non-linguistic focus • real-world setting

Figure 1. Main features of tasks-in-process and tasks-as-workplan

Tasks-as-workplan require "learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed" (Ellis 2003: 16). Nunan (2004) further stresses the role of communicative language use in which the focus is mostly on meaning, not form. Task "involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language, while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammar knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form" (Nunan

2004: 4). Tasks-as-workplan consist of the following **components: goals, input data, activities, teacher and learner role, setting.** Let us consider the task example: "Next week 10 pupils from Germany will arrive at your school for a short stay (school exchange). What would you like to tell them about your school? What will they probably ask you? As you will need to show them some locations of your school, you can create a video using your smartphone; to edit the video you can use the app "powerdirector"; then, you can share the video with the German pupils. So, now it's your turn: Choose the topics, write the dialogues and start creating your own video." The task goal here is to collect the information about the school and share it with the pupils from Germany. The information on the school website and videos taken on different school locations serve as verbal and non-verbal input. Learners' activities are varied: they read, take notes, discuss, listen to each other and prepare the arguments in favour of the location of their choice, shoot and edit the video. A teacher monitors the reading and writing activities, facilitates the discussions within the groups and in class. Learners act as conversational partners while sharing the information and persuading each other in group activities. Thus while designing tasks-as-workplan a teacher is to keep in mind that the goals and input data should be coordinated with the principle of relevance. The principles of cognitive activity and integrated skill instruction define: the activities derived from the input, the classroom setting and the teacher role of a monitor of the activities suggested to learners. The learner role of a conversational partner and the teacher role of the interactions facilitator are determined by the principle of collaborative learning.

All in all, according to Skehan (2001), Nunan (2004), Passov (1989) and others, tasks should have certain characteristics within TBL which coordinate with the basic principles outlined above. First and foremost, meaning should be primary: there should be no pre-planned or limited set of linguistic structures to be used to express the meaning. There should be some communication problem to solve in the task, for example: plan a tour around your country, design a set of postcards with your local landmarks, prepare a review of your favourite computer game, work out and present specifications of an animal-like robot your group is going to create etc. Focus-on-structure exercises (repetition, transformation, substitution drills) with no communicative purpose are unacceptable. Each task is to have some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities, which must adapt to learner's age, needs, interests, social status and so on. Task completion should have some priority over linguistic forms used for that, in other words, it is of importance, if the communicative purpose has been achieved, not if the appropriate language is used with an absolute accuracy. The assessment of the task is fulfilled in terms of non-linguistic outcome, because the approaches are not linguistic-skill-oriented.

Does it mean that there should be no focus on form at all? Zhao (2011) suggests to shift the extreme focus on meaning in Task-Based approach to complement it with focus-on form in order to develop not only fluency, but

accuracy and complexity. According to Zhao (2011: 42) instructed language learning should primarily involve 'natural' or 'naturalistic' language use, based on activities concerned with meaning rather than linguistic form. In other words learners are supposed to discuss, persuade, invent a story, interview, draw and so on, rather than "use modal verbs/infinitives". Instruction should motivate learners to engage in language use rather than teacher control, so that students should be primarily focused on meaning when they carry out a task. At the same time, there should be opportunities for focusing on form, but they should always be linked to their underlying meanings. For that purpose formal pre- or post-task language study will be useful. Willis J. echoes with the claim that form-focused activities can be integrated in Task-Based Learning, but should be carefully transformed into mini-tasks like "Correct the teacher"/"True or False"/"Guessing" games or memory challenge tasks (Willis and Willis, 2007).
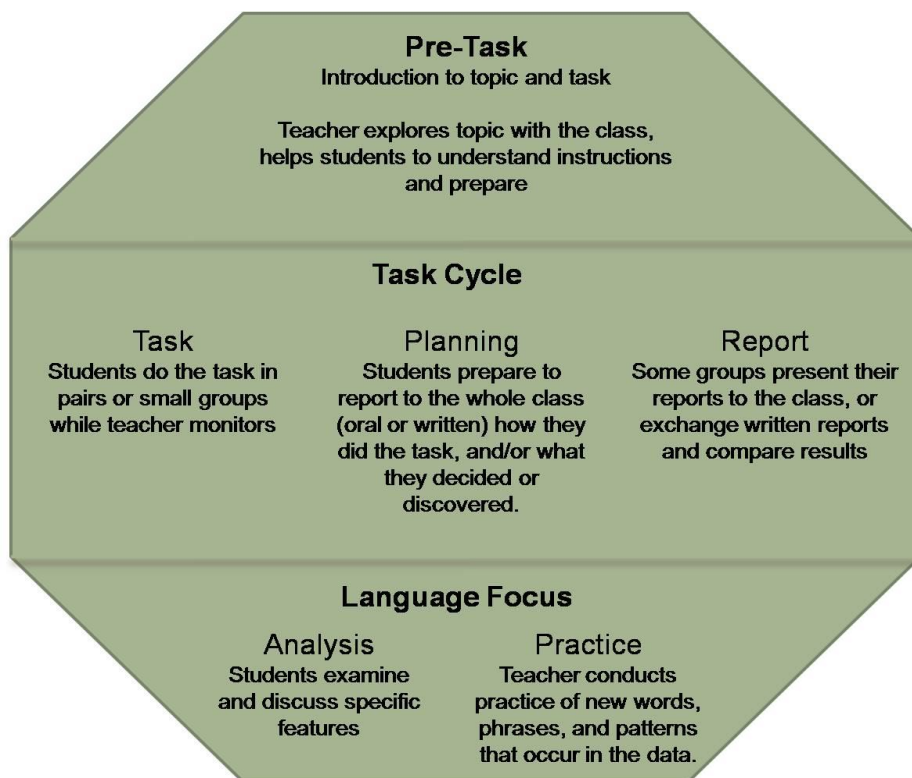
Extra readings on tasks types, and their role in TBL: ◄

https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/six-types-task-tbl
http://leoxicon.blogspot.com/2012/05/in-defence-of-tbl.html

The Task-based learning framework in a class ◄

Various scholars propose various lesson designs (Prabhu, 1987; Willis, 1996; Skehan, 2001; Ellis, 2008), but they all agree that a TBL lesson should have a three-phase structure: **Pre-task, During-task and Post-task.**

Pre-Task
Introduction to topic and task

Teacher explores topic with the class, helps students to understand instructions and prepare

Task Cycle

Task
Students do the task in pairs or small groups while teacher monitors

Planning
Students prepare to report to the whole class (oral or written) how they did the task, and/or what they decided or discovered.

Report
Some groups present their reports to the class, or exchange written reports and compare results

Language Focus

Analysis
Students examine and discuss specific features

Practice
Teacher conducts practice of new words, phrases, and patterns that occur in the data.

Lesson framework (from Willis and Willis, 2007)

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Ellis (2008) argues that *Pre-task and Post-task phases* are optional, admitting, though, that they make the Task phase more effective, if carefully structured, and are crucial for learners. Thus, Prabhu (1987) used Pre-task phase to scaffold the later task performance and to activate the required language. Learners were supposed to perform a similar task (in pairs or groups), so that they could understand the task and the expected outcome, and channel their full attention to solving reasoning-gap problems at the Task phase, without bothering about the language form. In an attempt to ease the cognitive complexity of a task, Willis (1996) and Skehan (2001) proposed to expose learners to models how the task can be accomplished. Learners were given some written texts to explore, videos to watch or audio recordings to listen to. Unlike pre-reading/pre-listening activities in the communicative lesson framework, pre-task brainstorming activities or discussions were supposed to provide a model how to fulfill the task, what strategies to apply, not what language to use in the process. As Skehan put it: "All of these change the learners' awareness of elements of the task before it is done, with the result that the task is then approached and performed differently" (Skehan 2001: 139). If a teacher opts for focus-on form at this phase, the language material shouldn't be pre-selected by the teacher, and it should focus on vocabulary, not grammar structures. The vocabulary may be brainstormed by learners, predicting what they might need while fulfilling the task and searching the dictionary for the target language. Learners may create a glossary of words and their definitions, then post it on a class blogg page or Quizlet page.

Both Skehan (2001) and Ellis (2008) advocate strategic planning at Pre-Task phase, because such planning affects fluency, accuracy and complexity of the utterances produced by learners. Research shows (Skehan 2001) that 10 minutes of planning at this stage lead to more fluency and complexity, while 1 minute of planning has greater effect on accuracy. Besides, if the learners were given enough time for planning, but no guidelines how to accomplish the task, they focused on form and their speech was more accurate. At the same time, those learners whose planning time was backed up with guidelines, concentrated on the task content and demonstrated high complexity of the language used.

While planning a *Task phase*, a teacher is supposed to make several decisions concerning communicative stress put on learners: 1) to limit or not the time for accomplishing the task; 2) to make the task oral or written; 3) to make the task more structured or less structured; 4) what interest triggers or surprise elements to use; 5) what degree of teacher interventions to allow.

The main principle for a teacher would be to maintain the balance between accomplishing meaningful tasks and dealing with fluency, accuracy and complexity of the language used (Skehan 2001). Thus, time pressure put on a learner will lead to lower accuracy and complexity, because all attentional resources will be on the task

itself. Oral tasks will be good for fluency, but will badly affect the accuracy or complexity. Structured tasks (for example, providing visual support in the form of an image or written text) will support accuracy. Interest triggers will engage learners, even passive listeners, in interactions and make them communicate in a foreign language. As for teacher's interventions, they should be minimum at this stage, teachers must stick to the role of a task facilitator dealing with difficulties encountered by learners while accomplishing the task.

After channeling the learner's attention to meanings expressed at Task phase, teachers are to shift the focus to the form at *Post-task phase*. Unlike at Pre-task phase, at this phase teachers may address the language errors made by learners or concentrate on the vocabulary or grammar never used but natural for the context (Ellis 2003). Willis and Willis (2007) proposed the following post-task activities promoting language noticing and understanding: identification of the target language units, their classification, hypothesis advancement and its check, cross-language exploration, search for patterns and texts reconstruction (like in a dictogloss).

The reflection on the task is to include the summary of the task outcome and the self-assessment of metacognitive strategies used while performing the task (strategies concerning planning, monitoring and task evaluation). Instead of performing the task in front of the class, as proposed by many scholars, learners can record their performance on internet-based voice services (for example, Voicethread or Flipgrid), and then analyze it in groups or pairs.

Dig Deeper: lesson observation (TBL) ◄

Watch the videos, note down what tasks are completed at pre-task, during-task and post-task phases:

Video 1 "TBL lesson: 4 stages"
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=59XMhMO0FMU

Video 2 "Task-based activity: Creating a Utopian society"
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QirhNeIwQ0w

Self-assessment test (TBL phases and tasks) ◄

Follow the link below (*open in class*). Which tasks fit best pre-task, during-task and post-task phases? Match the tasks with the phases.
https://onlinetestpad.com/twfca5y43u3ms

C h a p t e r V. Practical activities for teaching English through literature ◄

1. Study some teaching techniques in the book "*Literature in the language classroom: a resource book of ideas and activities*" (by J. Collier and S. Slater, 1987) – *see Appendix 1*

Group 1: **Using the title and cover design (p. 17-18)**

Group 2: **Biographical montage (p. 23) and Creating a sketch of the author (p. 23-25)**

Group 3: **Jumbled events (p. 46)**

Group 4: **Value judgment worksheets (p. 47-48)**

Group 5: **Choosing a moral (p. 49-50)**

2. Choose and read one excerpt from the novels by Belarusian authors in Verbum #1 2019 – see Appendix 2 or http://dziejaslou.by/wp-content/ uploads/ 2020/06/Verbum.pdf

3. Aplly the allocated teaching technique to a story. Share with the class.

Appendix 1 ◄

"*Literature in the language classroom: a resource book of ideas and activities*" **(by J. Collier and S. Slater, 1987)**

selected pages:

https://drive.google.com/file/d/1zoYNFW0DsuZtzP4I55tG3ELfNHRBqY-4/view?usp=sharing

Appendix 2 ◄

Verbum #1 2019

selected pages:

https://drive.google.com/file/d/1gupTMinn5j8aEgw1PIcwF-j5PrkaAeX8/view?usp=sharing

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