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# Methodology of Teaching English 1

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*„Teachers are fundamentally learners who are constantly searching for development and growth. In other words teachers should allow themselves to learn with learners, to learn what is better for learners and how to better guide their learning.“*

Peter G. Beidler

## Introduction

Good teaching is quite easy to recognize but difficult to define. Different people make good teachers for different reasons. Luckily, there are many skills which the teacher needs for good teaching and which can be learnt and practised.

Methodology of Teaching English 1 offers students in pre-service teacher programmes basic theory concerning several important topics necessary for understanding the teaching and learning process.

Its aim is to:

- increase the awareness of selected aspects of teaching English
- provide some basic guidelines for teaching English

It comprises 10 units each focussing on a different area of methodology. It should enable trainees to get basic knowledge of classroom management, motivation, importance of questioning,

roles of teachers and learners, mistake management, using visuals and methods of language teaching. Perhaps, trainees will be able to find out how knowledge of general pedagogy, educational psychology and methodology of teaching English overlap.

There are several tasks in the units which are linked to points in the text. They offer trainees an opportunity for self-study and deeper understanding of the theoretical base.

We encourage you to integrate the knowledge into your own evolving model of effective teaching.

Banská Bystrica, október 2013

Eva Homolová

# Unit 1      Language as a means of communication



**In this unit you will learn:**

- What language is
- What we have to present and practice
- You get to know the basic terminology

**Key words:** communication, language, vocabulary, skills, grammar, function, structure, pronunciation.

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## **1.1 Definitions of language**

Language is a vital and amazing subject matter. It is the way we make contacts with other people, how we express ourselves, it is the way we live and think.

There exist many definitions of language such as:

*...a system of communication by written or spoken words, which is used by the people of a particular country or area. (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 1995).*

*...the words, their pronunciation, and the methods of combining them, used and understood by a community*

*...an audible, articulate, meaningful sound as produced by the action of the vocal organs*

*... a systematic means of communicating ideas or feelings by the use of conventionalized signs, sounds, gestures, or marks having understood meanings*

<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/language>

*...a body of words and the systems for their use common to a people who are of the same community or nation, the same geographical area, or the same cultural tradition: the two languages of Belgium; a Bantu language; the French language*

*...communication by voice in the distinctively human manner, using arbitrary sounds in conventional ways with conventional meanings; speech.*

<http://dictionary.reference.com/>

- a. Communication of thoughts and feelings through a system of arbitrary signals, such as voice sounds, gestures, or written symbols.
- b. Such a system including its rules for combining its components, such as words.
- c. Such a system as used by a nation, people, or other distinct community; often contrasted with *dialect*

<http://www.answers.com/topic/language>

Though the given definitions slightly differ, what they have in common is the word **communication**.

### **Task 1**

*Search the Internet or other resources and find two definitions of a language. Compare them with those given.*

In the 20th and 21st century English has become the most commonly learnt language all over the world. Obviously, the percentage of learners who learn English is rising in both primary and secondary education. In most European countries there is a current trend to introduce compulsory English in early stages of schooling.

Hutchinson (1992) explains the reasons why English has become lingua franca as follows:

*The end of the Second World War in 1945 heralded an age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale. Our world has become dominated by two forces, technology and commerce. The USA has become the leading economic power and the role of an international language fell to English and it has become an accepted international means of communication (Hutchinson, T. - Waters, A. p.6).*

## **1.2 Aspects of language**

Teaching a foreign language are steps taken by the teacher to develop communicative competence. Before we start considering how to teach English, it is important to know what the teacher has to present and practise in order that learners will become communicatively competent.

Theoretically, we can divide English language teaching (or any foreign language teaching) into two main areas:

**teaching the language system** (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation)

**teaching language skills** (reading comprehension, listening comprehension, speaking, and writing)

The most important area of teaching any language is its **vocabulary** (lexis). We have to teach

- active vocabulary - lexical items we understand in spoken and written English and use them in communication
- passive vocabulary – lexical items we understand in spoken or written English (or we can guess their meaning from the context) but we do not use them in communication.

When we teach a new lexical item, it is necessary to present its:

- **form** (spelling and pronunciation)
- **meaning** (what the word means)
- **grammar** (how words interact with each other)
- **use** (how words function in communication)

There exist various techniques how to present the above mentioned aspects of new lexis.

## **Grammar**

Traditionally, grammar has been concerned almost exclusively with analysis at the level of a sentence.

Nowadays from a learner's perspective, the ability to recognise and to produce well-formed sentences is an essential part of learning a foreign language.

When we teach grammar, we have to consider grammar structures and grammar functions. In other words a distinction has to be made between rules of **form** and rules of **use**.

*Grammar structure is a sequence of linguistic units that are in a certain relationship to one another (Harmer 1993, p. 212).*

## ✧ Examples:

*Be + going + infinitive*

*She is going to spend  
summer in England.*

*Have + past participle*

*Look, they have built a  
new store over there.*

*Have + something + past participle*

*We have our flat  
decorated.*

Grammar functions can be defined as a reason for which we use language.

Functions are universal to all languages because in any language people have to e.g.:

- Ask for information
- Offer help
- Describe a place, person or thing
- Apologize
- Express what happened in the past
- Express certainty/uncertainty
- Make a prediction

One function can be expressed by several structures (see examples below). We have to emphasize that structures and functions should never be taught separately. Learners have to

understand why they have to learn e.g. the structure *there is / there are* – that they can use these structures to describe their own room, flat or classroom.

<b>Function</b>	<b>Structures</b>	
Offering help	Shall I + verb	<i>Shall I bring you a glass of water?</i>
	Should I + verb	<i>Should I give you a lift?</i>
Making suggestions	Let's + verb	<i>Let's have a cup of coffee.</i>
	What + about + ing?	<i>What about going to the cinema?</i>
Expressing regrets about unfulfilled actions	I wish + past perfect tense	<i>I wish I had studied more for that exam.</i>
	If only + past perfect tense	<i>If only I had got up earlier and hadn't missed the bus.</i>

One structure can be used to express more than one function, e.g. present progressive can be used to

- A. speak about actions around the moment of speaking e.g. *He is shouting at the child.*
- B. for changing and developing situations e.g. *Your children are growing bigger and bigger every day.*

When we teach grammar we have to present its:

- **Form** (how the structure is formed and how it is pronounced)
- **Meaning** (what it means and which functions it can be used for)
- **Use** (how the structure is used, style, oral/written form)
- **Potential problems** (what problems learners can encounter in controlled and free practice)

The teacher can use various techniques for presenting the above mentioned aspects of new grammar.

### **Task 2**

*Make a list of five functions and corresponding structures.*

### **Pronunciation, intonation and stress**

Another aspect of language we have to teach is pronunciation of individual sounds paying special attention to sounds that do not exist in Slovak. Work on pronunciation is important for two main reasons: to help learners understand the spoken English they are exposed to, and to help them make their own speech more comprehensible and meaningful for others (Gower, 1995).

Accordingly, we have to teach the stress and intonation, focusing on different intonation patterns.

## Language skills

Language skills are divided into receptive skills such as reading and listening comprehension and productive skills such as speaking and writing (production, interaction and mediation).

See: *Common European Frame of Reference for Languages*

It is important to stress that knowing vocabulary, grammar, skills and pronunciation is **not** enough for being a competent user of English.

Another aspect we have to consider is the culture of the target language community. In general, language is a part of culture and thus developing cultural awareness is an unavoidable part of language teaching and learning. In the past the attention was paid to culture with „C“ (history, sights, literature, institutions, geography, political system etc).

Nowadays we focus more on culture with “c” such as the way of life, pop culture, fashion, values, norms and attitudes of native users of English. With the enlargement of the EU, teaching materials present the culture of other European countries as well.

Developing awareness of own culture is equally important.

Reasons for teaching of culture (developing cultural awareness) are:

- To stimulate learners' curiosity about the target culture;
- To help learners increase their awareness of cultural connotations of words and phrases in English;
- To help learners understand that social variables e.g. age, sex, social class influence the ways in which people speak and behave;
- To help learners develop an understanding of the fact that all people exhibit culturally-conditioned behaviours;
- To help learners develop the necessary skills to locate and organize information and facts about the target culture;
- To help learners become more aware of conventional behaviour in common situations in the target culture (Tomalin and Stempleski, 1993)

### **Task 3**

*Find examples of "culture" in any coursebook for secondary learners.*

The overall aim of teaching and learning English is to prepare a communicatively competent user of English. It is useful to know what constitutes the communicative competence.

- linguistic competence (correct use of language systems and language skills)
- pragmatic (sociolinguistic) competence – language must be used appropriately to the social context and situations
- discourse competence (ability to create a coherent written or oral text)
- strategic competence (ability to keep communication going, change the topic, avoid conversation to compensate shortage of knowledge)

More detailed description of what the teacher has to teach in different types of schools is stated in the school curriculum (*Vzdelávací štandard z cudzích jazykov*).

#### **Task 4**

*Look at the examples of syllabuses for primary and secondary schools (English language). See: [http:// www.statpedu.sk](http://www.statpedu.sk)*

## **Task 5**

*In the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages find two examples of sub-skills for receptive/productive skills.*

### **? Review questions:**

What is the difference between the language structure and the language function?

What are components of the communicative competence?

What aspects of the language have to be presented and practised?



### **Further reading:**

HARMER, J. *How to Teach English*. Harlow : Longman, 2009, ISBN 978 1 4058 4774 2

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
TOMALIN, B., STEMPLESKI, S. 1993. *Cultural Awareness*. OUP, ISBN 0 19 437194-8

## Unit 2      Methods of Teaching English



**In this unit you will:**

- Learn the distinction between learning and acquisition
- Get to know how to characterize a language teaching method
- Get an overview of various traditional and alternative methods
- Gain understanding of The Communicative Method

 **Key words:** method, approach, aim

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### ***2.1 History of ELT methods and approaches***

In the previous chapter we have learnt what the teacher has to teach and what learners have to learn in English classes. Obviously, it is not enough to know WHAT to teach but the question HOW to teach is equally important.

A lot of research of how people learn foreign languages has focused on the distinction between learning and acquisition.

According to Krashen (1982) the former is a conscious process depending on the learner's will and the latter is a subconscious process which is similar to the way we acquire the mother tongue without thinking about grammar or vocabulary. Children are exposed to the language and as a result of what they hear they

start experiment with language, express themselves and fill in a communication gap. The author states that acquiring is more successful and longer lasting than learning. On the one hand, in our teaching and learning conditions the learner cannot avoid learning e.g. irregular verbs, vocabulary etc. On the other hand the teacher has to create situations in which learners are exposed to the language and acquire it subconsciously, e.g. when the teacher uses English as much as possible in social situations, giving instructions etc.

### **Task 1**

*Study the definitions of finely and roughly tuned input.  
Indicate, which input you would use for:*

- Explaining new grammar
- Choosing a text for reading comprehension
- Instructions for a written text
- Choosing a text for reading aloud
- Chatting with learners about their weekend
- Explaining the meaning of unknown vocabulary

Over the last decades there have existed many theories of how foreign languages should be presented and practised. In other words, there exist several “ways how to teach English.”

When we want to describe a particular method we have to do it in terms of its:

aim, teacher’s and learners’ roles, types of interaction, role of mother tongue, error management, place of culture, evaluation and emphasized areas of language (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

### **The Grammar Translation Method**

In the past, The Grammar-Translation Method, which is sometimes referred to as a classical method, was used in teaching classical languages (Latin and Greek). In the last century it was used for the purpose of reading and appreciating a foreign language. The focus was on literary texts and learner’s ability to read and understand them. Learners did a lot of translating from and to their mother tongue. The teacher was in the centre of the teaching process as the authority in the classroom. Learners were very much controlled by the teacher or materials. Grammar was studied deductively, rules and examples were given and learners had to memorize them. Almost all interaction was initiated by the teacher. As far as the skills, it was primarily reading, writing and translating. A lot of attention was paid to vocabulary and the grammar system. Mother tongue was

commonly used; mistakes were immediately corrected by the teacher. Culture with C was in the centre of attention (literature and fine arts).

### **The Direct Method**

This method stands in contrast to The Grammar-Translation Method as learners and the teacher are not allowed to use their mother tongue. The aim of the method is to teach learners to communicate in the target language. This shift has influenced the role of the teacher, who becomes a partner for learners in communication. As the teacher does not use translation (they often do not speak the language of their learners), the meaning of vocabulary and grammar has to be presented through mime, gestures and visuals. The teacher tries to create communicative situations in which learners can practice language and makes learners more active in the lesson. Learners practice primarily oral skills. Unlike the previous method, grammar is presented inductively; learners are given more examples and have to figure out grammar rules. Though the interaction is initiated by the teacher (T-L/Ls) it goes the other way as well (L-T). As far as culture, the focus is on history, geography and everyday life. When a learner makes a mistake the teacher tries to elicit self-correction.

## **The Audio-Lingual Method**

The Audio-Lingual Method has its roots in The Direct Method, descriptive linguistics and behavioral psychology. Its basic principle is that learning is a habit formation and learners have to overlearn the target language. It was believed that it can be reached by drilling when learners use the target language without stopping to think. The focus of classroom activities is on constant drilling followed by positive or negative reinforcement from the teacher.

Similarly to the Direct Method, the aim is using the target language for everyday communication.

The teacher is in the role of a good model for learners to imitate. S/he controls and directs all classroom activities. Learners are imitators, responding to the teacher's prompts as accurately and as rapidly as possible. Language is practiced through various types of drills and short dialogues.

Grammar is induced from the teacher's examples but rules are not provided.

Most interaction happens between the teacher and learners but learners interact between/among themselves in chain drills or pattern dialogues.

Culture with “c“- everyday life of native speakers, norms, values, habits and pop culture is presented in texts.

The natural order of skills presentation and practice is:

1. listening,
2. speaking,
3. reading,
4. and writing.

A lot of attention is paid to pronunciation; learners imitate the teacher or a tape.

Learners' mother tongue is totally excluded from the classroom as it was believed that mother tongue interferes with the attempts to learn a foreign language and is a source of many mistakes.

Learners' errors are avoided where possible through the teacher's awareness of where they may occur.

The basic principles of The Audio Lingual Method were challenged by the linguist Noam Chomsky who rejected the idea that language is a form of behaviour. In his opinion the language is an intricate rule based system and a large part of language acquisition is the learning of this system. Knowledge of a finite number of grammatical rules can result in an infinite number of utterances (Harmer, 2009).

However, cognitivism has never become a base principle of any method; it has a strong influence on many teaching techniques and principles used nowadays. Learners are encouraged to use the rules they know for creating sentences of their own.

### **Task 2**

*Does the following sentence support the behaviourist theory or the cognitivist theory? Explain.*

My brother writed homework and goed to school.

### **Task 3**

*Complete the chart.*

<b>METHOD</b>	<b>Grammar- Translation</b>	<b>Audio- lingual</b>	<b>Communi- cative</b>
<b>ASPECTS</b>			
<b>aim</b>			
<b>language/skills</b>			
<b>mother tongue</b>			
<b>types of interaction</b>			
<b>errors</b>			
<b>T/L roles</b>			
<b>culture</b>			

## **2.2 Humanistic approaches**

Humanistic education puts learner's personality, their intellectual and emotional dimensions in the centre of teaching efforts. It takes into consideration the learner's needs, feelings and wants. It was founded by Abraham Maslow (1908 - 1970) who considered the basic psychological needs of learners as vital in the teaching and learning process. Positive qualities, self esteem and self discovery have become a base of humanistic education. Beliefs that positive atmosphere and trends in getting learners to develop themselves as a human being led to alternative teaching methods.

### **Community Language Learning**

This method is based on the educational movement of counselling learning, attempts to give learners the language they need. By understanding how learners feel (stress, anxiety, fear), the teacher can create positive learning environment and diminish negative feelings about language learning. Learners learn their tongue in the way that they say what they want in L1 and the "knower" translates it for them. The aim is to use English for communication and learn about their own learning as well.

### **Suggestopedia**

This method has been developed by Georgi Lozanov, who stresses the importance of comfortable environment (furniture,

soft music, colours). In his opinion, carefully selected music activates both the left and right hemispheres. Learners are given new identity (name) and listen to dialogues. They should feel relaxed and confident. This method stresses the process of the language acquisition. Learners are exposed to dialogues at home as well. The aim is to use language for communication. Mother tongue is quite frequently used for translation of e.g. unknown lexical items or dialogues. Mistakes are corrected in a very sensitive way.

### **The Silent Way**

This method forces learners to rely heavily on each other and themselves. The teacher gives a very limited amount of input, modelling the language to be learnt once only, followed by indicating what the learners should do by non-verbal means. This way learners are guided to transfer what they already know to a new context. The teacher is not in the centre of learners' attention. Mistakes are considered as important to learning and learners are led to self/peer correction.

### **Total Physical Response**

TPR was developed by James Asher and its base is comprehensible input (see Krashen, 1982). The process of teaching and learning is focused on listening comprehension during early language acquisition. It tries to use the same

principle as when children acquire their mother tongue. Children are exposed to listening to people around long before they ever say a word. They often react in a non verbal way by carrying out what they are asked for. The same principle is applied in foreign language teaching.

The teacher issues commands and carry them out with learners. Later the learners respond to them together or individually. The teacher recombines elements of commands so they are often humorous. Learners are not forced to speak until they feel they are ready for oral production. Later the learners can issue commands for their peers.

The aim of the method is to develop understanding, relieve anxiety and make language learning motivating and enjoyable. The method is presented in mother tongue but later mother tongue is not used. The meaning of unknown language is presented directly by showing/miming. The teacher interacts with the whole class, later individually, learners can learn from each other by watching their peers.

Grammar structures (imperatives) and vocabulary are emphasized over other areas. Listening comprehension precedes speaking. Mistakes are tolerated, only the major ones are corrected.

## **2.3 The Communicative Approach (The Communicative Method)**

The Communicative approach was introduced in the 1970 and became widely spread and accepted as a norm. There exist several interpretations and classroom applications of the method and some of its principles have been reconsidered e.g. the use of mother tongue.

The aim of The Communicative Approach is to use language for communication and become communicatively competent. While this has been the aim of other methods, here it becomes much expanded. Communicative competence involves being able to use the target language appropriately to a given social situation and context.

*Other aspects of communicative competence (linguistic, pragmatic, strategic, discourse) have been described in Unit 1.*

As far as the teacher's roles, apart from other ones (see Unit 4), the teacher becomes a facilitator of the learner's learning. The teacher creates conditions for all learners to learn and succeed, motivates them, shows how to make use of different language learning strategies and leads them to autonomy. Learners are actively engaged in quasi authentic communicative activities such as role plays, discussions, debates, problem solving activities, communicative games etc. They communicate, negotiate

meaning, use guessing strategies, and interact with their peers or the teacher. Learners become more responsible for the results of their learning.

As far as the type of interaction, the teacher is the initiator of the activities, but apart from T-L(s) interaction there is a great deal of interaction between and among learners themselves. They frequently practice language in pairs, triads, groups and the whole class.

As far as language is concerned, grammar functions (reasons for using language) are emphasized. Though communication is the main aim, learners practice all four skills from the very beginning. They are often exposed to roughly tuned input e.g. authentic materials (texts).

Although the target language should be used in the classroom as much as possible, the mother tongue can occasionally play a positive role e.g. when presenting the meaning of unknown lexical items, contrasting grammar, checking understanding of instructions etc.

Culture presents the everyday life of people who use the target language, their values, norms etc.

Mistakes and errors are considered to be a natural part of learning and source of useful feedback for both learners and the teacher. Learners are led to self correction.

When learners are involved in communicative activities, errors that do not cause misunderstanding can be ignored.

In general, we can state that the teacher should examine own beliefs about what works successfully in the class. It is possible to combine the aspects of several methods and put them successfully into practice.

#### **Task 4**

*Make a list of the attributes of a communicative activity/task.*

### **2.4 Task based learning**

The main focus of Task based learning (TBL) is on the process of communicating by setting learners tasks to complete using English. Its aim is to engage learners in real communication with the real purpose for using the target language. During the process of solving the task, the learners acquire (subconsciously) English as they try to understand others and express themselves. The task can range from simple information gap tasks to complex problem-solving ones. In the process the learners can use the full range of skills and language they have at the same time (Lindsay – Knight, 2010).

TBL lesson may include:

**Pre- tasks** are activities which prepare learners to complete a task. Learners explore the topic with the teacher; recycle useful language, study task instructions or a similar task.

**Tasks** form the main part of the lesson and can involve number of steps (pair work, group work report to the whole class orally or in writing). The teacher is in the role of a monitor and should not interrupt learners or correct their mistakes.

**Post task** Learners may listen to reports of others doing a similar/same task and compare how they all did it. The teacher should react positively that can increase motivation. The teacher can focus of explicit study of language form and develop learners' accuracy of the language learners worked with. The language should be contextualised and not be presented or practised in isolation.

Task based learning, like a communicative methodology, has allowed teachers and learners to concentrate on how we achieve things with language, and how we can use language for certain tasks (Harmer, 2009, p.51)

Example of a task for TBL (Lindsay – Knight, p. 24)

### **Plan a journey by train**

*The class is divided into groups of five. Each learner in the group has information which the rest of the learners need e.g. train times, the route, the price of tickets, etc. By sharing this information the group can successfully plan the trip and in doing so consolidate and expend their language ability.*

## **2.5 Content and language integrated learning (CLIL)**

CLIL stands for Content and Language Integrated Learning<sup>1</sup>. It refers to teaching subjects such as science, history and geography to learners through a foreign language and learners' mother tongue both of which form an integrated whole. This can be done by the English teacher using cross-curricular content or the subject teacher using English as the language of instruction. Both ways result in the simultaneous learning of content and English. In this approach English is not the target of learning, but the tool to understand and learn parts of the school curriculum (maths, science, music, history, geography arts, PT etc.). Formal language teaching (English lessons) are also provided.

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<sup>1</sup> Content and language integrated learning CLIL is a term created in 1994 by David Marsh and Anne Maljers as a methodology similar to but distinct from language immersion and content-based instruction

In other words English is used as a vehicle rather than as a goal in itself. It provides opportunities for learners to use English now, rather than teach them how to use it later. It provides exposure to English without requiring extra time in the curriculum. In our situation it is accessible to more and more learners in Slovak basic school. The amount of exposure to English may vary from 5 percent up to 50 percent.

#### Advantages of CLIL:

- CLIL can increase learner's motivation and give them a feeling of real achievement.
- It provides reasons for learning and improving English, because the understanding of the subject content is compulsory.
- Learners have more opportunities to participate verbally by interacting with the teacher and peers.
- Learners are exposed to situations in which English is used for genuine communication.
- Learners are involved in meaningful and interesting learning tasks and activities.
- Learners are involved into their process of learning through the cognitive challenge as they have to cope with the demands of content of the subject (history, geography) and English.
- CLIL positively complements acquiring the target language.

- Through learning various school subjects in a foreign language, learners can develop the ability to start thinking in that foreign language.
- Non-verbal communication forms an integral part of any CLIL lesson

CLIL covers all areas of education including academic, artistic, technical and specialized subjects through the means of a foreign language, but also helps to develop intercultural communicative competences of learners.

### **Task 5**

*Think of possible topics to be taught in English at the primary level.*

### **? Review questions**

What is the difference between acquisition and learning?

What aspects of human learning does TPR stress?

How can learners benefit from CLIL lessons?

What are main principles of the communicative teaching?

How does TBL differ from the Communicative approach?



## Further reading

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# Unit 3 Motivation in Language

## Teaching and Learning



**In this unit you will learn**

- What motivation is
- What kinds of motivation we distinguish
- Ways of motivating different age groups

**Key words:** motivation, task, motivational differences, age groups, extrinsic/intrinsic motivation, teacher's personality, success

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### ***3.1 Definitions of motivation***

For as long as languages have been taught and learnt, teachers have tried to answer the question: How should I motivate my learners?

There exist many individual factors which directly or indirectly affect language learning such as self-esteem, motivation, anxiety, learning styles, learning strategies etc. All these aspects or their combinations can enhance or hinder the learner's achievements in learning a foreign language.

The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics defines motivation as follows:

*....it is considered to be one of the primary causes of success and failure in second language learning (2002, p.344).*

Motivation creates the drive in learners to acquire English, enjoy the learning process, and experience in real communication.

As motivation is an abstract term, it is easier to think in terms of the motivated learner. According to Ur (1996) motivated learners display certain typical characteristics such as:

### **Positive task orientation**

The learner is willing to work on tasks and has a confidence in success.

### **Need for achievement.**

The learner has a need to achieve, to overcome difficulties and succeed in what they set out to do.

### **High aspiration.**

The learner is ambitious.

**Goal orientation.**

The learner is aware of the goals of learning, knows what they want to achieve.

**Perseverance.**

The learner consistently invests a high level of effort in learning.

**Tolerance of ambiguity.**

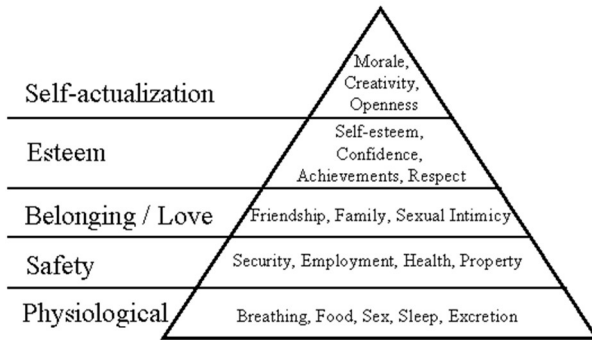
The learner is not frustrated by situations involving a temporary lack of success.

**Ego-involvement.** The learner finds it important to succeed in learning in order to maintain a positive self-image.

In the past it was emphasized that it is an important part of the teacher's job to motivate learners. Behaviourists considered the teacher's reward as the most important motivational stimuli for learners.

Cognitivists focused on learner's needs and identified them, e.g. the need for knowledge, activity, and exploration, the need to be approved and accepted by others.

One of the best known theories in this field is known as Maslow's hierarchy of needs.



Since the Communicative Approach has become the method frequently used in language teaching with the learner in the centre of the process, the teacher's role is seen mainly as facilitator who creates conditions for learning, provides suitable materials and guidance while the learner takes responsibility for their own motivation.

In our teaching situations (basic and secondary schools) the teacher cannot expect that schoolchildren will always find a way how to become motivated and activated learners. In other words, the learner-centred model cannot be implemented in every teaching situation. Perhaps we should accept that it is still the teacher's responsibility to motivate learners.

Harmer (2003) divides motivation into extrinsic (external) and intrinsic (internal).

The former derives from the influence of the “outside world” such as a peer/ group/parent influence, better job, position, status, rewards, study abroad, passing an important exam etc.

External motivation is subdivided into:

- Instrumental motivation – knowledge of English becomes an instrument for getting a job, reading and understanding technical manuals, studying abroad etc.
- Integrative motivation is connected with the desire to become a part of the English speaking community, to integrate into the English language culture community.

These kinds of motivation play an important role primarily in teaching adults.

### ***3.2 Aspects of motivation***

More or less intrinsic motivation is affected by teacher actions as many learners do not bring any extrinsic motivation into the classroom. When we consider intrinsic motivation, Harmer (2003) mentions the following aspects:

1. Learning environment: physical conditions, size and shape of the classroom, teaching aids, decorations, display of

learners works, seating arrangements, posters, charts, visuals

2. Method: ways the teachers presents and practice language, variety of approaches and tasks, humanistic approach
3. Teacher's personality: personal characteristics, qualities, beliefs, values, relationship to learners, colleagues, professional development
4. Success/failure: the teacher should set goals and tasks in which learners can succeed, learners who are successful in a task will be more willing to work on another, learners should be aware of their own success (teacher's verbal or non verbal positive reaction), the teacher has to consider the level of challenge right as too high or too low challenge tasks can be demotivating.

As opposed to Harmer's division, Brown (1987) distinguishes:

- global motivation – learners wish to invest effort in the learning (not only English) for its own sake. It is rooted in the previous attitudes, experience, education, values etc.
- situational motivation – context of learning, learning environment, atmosphere
- task motivation – the task is interesting, attractive and learners are encouraged to engage in it

### **3.3 Motivation of different age groups**

Motivational differences:

A motivated learner of English is the one who has positive feelings about learning in general and learning English in particular. Such a learner will succeed despite the aspects listed above (Harmer, 1993). Though in the learner-centred classroom the learner's success or failure is in their hands, it has already been mentioned that the teacher can influence the learner's positive feelings towards learning English.

What a teacher should consider are motivational factors for different age groups.

#### **Young learners (6-10)**

Very young learners (pre-school stage) and young learners (primary level) are more sensitive than rational and they are eager to learn. It is important to involve all senses in learning to help them internalize concrete or abstract concepts. They operate through holistic, hands-on experience and are interested in what the language does "here and now". They need to try it out and be involved in the language manipulation. This suggests that the experience should be meaningful and interesting since they usually lack self-motivation and cannot convince themselves that what they do will be important for their future (Straková, 2004).

In general, they are curious, active and like to be praised by the teacher. They often demand teacher's attention by trying to hold teacher's hand, carry teaching aids or shouting. Young learners usually respond to the meaning without being worried about the language as such and about making mistakes. They are risk-takers and demonstrate a low level of anxiety.

In the lesson they should be exposed to game-like activities and physical activities (Total Physical Response Method). It is advisable to divide the room into several sections (desks, a carpet where learners can sit, space for e.g. ball games, drama activities etc.) All activities they like doing in their spare time play an important role in acquiring English as well. In general they like drawing, singing, listening to stories, cutting pictures, playing games, learning by heart (nursery rhymes, poems, tongue twisters, riddles), working with pictures, real objects and drama activities. Young learners like writing/drawing on the blackboard or matching pictures/words/letters, numbers on the magnetic board. It is important to change activities as their concentration span is very short. Young learners are eager to participate in all classroom activities and need to be appreciated by the teacher as much as possible. The main teaching technique is repetition; however it must not be boring. It is of no use to explain theoretical grammar. They are not able to think about language in abstract terms. The teacher should give them a lot of chances to

work individually since they are not mature enough to participate in pairs and groups.

The teacher should create an English learning environment (posters, maps, pictures, charts, projects etc.). Young learners can also work with picture dictionaries. We should not forget information technology (computers, interactive blackboard, CD ROMs) that can be successfully used with this particular age group.

### **Learners at the higher level of primary education (10-15)**

What is successful in young learners' classroom is also valid for the first years of this age group. We can see, however an important change in the mental development of children. They are ready to work with easier abstract concepts and are able to understand simpler grammar principles /rules and use analytical thinking. This age – around 9/10- is considered by experts as the best age for starting with learning a foreign language. They are well equipped with their mother tongue; they can understand the basic principles of language functions and structures. They use logical memory and start to avoid pure memorisation. They can become very enthusiastic but lazy as well. They become more critical of teachers and want to express their opinion, what they like and dislike. They can work effectively with other learners in

class which means that pair/and group work can be used more often than with young learners.

Learners should be exposed to English as much as possible. The teacher should let them work out the meanings for themselves. It is useful to let them come up with their own conclusions e.g. simple explanation of how grammar works. Learning tasks and activities need a cognitive challenge. They do not need to have every word translated since they can understand the situation very quickly and their tolerance of ambiguity is still very high.

### **Learners at secondary school (15-19)**

Teenagers form a group of learners that is frequently classified as the most difficult group to teach. They are filled up by contradictory emotions, doubt, confusion, hesitation and uncertainty. They respond better to a sympathetic approach rather than a confrontational one.

The intellectual development is at the final stage and it is only lack of knowledge and experience that makes the mental capacities of teenagers different from those of adults. Though they like learning new things and get information they are very critical and try to demonstrate their personal point of view. Many of them lack the ability to be self-critical. The teacher cannot rely on their curiosity and natural eagerness to learn. They do not like memorizing and are rather critical to what the teacher wants them

to do. Language teaching should be put into an interesting context for the learners. Lessons can be based around their hobbies and interests such as pop culture, songs, movies, advertisements, sports and fashion. A carefully selected piece of literature and an interesting approach how to work with it can raise their motivation. The teacher should respond to their personal needs and interests. The differences in learning styles will make it visible which learners prefer analytical work – working on grammar, vocabulary and which ones would rather develop their language skills through role –plays or discussions (Straková, 2004).

Most teenagers like to argue, present their opinion and ideas so the teacher should organize discussions, debates or similar group/pair work activities e.g. based on controversial statements. It is vital for the teacher to get the level of challenge right. Tasks which are too easy or too difficult are demotivating and learners “switch off”. The teacher can use English during most of the lesson without switching into Slovak.

Working on projects on topics of their own is not only useful but also motivating and it bridges English learning and the real world. Teenagers should be involved in peer evaluation of projects. Perhaps they can learn a lot from each other.

Motivation of teenagers can be strongly affected by the use of computer technology. Learners can work with on-line dictionaries, search the internet resources, practice English and self assess their own progress on web pages, CD ROMs and other supplementary materials.

## **Adults**

Adult learners usually come to a language classroom extrinsically motivated. In general, it is possible to state that adults have a specific purpose for learning, in other words they know what they need English for (work, travel, better position, status etc.). As adults have strongly established learning styles/preferences (Mareš, 1998), the teacher has to cater for varying methods and teaching strategies. Learning tasks and classroom activities should reflect real life use of English.

Adult learners are very sensitive to the learning situation and the teacher should create a stress free environment in which adult learners can succeed. It is useful if the teacher spends some time on learning strategies and presents adults with the ways how to enhance their own learning.

Adult learners are able to handle abstract rules and concepts about a foreign language (e.g. system of tenses, articles, word order), so they sometimes prefer theoretical definitions to real communication in English. They are afraid of any failure and

making mistakes, which can block their willingness to speak and communicate in English. They feel more confident if they can use their knowledge and experiences from outside the classroom (Pokrivčáková, 2012).

A need analysis has to be carried out in designing ESP (English for Specific Purposes) course.

Although it is important for the teacher to know how to motivate different age groups, an important role in motivating learners is played by the teacher's personality and rapport established with learners.

**Task 1**

*Find out what the Critical Period Hypothesis is.*

**Task 2**

*Search the Internet and find interactive web pages for teaching young learners and teenagers.*

**Task 3**

*Find differences in coursebooks for young learners (10-15) and teenagers. What do they differ in?*

While it may be relatively easy to be extrinsically motivated, sustaining that motivation can be more problematic. Learners can become bored or find English learning more difficult than they thought it was going to be.

**? Review questions:**

How can you describe a motivated learner?

What is intrinsic motivation?

What is your motivation to study English or any other language?

How can the teacher sustain learner's motivation? Give some examples.

How can the teacher motivate.....?

- pre-school learners
- young learners
- teenagers
- adults



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# Unit 4      Teacher's and learner's role in the classroom



**In this unit you will learn:**

- What a role is
- Types of teacher's roles
- Relationship between teacher's role and learner's role
- Importance of roles in ELT teaching

**Key words:** roles, aim of the lesson, controller, manager, assessor, facilitator, model, monitor, participant, learning styles

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## ***4.1 Definitions of teacher's roles***

In the lesson learners learn and acquire language through working on various activities and tasks. This process requires the teacher and learners to be in different roles. The teacher has to organize activities, give feedback, correct mistakes, prompt and monitor learners, decide about the type of learners' work (pair/group work) etc. Each of these actions requires the teacher to behave differently, or in other words, be in a different role.

In general, the role can be defined as a grouping of factors which results in a certain type of social behaviour. Within a lesson the teacher's behaviour changes according to the nature of the activities (Wright 1987).

## **4.2 Teacher's roles**

According to Harmer (1993), the most important distinction is between the role of controller and facilitator. Generally speaking, the role of controller is connected with the traditional classroom.

On the one hand, the controller is in the centre of learners' attention, standing most often at the front, making all decisions about the teaching and learning process. In this role the teacher's talking time is very high, they control all learners' activities very tightly and address learners as a homogeneous group. Learners have to work at the same pace.

On the other hand, his role should not be considered as a negative one. The negative aspect of any role is when the teacher spends a lot of time in it disregarding the stage of the lesson, its aim and the type of the task learners are engaged in.

**The facilitator** considers individual needs and abilities of learners, creates conditions for all learners to succeed, motivates learners and creates conditions by catering for their specific learning styles (visual, auditory, kinaesthetic and tactile). The facilitative role leads learners to become autonomous and self directed individuals by getting them to know different learning strategies. It is apparent that the facilitator has to provide learners with options to choose from e.g. how to approach a task.

As there are other activities the teacher has to carry out during a lesson, we can list other roles the teacher can move in.

One of the most important roles is the one of **the assessor**. The teacher has to correct mistakes and give feedback. When correcting mistakes, it is important to consider the aim of the task (developing accuracy /developing fluency).

On the one hand, during the accurate reproduction stage when learners have to master the form correctly, the teacher corrects all mistakes.

On the other hand, during the production stage when learners work on fluency, the teacher can postpone correction, ignore mistakes if they do not cause misunderstanding or elicit self/peer correction.

Another type of assessment is giving feedback. In the form feedback the teacher focuses on the correctness of language (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation) and in the content feedback the teacher reacts to how learners have reached the objective of the task, considers learner's idea, opinions and creativity.

The role of **manager/organizer** can be described as the most important and difficult. Reaching the aim and objectives of the lesson and tasks is possible only through effective organization. In other words, learners should know exactly what they are

expected to do. For some activities learners have to be divided into pairs or groups. The teacher should tell learners what they are going to do, how to approach a task, give clear instructions and check their understanding. In some situations this can be done in the mother tongue, the choice depends on learners' language level. Instructions should be short and clear (finely tuned input) and it is advisable to prepare them beforehand by writing them in the lesson plans. Afterwards the teacher has to get the activity going, set time and stop it.

When learners work in groups, the teacher can become **the participant** and is an equal member of the group. In this role it is necessary to lower the teacher's dominance and control.

While learners are involved in the activity, the teacher can be in the role of **the monitor**, walking round and listening to learners how well they perform the task. It is useful to make mental or written notes that can be used in giving feedback or serve as basis for remedial work.

The teacher in the role of **prompter** encourages learners to participate, make suggestions how to approach the task and helps when it is necessary (e.g. when learners get stuck).

The teacher in the role of **resource** is the source of all information that language learners need for a successful completion of a task. Learners can consult the teacher when it is necessary.

Harmer (2007) also mentions the role of **tutor**. This is the role when learners are involved in a self-study process or when they are working on a project.

The roles we have mentioned have neither a positive or negative connotation. What is important is the facility with which the teacher moves in and out of various roles and enables learners to do likewise. This flexibility depends on the teacher's understanding of the aim of the lesson, stage of the lesson and objectives of tasks and activities. Interpersonal factors, relationships with learners and teacher's personal traits may influence the choice of a role.

### **4.3 Learners' roles**

Learner's roles depend very strongly on the teacher's roles. The learner in the role of:

- **Acceptor** is more passive, listens and accepts what the teacher says, depends on the teacher and mostly stimulates memory.
- **Performer** reacts to the teacher's instructions, tries to understand what s/he is expected to do, gets ready for the task
- **Resolver** works on his/her own with the teacher's help, participates in pair/group work activities and tries to reach the objective of the task
- **Discoverer** is more active, develops all skills, self-corrects, deduces, searches for information, process information and becomes less dependent on the teacher

In the traditional classroom the teachers spent most time in the role of the controller, corrector and presenter. The teacher was dominant and the teaching process was teacher-centred.

On the contrary, with communicative teaching it is the learner who moves to the centre of the educational process. It was due to new coursebooks and other teaching materials that were based on the communicative approach, new pedagogical documents (the national syllabus), native speakers as teachers in our schools,

language learning portfolio and new concept of the school leaving exam.

### **Task 1**

*Read the article and list the arguments for the role of controller.*

## **TEACHER IN THE ROLE OF CONTROLLER IN AN EFL CLASS**

In the period of communicative teaching the role of the controller and the word “control” itself gained a negative implication and has been associated with old fashioned language teaching. Many teachers tried to reduce the control over the classroom activities hoping that learners will make use of it. Obviously, a lack of control on the part of the teacher increases the amount of freedom on the part of the learner, or in other words the teacher – controller moves out of this role with ease and he/she moves into the role of monitor, facilitator or observer.

On the one hand, there are teachers who move in and out of roles without any problems, considering the aims, objectives and stages of the lesson. On the other hand, many teachers do it regardless of the aim of the lesson,

the objectives of the learning task, or the stages of the lesson etc.

The role of controller and the notion “control” itself should not be considered as something that stands opposite to the principles of communicative teaching and learning. Gover (1995, p. 209) defines controlled practice to be the one “...in which the teacher guides or limits the student’s use of language – such as by providing questions to be answered, sentences to be completed, or words or pictures to follow”. Proper executing of the role of controller can guarantee the quality of the teaching and learning process. On the one hand, proper control can be understood as examples of teaching when learners gain the freedom to practice and learn the language as they increase their knowledge. On the other hand, proper control involves restrictions, but it does so only when undesirable behaviour appears.

An example: When a child learns how to ride a bike, parents choose a safe place and check that there are no holes, dangerous curves, stones etc. Then they show the child how to sit on the bike, how to hold the handles, and how to use the brakes and the bell. They warn him/her about constantly wearing a helmet, and they provide a bike with side wheels. Later they let the child have the first ride “under the control of their helping hands”. During this learning period the child (learner) is completely in the centre of their attention – under their control. No responsible parent would skip over the stages mentioned. It is obvious that these steps are inevitable to “bring up a skilful and careful bike rider.” Parents – teachers in the role of controller stand very close to the child - learner at the beginning of any teaching-learning process.

Only after some time (in some cases a very long time) a child can safely ride where s/he wants and the parents observe, help, guide, monitor and facilitate when necessary.

Does learning how to ride a bike remind you of learning a language?

In my opinion it does because, first of all, mastering a language means mastering a set of language skills which have to be practiced as much as possible in guided, semi-guided and free situations.

If we fully realize the fact that there does not exist any conflict between control and communication, we have to admit no apparent conflict between the role of controller and other roles.

Harmer (1993, p.236) points out that “it is vital that control should be relaxed if students are to be allowed a chance to learn (rather than be taught)”. To create such situations and settings, to ensure the voluntary participation of learners in communicative tasks, requires a teacher being in the role of a controller who should perceive classroom events, diagnose meaning accurately and react appropriately. If the teacher ignores the role of controller at every stage of a communicative task, the time saved by his/her silence can easily be wasted by learners. Certain stages of a lesson lend themselves to the role of controller very well e.g. the presentation stage. O’Neill (1991) states that a properly controlled lesson can be very

communicative and the Communicative Method can fail in an uncontrolled or badly controlled lesson. Control and communication are certainly not mutually exclusive.

The importance of the role of controller is obvious and a teacher should not totally ignore this role even though at first sight it seems to be old-fashioned. To support this I want to stress that teaching itself is a controlled activity. It is controlled in such a way as to avoid randomness, irrationality, the wasting of time. Are course plans and lesson plans not good examples of our control? Control is necessary because each lesson is an organized unit and the lack of it may cause a broken link in the course. Some learners can even be confused by the amount of freedom they receive in an English lesson as they might not be used to it in other subjects.

Teaching is moreover a controlling activity. The teacher exercises control over the classroom environment with the aim of promoting the learner's learning. Lack or loss of control can easily lead to learners' confusion and demotivation.

In the teaching and learning process we can trace several functions which the teacher in the role of controller has to carry out.

The orienting function is very closely related to setting overall and specific goals, designing lesson plans and specifying the objectives of classroom activities and tasks.

The organizing function partly falls under the role of the manager as the teacher has to develop the way to involve all the learners in the learning process. The teacher should have a clear idea about what the learners should do, and when and how they should do it (e.g. pair, group or individual work).

The directing and regulating function is also closely related to the role of manager as it comprises giving and executing orders and instructions, stimulating the learners, and getting feedback from them. The teacher has to be very flexible as many situations in a lesson require quick judgment and proper treatment.

The above mentioned functions of the role of controller are the evidence that there does not exist a clear distinction between roles; the roles often overlap and are equally important and necessary for an effective teaching process. (Homolová, E. 2008, published in *Lingua Viva*, adapted)

## ? Review questions

Make a list of teacher's roles you know.

What does the teacher in the role of facilitator do?

What does the role the teacher adopts depend on?

Make a list of learner's roles.



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## Unit 5 Classroom management



In this unit you will learn:

- About the importance of teacher talking time and student talking time
- How to give effective instructions
- How to use Slovak in teaching English

**Key words:** teacher talking time, student talking time, mother tongue, instructions, voice, gesture, mime, interaction, pairwork, groupwork

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### ***5.1 Teacher talking time and student talking time (TTT/STT)***

One of the roles the teacher has to adopt in every lesson is the one of the manager. It means that apart from presenting and practicing language and skills the teacher has to instruct learners about the aim of the task and how they should approach it to reach the aim. In other words, we can state that the teacher uses his/her teacher talking time for:

- Teaching itself (presenting, explaining, clarifying, correcting and modelling the new language)
- Giving instructions and checking them
- Giving feedback to learners

- Informal chatting with learners e.g. at the beginning of the lesson
- Providing language input for practicing listening comprehension (telling/reading a story, jokes, poems etc.)

In general, we can state that teacher talk is a valuable source of language input and learners can acquire useful language items.

Gower (1995, p.33) lists other advantages of teacher talk as follows:

- A. Teachers provides authentic listening texts for learners, they practice listening skill.
- B. The target language is used in authentic situations and the learner unintentionally picks new expressions
- C. Teacher talk is highly important for managing learners during the lesson

If the amount of teacher talk is very high it can have a negative influence on the effectiveness of the teaching–learning process. Undoubtedly if the teacher speaks too much, learners are not given the maximum opportunity to practice speaking. So it is important to have the balance between teacher and student talk which depends on:

- The aim of the lesson (presenting new language, practicing skills, testing etc.)

- Stage of the lesson (presentation, practice, production)
- Aim of the learning task
- Language level of learners. English used for explanation or instructions might be difficult for learners to understand (roughly tuned input).
- Teacher's perception of how learners learn

Some teachers are not patient enough and “talk” for learners (usually weaker and slower ones). This way they are deprived of opportunities to participate in the lesson which can have a demotivating effect on learners.

## ***5.2 Using Slovak and English in the lesson***

Attitudes towards using the mother tongue in teaching foreign languages have changed a great deal since the 19th century when the Grammar-Translation Method dominated. Later, supporters of several methods strictly excluded the mother tongue from lessons (see Unit 2).

The Communicative Method suggests using the target language as much as possible but there are situations in which the mother tongue can provide a valuable support and security for less confident learners. Instructions and explanation in English can be difficult e.g. in a situation when English lessons follow other foreign language lessons.

On the one hand, in some cases the use of Slovak can save valuable time (e.g. explaining the meaning of a single word not in the focus of the lesson). For some learners learning English can be a frustrating and stressful process and Slovak can serve as “a life belt“.

On the other hand, using English as much as possible helps learners in acquiring English, practicing listening comprehension and they can see English as a real language which is used for communication.

Obviously, there are occasions for the use of Slovak in the English lesson:

- Giving and checking instructions
- Explanation of grammar rules
- Presenting the meaning of some lexical items (e.g. abstract nouns)
- Eliciting English vocabulary
- Translation activities (translation as a means of practising and consolidating English)

The amount of Slovak in the lesson depends on:

- Learners' language competence (beginners, intermediate, advanced)
- Stages of the lesson (presentation, practice, production)
- Stages of the course
- Learners' previous experience

### **Task 1**

*Explain the difference between monolingual and multilingual classes. Where do you see a challenge to teach a multilingual class?*

### **Task 2**

*Think of five words the meaning of which you would probably present by translating them into Slovak in teaching beginners.*

## **5.3 Giving and checking instructions**

Giving instructions is a basic skill the teacher has to master and effective instructions are a spring board to reaching aims and objectives of the course/lesson. As we have mentioned above, the teacher spends a substantial part of the lesson by giving instructions. The teaching process has to be organized otherwise learners would not know what they are supposed to do and consequently no learning would take place. In other words,

learners have to be explained what and how they should do to fulfil the task. Several authors (Gower 1996, Ur 1995) stress the importance of preparing instructions beforehand and write them into the lesson plans. Undoubtedly, this is very useful mainly for novice teachers.

According to Ur (1995), the teacher should follow the guidelines for effective instructions:

- Attract learners' attention
- Use simple language (finely tuned input)
- Present consistent and brief instructions
- Support instructions with visual clues and demonstrate them if possible
- Present instructions more than once
- Break them down – do not use long sentences
- Check understanding (it is possible to ask learners to explain in Slovak what they are expected to do)

Misunderstanding of the teacher's instructions can be caused by:

1. Instructions are too long and learners cannot follow them at one go;
2. Language used in instructions is above learners' level;
3. The teacher distributes additional materials and learners do not pay attention to the verbal explanation;
4. Although teachers often repeat instructions several times, it happens that the second version is more difficult than the previous one.

### **Task 3**

*Reorder the words given to make correct sentences.*

- **Make sure** \_\_\_\_\_  
you/before/is/everybody/silent/begin
- **Stand** \_\_\_\_\_ you \_\_\_\_\_  
see/can/everybody/where
- **Give** \_\_\_\_\_  
voice/a/instructions/in/firm/clear/

- **Use** \_\_\_\_\_  
at/language/for/learners/level/right/the
- **If necessary**, give instructions in stages and \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_ as you go along.  
that/can/each/make sure/ learners/stage/follow
- **Support instructions** \_\_\_\_\_ possible.  
gestures/with/or/pictures/wherever
- **Keep** \_\_\_\_\_ while  
giving instructions.  
the /eye/ with/whole/contact/class
- **If the task is difficult or new**, ask \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_ the class what they must do.  
The/show/some/to/learners/rest
- **If the learners have not understood the instructions**  
\_\_\_\_\_  
the/time/present/first/them/differently
- **Check that** \_\_\_\_\_ they start.  
instructions/the/understands/the/class/before

- **Make** \_\_\_\_\_

clear/it/start/when/learners/can

Adapted from: *Ukázky z hodin angličtiny*, 1993

## **5.4 Eye contact, gestures, mime, voice**

In real communicative situations it is natural to look at your partner, use gestures, mime and modify your voice to convey the meaning more precisely.

Accordingly, by this means the teacher can make management of the class more effective and make classroom communication similar to real life.

According to Gower (1996), the teacher can make use of the eye contact:

- To ensure that learners understand e.g. instructions, the meaning of vocabulary etc.;
- To indicate who is to speak (instead of nominating learners by their names);
- To show interest in what learners are talking about;
- To signal to learners to start, stop and continue;
- To hold learners' attention and maintain discipline;
- To check learners' participation and pace.

The degree of eye contact depends on the aim, stage and type of the lesson and activity. In teacher controlled lessons or activity, the teacher should keep eye contact as much as possible. On the contrary, when learners are engaged in pair/group or individual work, the teacher should avoid eye contact with them.

Gestures, facial expressions and mime are an important part of any face-to-face communication. Together with the inflection of a human voice, they make communication more precise and vivid. In general, non-verbal communication plays an important role in everyday communication.

In the classroom, gestures and mime can be used:

- To present the meaning of language (vocabulary, grammar);
- To organize the class;
- To reinforce instructions – gestures accompany the verbal explanation;
- To reduce the teacher talking time;
- To add visual interest;
- To increase student talking time;
- To make teacher's presentation memorable.

The teachers should build up their own repertoire of gesture and mime expressions, get learners used to them and be consistent in using them (use the same gesture for the same meaning or instruction). At the beginning, it is useful if the teacher exaggerates the gestures in order that learners will become familiar with them.

It is said that voice is a work tool of teachers. The volume and quality of your voice depend on the size of the class, the activity in which learners are involved (e.g. pair/group work, individual work) and the stage of the lesson.

**Task 4**

*Think of five words the meaning of which you can present by a gesture / mime. Let your partner guess the meaning.*

**Task 5**

*Prepare five gestures that you can use in the class to manage learners or organize an activity.*

**Task 6**

*Prepare an activity for young learners that would be entirely based on mime /gestures/facial expression.*

## Classroom interaction

There exist several learners' groupings in the language classroom that influence the amount of TTT and STT and models of classroom interaction:

1. The whole class mixing together as individuals - *melée*

*It is suitable for some game-like activities, questionnaires e.g. Find someone who....)*

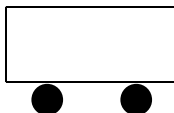
2. The whole class working together with the teacher – lockstep mode (frontal teaching, whole-class teaching).

*In this grouping, learners work at the same pace with the teacher in the centre of learners' attention and in control of what's going on in the class. It is useful for controlled practice, presenting new language, dictations, storytelling etc.*

3. Pairs

Pairwork enables learners more language practice, reduces TTT, learners are less dependent on the teacher. They cooperate and learn from each other. It is suitable for shy learners who do not feel comfortably to speak to the whole group.

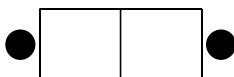
- Cooperative pairwork – learners work with the same materials and cooperate to reach the objective of the task.



### **Example of a task for cooperative pairwork.**

*You are planning a hiking trip to the Alps in May. Discuss and decide with your partner which 5 items below would be absolutely necessary to take with you and the reasons why: a mobile phone, matches, after sun lotion, a camera, insect repellent, gloves, a map, a hat, hand cream, a torch lamp, MP3, a rope.*

- Divided pairwork – learners have different materials and have to communicate to reach the objective (slightly different pictures, gapped text etc.)





## **Example of a task for divided pairwork.**

### *Picture dictation*

*Learner A has got a picture. S/he has to dictate what is in the picture to learner B.*

*Learner B has to draw a picture according to learner A instructions. S/he can ask additional questions.*

This grouping is also suitable for role plays, simulations, problem solving, giving/following instructions, project work, picture stories, creative writing etc.

#### 4. Small groups (3-6 learners)

Advantages of group work are similar to those of pair work. As it resembles a real life situation apart from language development, learners learn how to present their own opinions, how to take turns, express agreement/disagreement with other people, negotiate, use gestures etc. This mode develops the whole personality.

Suitable activities are discussions, debates, simulations, drama activities, collaborative writing, project work, working with visuals etc.

#### 5. Individual work

On the one hand, this mode can be understood in a way that learners work silently and individually on the task e.g. silent reading, writing an essay, writing a test. They are not disturbed either by peers or the teacher.

On the other hand, this mode enables the teacher to consider individual needs of the learner and prepare an individualised activity that would make learning more personal e.g. writing a diary, letters to the teacher, individual projects, personal responses to stories, poems, songs, self-testing and self-evaluation, work with suitable web pages etc.

In using pair/group work the teacher can come across some problems (Doff, 1992):

- Learners are very noisy

This cannot be helped as all learners speak at the same time. It means that they communicate and practice language. They are not usually disturbed by it and even are not aware of it. The teacher may “warn” colleagues in the next rooms about the possible noise.

- Learners switch into their mother tongue

The reason for chatting in Slovak may be the task which is below or above their language level or task which is not

interesting and motivating (e.g. it is too childish). It is advisable to monitor and rather stop the activity to find out where the problem is.

- *Learners make mistakes*

In pairwork and groupwork it is not possible to control all learners and correct them at the same time. Mistakes can be eliminated by:

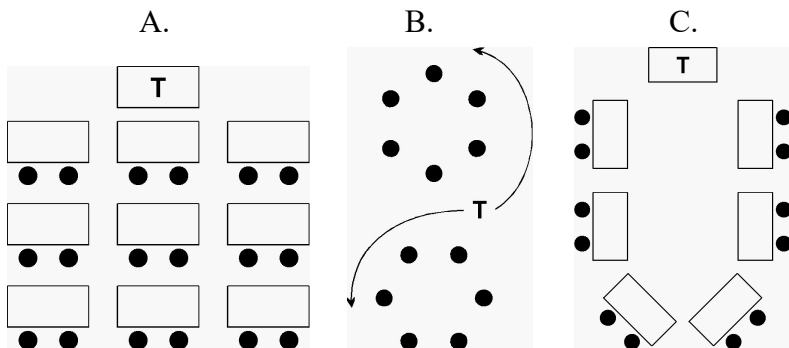
- Enough preparation (controlled practice)
- Clear instructions, checking understanding and examples
- Leaving a visual support on the blackboard (vocabulary, structures, phrases)
- Checking afterwards (learners present what they have worked on and the teacher can turn their attention to the most common mistakes)

The teacher should vary the grouping according to the aim of lesson (accuracy/fluency) and tasks that learners work on. It is the way how to enable a variety of experiences for all learners. Obviously, it is important to stress that different groupings require different seating arrangements (group work – sitting in the circle, pair work – learners usually face each other etc.)

## Task 7

Consider advantages and disadvantages of the various seating arrangements:

- *the relationship between the teacher and learners*
- *suitable activities*
- *teacher's control over learners*
- *suitability for pair/group work*



## ? Review questions

What are the guidelines for effective instructions?

What suitable activities for pair and group work do you know?

How can the teacher check learners' understanding of instructions?

What are advantages/disadvantages of teacher talking time?

How can gestures and mime be used in the lesson?



## Further reading

HARMER, J. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Harlow : Longman, 1993, ISBN 0582091330

GOWER, R. et al. *Teaching Practice Handbook*. Heinemann, 1995, ISBN 0 435 24059 5

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## Unit 6 Lesson and its components



**In this unit you will learn:**

- Stages of the lesson
- Types of tasks used in different stages
- Warm-up activities

**Key words:** lesson, stage, drill, communicative task, warm-up activities, transition, presentation, practice, production

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### **6.1 Definitions of lesson**

A lesson is considered to be a basic unit of teaching any school subject. According to Harmer (2009) a good lesson needs to contain a blend of coherence and variety.

Coherence means that learners can trace a logical pattern of the lesson, that there are some connections between activities on the one hand.

On the other hand, the learners can understand the reason for changing the direction of a part of the lesson.

Variety means that the teacher would not e.g. spend 45 minutes drilling a single language item. Learners should be exposed to different activities (oral, written, games, physical activities) and different interaction patterns with an integral coherence. It is very important in teaching especially young learners with a short

concentration span where frequent changes of activities are inevitable.

## **6.2 Stages of the lesson**

From a traditional point of view a typical lesson can be divided into three stages:

- **Presentation**

The teacher is in the centre of learners' attention, in the role of a presenter introducing new language (vocabulary, grammar). The teacher has to present the form, meaning, use of new language items in a meaningful context (situation) in oral and/or written form and illustrate them by clear examples. Presentation is followed by pattern practice (controlled drills), or short dialogues in which the target language is used. The teacher is also in the role of model (models language for pronunciation practice) and assessor (corrects learners' mistakes). Learners usually work in lockstep.

At this stage, several types of drills are used: command drill, repetition drill, fill-in-the blank drill, chain drill, substitution drill, transformation drill, and question/answer drill.

- **Practice**

Learners move from tightly controlled practice to guided practice e.g. guided dialogues in which they use and manipulate the target language item in a limited meaningful (communicative) context.

✧ **An example of a mechanical drill (adapted from Doff, 1992):**

You are a stranger. Ask about places in the town:

a café            *Is there a café near here?*

a bank            *Is there a bank near here?*

a market        *Is there a market near here?*

✧ **An example of a meaningful drill (adapted from Doff, 1992):**

You are a stranger. Ask about places in the town:

You want to have a cup of coffee and check your e-mails:

- *Is there an internet café near here?*

You have to change some money:

- *Excuse me, is there a bank near here?*

You want to buy fresh fruit.

- *Is there a market near here?*

It is possible to change meaningless drill into a meaningful exercise by:

1. Giving situations in which learners have to use the language point (see the examples above)
2. Getting learners to say real facts about themselves
3. Letting them add something of their own

By being involved in various types of drills, matching exercises, simple grammar or vocabulary games, asking and answering questions, they get familiar with the particular language item. As the focus is primarily on the form, the teacher has to insist on correctness. Learners can work in pairs or small groups.

**Example of controlled communicative activity: Find someone**



**who...**

The learners have 3-5 minutes to walk around the classroom and find at least 2 persons in the group who:

<b>Find someone who...</b>	name	name
...prefers skiing to snowboarding		
...goes swimming every weekend.		
...listens to Fun radio station every evening.		
... watches Superstar every Sunday evening.		

On the one hand, the following activity is tightly controlled by the material (learners can ask questions suggested in the handout so it

is the teacher who decides about language point to practice – here forming questions in the Present Tense).

On the other hand, the task is communicative as it contains “the information gap” – learners do not know answers beforehand and have to communicate to reach the objective and find out the answers.

- **Production**

At this stage, learners practice fluency by using the target language item in communicative activities (quasi communicative tasks) such as a role play, discussion, solving a problem, debate, giving and following instructions or various communicative games. Learners also make use of other previously learnt language and skills. The teacher is in the role of a manager and monitor. Interaction between/among learners is encouraged and the seating arrangement should support “real life situations”. The topics for discussions, debate, role plays should be carefully chosen to allow learners’ affective and personal involvement.

At the early stages of language learning (A1), more time is spent on introducing new language and controlled (guided) practice than on communicative activities.

Harmer (1993) states the differences between free and controlled activities as follows:

**Non-communicative activities:**

**Communicative activities:**

No communicative desire

A desire to communicate (information/opinion gap)

No communicative purpose

A communicative purpose

Focus on form not content

Focus on content not form

One (limited) language item(s)

Variety (choice) of language

Teacher intervention

No teacher intervention

Materials (teacher) control

No material (teacher) control

Obviously, not all lessons we teach should share the Presentation – Practice- Production structure. It may happen that the whole lesson will be devoted either to presentation or practice. It is useful to have consolidation/revision lessons with no new language being introduced. One of the negative aspects of PPP structure is that the last stage – free communication is often not achieved.

There are also other models of a lesson e.g. the ESA model (Harmer, 2009) that consists of three elements:

**Engage** – learners should be emotionally engaged with what’s going on, involved and curious

**Study** – learners study examples, work out the rules, think about the language construction etc.

**Activate** – learners use language as freely as they can. They can use all and any appropriate language for a given situation. Personalisation provides a bridge between the study and activate stage.

(See Harmer 2009, pp.52-54)

### **6.3 Organisation of the lesson**

From the organisational point of view the lesson can be divided into:

- **Beginning of the lesson:**
  - Welcoming, greeting
  - Checking attendance
  - Organisation of seating arrangement
  - Checking/collecting homework
  - Running warm up activities
  - Explaining the aim of the lesson

#### **Task 1**

*What could you say in English at the beginning of the lesson (welcoming, checking attendance etc. see above)?*

- **Warm up activities**

Warm up activities are short activities (they usually last up to 5 minutes) at the beginning of the lesson. They are used for the following reasons:

1. To practice language
2. To revise and consolidate language
3. To calm/cheer up learners
4. To prepare them for the English lesson
5. To prepare the topic of the lesson
6. To motivate learners
7. To begin a lesson with a smile
8. To tune learners for English



(For examples see: Ur. P. - Wright A. Five- minute activities. CUP, 1993)

### **Task 2**

*Prepare two warm up activities, one for practicing vocabulary and one for practicing a grammar structure.*

- **Main part of the lesson:**

The focus is on the aim of the lesson e.g. presentation and the following practicing of the language or practicing a

specific skill. The form and the content of the activities depend on the concrete aim of the lesson. It is important to vary the activities (content, topic, difficulty), consider different patterns of learners' interaction (pair work, group work, lock step, and individual work) and material or technology to be used in the lesson.

In the main part of the lesson there should be a good proportion of oral and written activities, slow and fast moving activities and tense/relaxed activities e.g. games, competitions, physical activities.

- **Lesson ending**

The teacher should end up the lesson by a short summary what has happened, what learners should have achieved and a short announcement of what will take place in the next lesson. It is also the time for praising learners, set and explain homework. Ideally, learners should leave the classroom with positive feelings.

**Task 3**

*How can you end the lesson? Prepare 3-4 sentences for the end of the lesson.*

Though lessons have their given structure, the teacher should be able to vary them as boring lessons (the same all the time) have negative impact on learners' motivation and willingness to learn. It is also important to think about transitions between activities in order that it is clear for learners that one activity has ended and the following (a different one) begins.

## ? Revision questions

What stages of the lesson do you know?

What kinds of tasks (activities) can be used in each stage?

What are the reasons to begin a lesson with a warm-up activity?



## Further reading

HARMER, J. *How to Teach English*. Harlow : Longman, 2009, ISDBN 978 1 4058 4774 2

GOWER, R. et all. *Teaching Practice Handbook*. Heinemann, 1995, ISBN 0 435 24059 5

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
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# Unit 7 Mistake management

 In this unit you will learn

- What an error, mistake and slip is
- Why learners make mistakes
- How the teacher can react to learner's mistakes in oral /written language production

 **Key words:** mistake, error, slip, speaking, writing, comprehensibility, motivation

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## ***7.1 Definition of mistake, error and slip***

There has always been a continuing debate about the approaches to learners' mistakes in a foreign language production. Some teachers strictly correct every mistake, others are more benevolent and "let learners make mistakes."

In teaching English it is quite common to distinguish between *mistakes, errors and slips*.

Learners make **errors** when they experiment with a language and lack knowledge they need for expressing themselves.

If learners make **mistakes**, they are able to correct themselves. They either realize a mistake or immediately correct it, or the correction follows after the teacher's guidance/prompt. In other words, the correct form is usually known to the learner (Gower

1995). Nevertheless, we often make mistakes in our mother tongue either.

The term **slip** is used when the learner produces wrong language due to stress, lack of concentration or tiredness.

In the past, errors and mistakes were considered as a negative phenomenon and therefore there was a strong tendency to correct every mistake (see Unit 2). With the Communicative Method the approach to the wrong language has changed and nowadays learner's mistakes are not understood as a failure but as an evidence of learning. Whatever people learn, they learn it by making mistakes (mother tongue, driving a car, cooking etc.). Naturally, mistakes become an unavoidable part of any human endeavour.

Due to trends in humanistic pedagogy and psychology, mistakes are seen as positive progress in language learning. It is a generally accepted idea that language can be mastered through using it and in this process learners inevitably make mistakes. As Bowen points out, mistakes are visible evidence of the invisible process of learning (Bowen-Marks, 1994).

## **7.2 Causes of mistakes**

The most common causes of mistakes in learner's language production (both oral and written) are:

- Focus on the content not form
- Experimenting with a language (trying to say/write something that has not been taught)
- Mother tongue interference (e.g. double negative *I did not go nowhere*)
- Overgeneralization of a rule to cases where it does not apply (*informations, advices, sheeps* – incorrectly used in plural)
- Inadequate teaching approach (an insufficient presentation and practice)

It is very useful when the teacher is familiar with those problematic aspects of English that are typical for the Slovak learner. Anticipation of problems can serve as a spring board to sufficient controlled, guided and free practice. Here mistakes become a useful feedback for the teacher.

### **Task 1**

*Prepare gestures the teacher can use to indicate a type of a mistake.*

## **7.3 Teacher's reaction to mistakes in oral English**

In the past, it was always the teacher who was supposed to correct all learner's mistakes. As one of the principles of communicative

teaching is to put the learner in the centre of the teaching process (the learner-centred approach), it is important to re-consider our approach to correction. In other words, it is the learner who should be more involved in and responsible for correction.

According to Gower (1995), if the teacher wants to elicit self or peer-correction, the following stages are necessary:

1. The learner should know that something is wrong/incorrect.

The teacher can indicate a mistake verbally (e.g. by saying ....*wrong*, ...*nearly*,... *no*...) or non-verbally (*by using eye-contact, gesture*,...)

2. The learner needs to know where the mistake occurs.

The part of the utterance which is wrong should be isolated. The teacher can repeat the correct part of the utterance and stop right before the mistake.

Example:

**S:** *Last night my brother readed Harry Potter.*

**T:** *Last night my brother... (pause)*

3. The learner should know what kind of an error it is.

The teacher can indicate the type of mistake by a gesture.

Teachers usually have their own repertoire of gestures they use to indicate the same mistake.

By eliciting self/peer correction the learner's involvement can be increased and dependence on the teacher reduced.

In the communicative classroom some mistakes can be ignored and not corrected. The criteria that can help the teacher in deciding whether correct or not are:

- Aim of the lesson (Is the aim developing accuracy or fluency?)
- Aim of the task (Is it a controlled activity or communicative activity?)
- Comprehensibility (Does the mistake cause misunderstanding?)

On the one hand, in the accuracy stage the focus is on correctness and all mistakes should be corrected e.g. when the learner has to master the form (3rd person singular). Accuracy can be build up by involving learners in controlled activities.

## ✧ **Examples of controlled activities (drills):**

- Command drill;
- Repetition drill;
- Fill in the blank drill;
- Question-answer drill;
- Chain drill;
- Substitution drill;
- Transformation drill.

On the other hand, in the fluency stage, when learners practice communication in communicative situations, the focus is on the content (what the learner is saying) rather than the form (how to say it). In this case, the teacher can ignore mistakes that do not cause misunderstanding. It is advisable to organize a delayed feedback based on the notes taken during monitoring learners and turn learners' attention to the most common mistakes they make.

## **Examples of communicative activities:**



- Role play;
- Discussion;
- Debate;
- Simulation;
- Giving and following instructions;
- Reaching a consensus;
- Solving a problem.

## **Task 2**

*In English coursebooks find two examples of a role play and two examples of a substitution drill.*

### **7.4 Teacher's reaction to mistakes in written English**

There are some common areas concerning mistake management in managing mistakes in spoken and written English but there are also some differences as speaking and writing differs.

Characteristic features of writing are:

- The reader is often not known to the writer
- Writing is permanent and can be reread
- The text should be coherent and organized
- No immediate feedback is possible
- Writing has to be fully explicit; there is no interaction with the reader

The teacher should distinguish between:

1. writing as a means for practising English (written exercises for practising grammar, vocabulary);
2. writing as a communicative skill (letters, messages, notes, essays, applications, etc.).

On the one hand, when learners practice a form of language, the correction is appropriate, and all mistakes should be corrected either by the teacher or the learner, learners, key, computer programme, etc.

On the other hand, when the aim of the lesson is practicing free writing as a means of communication, it is advisable to encourage the improvement also by reacting to the content.

The learner should be involved in the correction process as much as possible. Instead of correcting all mistakes in “a red pen” the teacher can code mistakes (*T- wrong tense, WO-word order, SP – spelling, etc.*) and let learners correct them. Another possibility is to underline mistakes or write the number of mistakes in a line or below the text for the learner to identify and correct them.

Apart from self-correction, learners can be involved in correcting and commenting on each other’s work (peer correction). Now, when so much writing is produced with electronic media, the teachers should not stress spelling mistakes in free written work. Over-correction can have a very demotivating effect on the learner. To avoid it, the teacher can use “restrictive correction” and correct only one aspect of language e.g. verbs in the past tense, use of prepositions, phrasal verbs etc.

As Harmer (2009) points out, correction is just one response that teachers can make to learners language production. It is just as

important – perhaps more so - to praise learners for their success, as it is to correct them as they struggle towards accuracy.

## ? **Revision questions**

What is the difference between an error, mistake and slip?

How can the teacher elicit self correction?

What are criteria for judging mistakes?

How can the learner be involved in correcting own written work?



## **Further reading**

BARTRAM, M- WALTON, R. *Correction*. Hove :LTP, 1991, ISBN 0 9067 17 91 4

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# Unit 8    The role of questions in teaching and learning English



**In this unit you will learn:**

- Types of questions
- Functions of questions
- Ways of eliciting learner's longer answers
- Questioning strategies

**Key words:** question, real/display questions, concept, guiding, communication, distribution, elicitation

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## ***8.1 Definition of question***

A question is a sentence or phrase that asks for information, facts or opinions and is considered to be an inseparable part of any communication. In other words, it is impossible to communicate in real life without questions. Participants in any real communication fill the information or opinion gap by asking and answering questions.

In the language classroom, questioning is a universally used technique as the objective of teacher's questions is to elicit an oral response from the learners. Questions form the basis of the teacher-learner interaction in the class and the substantial part of teacher talking time is spent on questions.

Reasons for asking questions in the language classroom (Ur 1996, Doff 1992):

- To check or test understanding

After presenting new lexical items or grammar structures, the teacher can check that learner understands by using the language item in the question: e.g. *sharp/blunt*

*Can you write with a blunt pencil?*

*Could you cut vegetable with a sharp knife?*

- To motivate, stimulate and activate learners in thinking and using English
- To give learners practice in the language production e.g. *What kinds of movies do you prefer and why?*
- To find out what learners think or know e.g. *What are the most common problems between your parents and you?*
- To focus learners' attention to the topic being learned e.g. *What do you know about the Olympic Games?*
- To guide learners through reading/listening texts e.g. *What are Mary's favourite school subjects?*
- For chatting with learners at the beginning of the lesson or during breaks e.g. *Did you watch Superstar yesterday?*

## **Task 1**

*The aim of the lesson is developing reading comprehension by using the text *History of the Olympic Games*. Think of the questions you could ask to motivate/stimulate your learners.*

Concept questions or checking understanding questions are used to check whether learners understand the meaning of a language items (grammar, vocabulary). According to Gower (1996) they should be simple and short (finely tuned input). The teacher should prepare several questions for checking the same item and spread them around the class.

## **8.2 Kinds of questions and their functions**

In general, questions that we use in the language class can be classified according to different criteria:

- **Questions that elicit short answers**
  1. Yes/No: Is it cold outside?
  2. Alternative: Do you prefer skiing or skateboarding?
  3. Wh- questions (some of them require short and some long answers)

*Where does your mother work?* – It is natural to give a short answer.

*What do you think about smoking in public places? –*  
A long answer is required

- **Questions similar to real life communication /classroom communication**

1. Real questions - the teacher fills the information gap because he/she does not know the answer. *Peter, how did you spend the last weekend?*
2. Display questions - the aim is to practice language, the teacher and other learners know the answer, as it is obvious from the situation e.g. After presenting basic colours the teacher asks: *What colour is your t-shirt? Is Peter's sweater black or blue?*

**Examples of real communication and classroom communication:**



*A: What's the time?*

*B: Four o'clock.*

*A: Thank you.*

*(a real situation)*

*A: What's the time?*

*B: Four o'clock.*

*A: Very good, Jane.*

*(a classroom situation)*

- **Questions with one or more possible answers**

1. Closed questions – have a single right answer  
*How many people can you see in the picture and what are they doing?*

2. Open ended questions – more possible correct answers

*What do you think about.....?*

Most questions mentioned above require short answers. However, there are situations when the teacher wants to elicit a longer language production in order that learners will get more practice.

There are three ways how to elicit long answers:

1. The teacher can insist on a long answer. *Peter, answer with a complete sentence.*
2. The teacher can ask a more general question: *How do you usually spend your weekend?*
3. The teacher can give a short prompt: *Tell me about your hobbies. Describe your room...*

### **8.3 Questioning strategies**

Questioning strategies are ways how the teacher distributes questions in class.

Doff (1992) suggests several options:

- The teacher can ask each learner in turn round the class
- Learners can call out their answers
- The teacher can choose a learner to answer after asking a question
- The teacher can nominate a learner before asking a question
- Learners can answer in chorus

Some strategies are highly controlled, they keep attention of the whole class, some encourage bright learners, and others give weaker learners a chance to participate in the lesson. In distributing questions the teacher should pay an equal attention to all learners and give them a chance to succeed.

#### **? Revision questions**

What are functions of questions in the English lesson?

What kinds of questions do you know?

How can the teacher elicit longer answers?

Give examples of display questions. Can you turn them into real ones?



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# Unit 9 Using Visuals in Teaching English



**In this unit you will:**

- Learn categories of visuals
- Learn how visuals can be used in teaching English



**Key words:** visual, picture, realia, drawing, communication, aim

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## ***9.1 Definition of visuals***

In general, we can state that visuals of any type play a vital role in the educational process and it is almost impossible to imagine teaching any subject without using visual aids of different kind and form. Even J.A. Comenius knew centuries ago that pictures are crucial in teaching and learning. The more senses are involved in the learning process the better our memory works.

A well chosen picture/visual can stimulate a great deal of language e.g. descriptions, questions, narratives etc.

As Harmer (2009) points out, the teacher should avoid activities based on display questions as in real communication we do not talk about the obvious e.g. *Are there four trees in the picture? Are children playing with a ball? Is the car red?*

Visuals can take many forms but the most common are real objects (realia) and pictures /photographs. In wider scope it can be anything that can be seen while language is being spoken or written e.g. maps, posters, graphs, grammar charts, stick figures, diagrams (Byrne, 1988).

## **9.2 Advantages of using visuals**

Learning English through various types of visual stimuli provides a non-threatening atmosphere for learners.

Other advantages of using visuals are:

- Attract learner's attention;
- Add variety to a lesson and change its routine;
- Create positive learning environment (posters or/and maps on walls);
- Make language memorable;
- In some cases they are more effective than verbal explanation;
- Triggers learner's imaginary;
- Reduce teacher talking time;
- Provide background for creative use of language;
- Raise learner's motivation and curiosity.

In general, one picture can be used for more than one purpose (presenting meaning of the lexical item, setting the scene for a creative story, a prompt for a discussion etc.).

Even in an increasingly technological age pictures of different shapes and size can be successfully used at all levels especially for young learners.

In choosing visuals for the classroom use the teacher has to consider

- the overall aim of the lesson,
- the objective of the task
- cognitive and affective side of learners
- a type of the visual
- a method of using it in a concrete teaching situation

The teacher can use:

- A single larger picture (a poster, map, chart)
- A flashcard (one single object or activity is clearly depicted)
- A set of smaller pictures/drawings for pair/group work (showing a story, sequence of actions)

Visuals can be used in all interaction modes: individual work, pair/group work and whole class work.

### 9.3 *The use of visuals*

Benefits of incorporating visuals of any type into lesson plans can be summarized (Gower 1995, Harmer 1993):

- Presenting new language (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation);
- Practicing new language (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation);
- Introducing texts for developing receptive and productive skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing);
- Presenting concepts such as *on, between, above, next to* etc.;
- Can serve as a base for communication;
- Setting the scene for a story or role-play;
- Making links between language learning and learner's world;
- Motivating and activate learners;
- Building cultural awareness;
- Creating a need for new language which the teacher can then satisfy;
- Developing learner's creativity;
- Elicit already known language (recycling and consolidating language);
- Stimuli for communication games or warm up activities.

If we want to make the most of the use of visuals, we should not forget different learning styles of our learners. By using visuals the teacher caters mostly for learners with a visual learning style who like to process information by seeing it. For effective learning such learners require a great deal of visual stimulation of any kind e.g. pictures, authentic objects, drawings, colours, different layout, size of letters etc.

Also learners with other learning preferences may find using visuals useful and stimulating in case visuals accompany learning tasks preferred by them e.g. listening activities, matching or sequencing pictures, drama activities, role play based on pictures etc.

It is advisable to combine several techniques to reach the aim and objectives of the lesson.

#### **9.4 Possible activities with visuals**

According to Gerngross and Puchta (1992) the most common activity types are:

- Sharing information (asking and giving information in the picture/pictures e.g. *Find 5 differences*)
- Sharing opinions (based on an opinion gap e.g. a controversial picture)
- Creating a dialogue based on a picture

- Developing a discussion with a picture used as a prompt
- Creative writing (story, poem) based on a picture
- Vocabulary (presentation and revision of lexical items, drilling, eliciting)
- Grammar (activities that focus on the presentation/review of certain grammatical structures, drilling, eliciting)

With more advanced learners we can use more demanding techniques e.g.

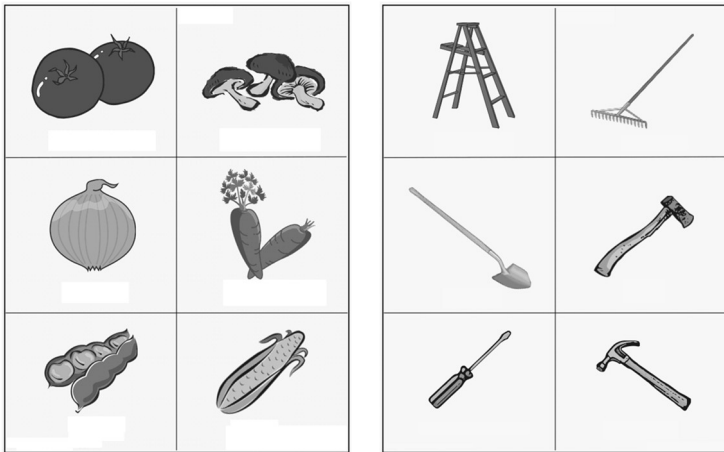
- Description – a learner describes everything s/he can see in the picture. A sense for details is being developed
- Identification – a learner identifies with a person (animal or thing) and leads a dialogue with a selected item from the picture. Creativity and fantasy is being developed
- A view out of the window - a learner is in the role of an observer and observes the picture from inside the room.
- Film shot – a static picture is being animated and a learner creates a story around it.
- Mirror picture – it is a specific type of identification when the learner is a person from the picture and compares his/her real “self” and the “other self” from the picture.
- Developing cultural awareness by comparing pictures (e.g. of a typical house/flat or meals)

Useful sources for visuals are magazines, postcards holiday brochures, catalogues, magazine advertisements, newspapers, the Internet etc. Learners can bring their own visuals such as photographs of family members, pets, favourite sports, places etc.

It is useful for novice teachers to start collecting visuals as soon as possible and work out a system of categorizing and storing them as one picture can be used in more teaching situations.

✦ **Examples of visuals and activities:**

Presenting and practicing vocabulary



Information gap activity (pair work) – Finding out about people

You only know four of the people in this room.  
Your partner knows the other four people, but you  
can't ask 'Who's that?' and point. It's not very  
polite!

What can you ask? (What is he (or she) doing?  
wearing?)

Ask about their jobs and where they live too.

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You only know four of the people in this room. Your partner knows the other four people, but you can't ask 'Who's that?' and point. It's not very polite!

What can you ask? (What is he (or she) doing? wearing?)

Ask about their jobs and where they live too.

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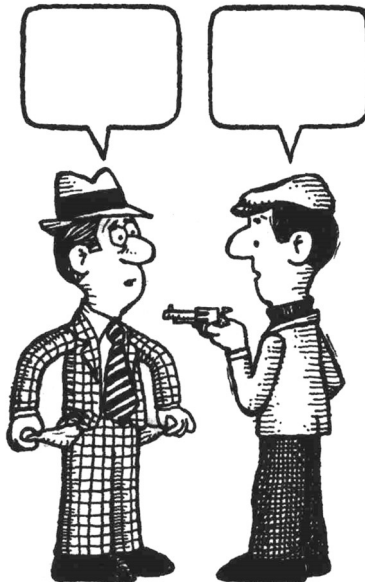
Source: Hover, D. Think Twice. CUP, 1986

Practicing vocabulary – creating sentences

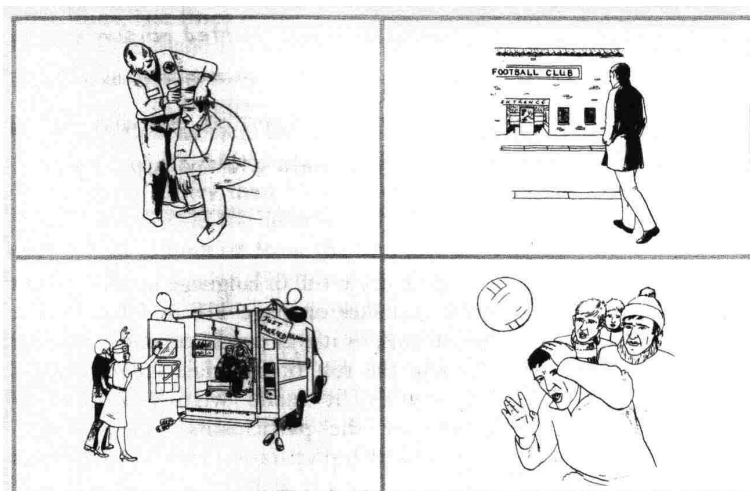
# IT'S RAINING



Creating a short dialogue:



## Writing a story based on a set of pictures



### ? Review questions

How can visuals be used in the English lesson?

What are advantages of using visuals?



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
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# Unit 10 Learning Styles

 In this unit you will learn:

- What a learning style is
- Get to know the classification of learning styles and their characteristics
- The importance and classification of learning strategies
- Get to know multiple intelligences

 **Key words:** learning style, learning strategies, analytic learner, global learner, hemisphere

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## ***10.1 Definition and classification of learning styles***

As we have already mentioned, the latest teaching methods consider activities and materials that are relevant to learners and take their needs and learning styles into account in order to prepare communicatively competent users of the target language.

It is commonly believed, that most learners favour a specific way of interacting with, taking in, and processing information. Generally speaking, every learner has his/her own learning style, linguistic background knowledge or individual pace of learning. The majority of foreign language classes involve learners of varying abilities and styles of learning.

As Ellis (1985) points out, a learning style is the more or less consistent way in which a person perceives, conceptualizes, organizes and recalls information.

In general, we could state that learners' preferred way "how to learn English" is mostly influenced by their previous learning experiences, genes, culture and society (parents, friends etc). Undoubtedly, learners learn more effectively if the teacher's teaching style matches learners' preferred learning styles. So a careful planning and choice of tasks and activities can improve learning outcomes - self esteem, the learner-teacher relationship, autonomy and at the same time increase the motivation.

There exist several ways of looking at learning styles. One of the classifications is based on sensory preferences. Learners may prefer:

- **a visual** (seeing),
- **an auditory** (hearing),
- **a kinaesthetic** (moving),
- or **a tactile** (touching) learning style.

It is important for the teacher to recognize and use activities preferred by respective groups of learners:

**Visual learners** proceed information by reading, they require a great deal of visual stimulation e.g. by pictures, drawings, colours, different layout, size of letters etc. They like looking at the teacher's face, wall displays and use lists to organize their thoughts.

Activities which they like include: working with pictures, colours, card games, writing tasks and activities that require visualization and/or imagination. The teacher should have them use mind maps, visual charts and acronyms.

**Auditory learners** receive and process the language through their ears. They have to hear in order to learn. They like when the teacher provides verbal instructions as often as possible and uses rhythm and sound as memory aids.

Therefore they prefer all kinds of listening activities (recordings or listening to the teacher or peers), dialogues, discussions, solving problems orally. They like reading aloud.

**Tactile learners** receive and process new language through seeing, hearing and doing. They need hands-on-experience in order to understand and learn the language. They need to write while they are reading or talking.

Activities which they like are: matching parts of the text, matching pictures to the text, working with various cards, arranging the text according to what they hear, they like projects and demonstrations etc. They can reinforce learning by using their sense of touch on a computer keyboard.

**Kinaesthetic learners** obtain information through their hands, body and feelings. What they need are frequent breaks and lots of movement such as walking, standing/sitting, physical exercises etc. They learn best when they are involved and active, they dislike sitting still for long periods of time. They often use movement as a memory aid.

They prefer TPR (Total Physical Response) activities; tasks that require movement in the room e.g. Find someone who..., races, competitions, expressing the meaning of words through movements, mime or gestures and drama activities. They use rhythm to memorize or explain something.

To help learners to become familiar with their learning style, we can offer them a questionnaire, filling of which would help them to indicate their preferred way of learning (Maggioli, 1996, p. 28). By examining learning styles which can have a form of a classroom activity carried out in English, learners will become aware of how their brain learns best. This awareness gives them a chance to study more effectively. It is important to stress that

there is no right or wrong, good or bad learning style. Moreover, it has nothing to do with the learner’s intelligence or skills.

**Task 1**

*Study basic and secondary coursebooks and find suitable tasks/activities for the respective learning styles.*

Another important dimension in language learning styles is the analytical-global dimension which reflects the dominance of the left or right hemisphere.

<b>LEFT hemisphere dominance</b>	<b>RIGHT hemisphere dominance</b>
Analytic learners	Global learners
Get a detail through analysis	Go for the main ideas
Reflective	Active
Understand before experiencing	Experience before understanding
Concrete	Intuitive
Step-by-step processing	Get the “big picture”
Thinking	Feeling
Plans	Flexible
Systematic	Spontaneous
Closure oriented	Open oriented

**Analytical learners** focus on studying grammar and like all grammar activities. They concentrate on learning the rules and

principles, compare language points. They prefer practicing the accuracy to fluency and are not very willing to participate in communicative activities.

**Global learners** are very sociable, prefer communicative activities, experiment with the language, guess and use compensation strategies when they do not know the right expression. They do not like studying grammar and other rules of the language.

It is necessary to admit that there does not exist “a clear cut” between the analytical and global style.

## **Task 2**

*Suggest alternative ways how to present many/much/a lot of to suit:*

- *analytical learners*
- *global learners*

Some learners might belong to both groups.

## **10.2 Language Learning Strategies**

Learning strategies are steps taken by learners to enhance their own learning. They are important especially for language learning because they are the tools for active, self-directed involvement which are essential for developing communicative competence. According to the well-known contrast, learning is conscious knowledge of language and its rules.

Acquisition occurs unconsciously and spontaneously. Both aspects – acquisition and learning – are necessary for communicative competence.

Learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations (Oxford, 1990).

Features of learning strategies are:

- Contribute to the main goal – communicative competence;
- Allow learners to become more self-directed;
- Involve many aspects of the learner – not just cognition;
- Are often conscious;
- Can be taught;
- Are influenced by a variety of factors;
- Are not always observable.

There are two major groups of language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990):

- Direct strategies – for dealing with the new language are like the Performer in a stage play, working with the language itself. He/she has to remember and retrieve new information/texts (**memory strategies**), has to understand the text and produce it (**cognitive strategies**), and has to find the way out of the situation when a gap occurs (**compensation strategies**).
- Indirect strategies for general management of learning can be compared to the Director of the play who has to guide, plan, check, correct and coach (**metacognitive strategies**), as well as motivate, encourage and support are the Performer (**affective strategies**). Alongside it is important to ensure that the Performer cooperates with other actors in the play (**social strategies**).

## **10.2.1 Direct strategies**

### **Direct Strategies for dealing with Language – Memory Strategies**

- Grouping
- Semantic mapping
- Placing new words into a context
- Using key words
- Associating
- Using imagery
- Using TPR
- Representing sounds in memory
- Using mechanical techniques

### **Direct Strategies for dealing with Language – Cognitive Strategies**

- Taking notes
- Reasoning deductively
- Getting the idea quickly
- Highlighting
- Recombining
- Repeating
- Analyzing expressions
- Using resources for messages

- Summarizing
- Recognizing and using patterns
- Translating
- Practicing in natural setting
- Formally practicing with sounds and patterns
- Transferring
- Analyzing contrastively

### **Direct Strategies for dealing with Language – Compensation Strategies**

- Getting help
- Coining words
- Using linguistic clues
- Using synonyms
- Avoiding communication
- Using other clues
- Using mime or gesture
- Adjusting the message
- Switching to L 1
- Selecting the topic

#### **Task 3**

*Make a list of ways that can aid the process of remembering and recalling vocabulary.*

## 10.2.2 Indirect strategies

Indirect strategies support and manage language learning without „using the target language“. They are useful for developing productive and receptive skills.

**Metacognitive strategies** – help learners to coordinate their own learning.

- Centring learning
- Arranging and planning learning
- Evaluating learning

**Affective strategies** – help learners to manage motivation, attitudes and emotions.

- Lowering anxiety and stress
- Encouraging oneself
- Taking emotional temperature

**Social strategies** – help learners to learn how to interact with others and use language as a social tool.

- Asking questions
- Cooperating with others
- Empathizing with others

It is important to stress that language learning strategies provide a rich and powerful support to any learning and the teacher should show learners ways how to make use of them in the learning process.

### **10.3 Multiple intelligences**

When we consider success in language learning it is necessary to consider intelligence as aptitude<sup>2</sup> for learning subjects or skills. An aptitude for language learning can be measured and this process focuses on:

- The ability of the learners to identify, discriminate and memorize new sounds e.g. those that do not exist in L1
- The ability to understand how words function grammatically in sentences
- The ability to figure out grammatical rules from example sentences
- The ability to memorize and recall new language items

Intelligence can be defined in terms of intelligence quotient, which measures a range of verbal/linguistic and logical/mathematical abilities. IQ is a measure of the intelligence of an individual derived from the results obtained from specially designed tests.

In 1983 Howard Gardner claimed that the traditional notion of intelligence in terms of IQ testing was too limited and did not cover human potential. He therefore presented his theory of eight different intelligences to cover potential of the learner of any age.

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<sup>2</sup> An aptitude is an innate inborn ability to do a certain kind of work. Aptitudes may be physical or mental.

Traditional teaching focuses most on linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligence. Gardner states that it is important to place equal attention on individuals who shows gifts in the other intelligences.

The original list of seven intelligences has been extended to eight. As far as language instruction several possible techniques and suitable learning activities have been suggested (Lin Po-Zing, 2004).

Here is the list of them:

**Linguistic (verbal) intelligence:** using words effectively in speaking and writing. Abilities to remember information; to convince others to help you, and to talk about language itself. Learners can develop this intelligence through things to look at, listen to, and write about as well as tasks for interaction in the class.

- Classroom implications:

Listening: listening to various authentic/non-authentic sources – stories, dialogues, lectures, presentations

Speaking: making verbal presentations to others, discussions, debates, conversations, storytelling – telling stories about various topics covered in the lesson

Reading: silent reading, reading aloud individually, in pairs or chorus

Writing: written exercises, note-taking, summary, reports, projects, creative writing (poems, essays, stories)

Vocabulary and Grammar: learning new words and grammar structures, patterns, accurate practise

**Logical-mathematical intelligence:** using numbers effectively and reasoning well. Understanding the basic properties of numbers and principles of cause and effect; ability to predict. For developing the intelligence learners need experimentation with numbers and problem solving tasks focusing on cause and effect.

- Classroom implications:

Problem solving: listing appropriate procedures for problem solving situations

Forming relationships – creating meaningful connections between different ideas

Number sequence/patterns – investigating numerical facts /gathering, presenting and analysis statistics on a topic

Syllogism – making “if..., then...” logical deductions about the topic

Logic pattern games: creating riddles or puzzles that challenge learners to find a hidden rationale

**Visual/Spatial Intelligence:** sensing space, colour, line shape, form. Ability to graphically represent visual or spatial ideas. Opportunities for visual mapping are needed that encourage learners to vary the arrangements of materials in space.

- Classroom implications:

Visual Aids Using/Making: using flash cards, pictures, paintings, charts, collages, graphs, grids, diagrams, flowcharts, sculptures, power point presentations and film-viewing, etc. to facilitate learning and encouraging learners to make the visual aids by themselves

Active Imagination: finding connection between visual designs/patterns and prior experiences

Mind Mapping: creating or arranging visual mapping activities (e.g. word maze, visual webs of written information)

Environment Arranging/Decorating -- encouraging learners to decorate bulletin boards, and arranging learning corner (e.g. English reading corner) to achieve the effect of peripheral learning

**Bodily/Kinaesthetic Intelligence:** using the body to express ideas and feelings and to solve problems. This includes physical skills such as coordination, flexibility, speed and balance. Learners can develop this intelligence through physical activities during any lesson.

- Classroom implications:

Physical Actions: arranging and doing TPR and hands-on activities e.g. as warm-up activities, presenting and practising language items

Body Language: "embodying" meaning, interpretation, or understanding of an idea in physical movement

Role Playing/Mime: performing characters to show understanding of topics

Dramatic Enactment: creating a mini-drama that shows the dynamic interplay of various topics of study

Sports Games: creating a contest or game based on specific knowledge about a topic of study

**Musical/Rhythmic Intelligence:** sensing rhythm, pitch and melody. This includes such skills as the ability to recognize simple songs and to vary speed, tempo rhythm in simple

melodies. Learners can develop this intelligence through using recordings of various songs and singing along.

- Classroom implications:

Music/Song Listening: listening to rhythmic patterns, recorded music, or songs

Singing/Humming: creating songs for a class, a team, a topic of study or finding existing songs that complement a topic

Musical Instruments playing: employing musical instruments to produce sounds for a lesson (e.g., background accompaniment, enhancement for the teaching)

Jazz Chants/Rapping<sup>3</sup>: producing or using rhythmic patterns, such as jazz chants, or raps to help communicate, or to remember certain words, sentence structures, concepts, ideas, or processes

Vocal Sounds/Tones: producing sounds with one's vocal cords to illustrate the meaning of a word, or a concept (e.g., hiccup, gasp, etc.)

**Interpersonal Intelligence:** understanding another person's moods and feelings, motivations and intentions. This includes skills such as responding effectively to other people in a pragmatic way, such as getting learners participate in a project.

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<sup>3</sup> See Carolyn Graham: <http://jazzchants.net/some-favorites>

Learners should be involved in activities such as solving problems, finding a solution and resolving conflict.

- Classroom implications:

Person to Person Communication: focusing on how teachers and learners relate to each other and how to improve their relating

Giving and Receiving Feedback: offering input on one's performance or about one's opinions; and accepting another's input or reaction to one's performance/ opinions

Cooperative Learning Strategies: using structured teamworks for topic learning and/or practicing peer learning

Pair Works and Group Projects: investigating and discussing a topic problem with a partner or with others in teams

Jigsaw Puzzle/Strip Story: dividing a picture or a story into distinct segments so that students can learn from each other on the process of putting it back to its original form

**Intrapersonal Intelligence:** understanding yourself – the strengths, weaknesses, moods, desires and intentions. This includes skills such as understanding how someone is similar to or different from others, reminding oneself to do something, knowing about oneself as a language learners and knowing how to handle feelings. Learners can develop this intelligence through

expressing their own preferences and understanding their own style of learning.

- Classroom implications:

Independent Studies/Projects: encouraging students to work independently for goal-setting, process-planning, self-assessing, and homework choosing

Journals/Diaries keeping: working with reflection tools, such as reflective journals, thinking logs, learning diaries, etc.

Focusing/Concentration Skills: learning the ability to focus one's mind on a single idea or task

Thinking strategies: learning what thinking patterns to use for what task

**Naturalist Intelligence:** recognizing and classifying plants, minerals animals and all variety of flora and fauna. It is also the ability to recognize cultural artefacts. Learners can develop this intelligence by focusing their attention on the world outside the classroom.

- Classroom implications:

Nature Encounters/Field Trips: going outside for firsthand experiences in nature and/or bringing nature in the classroom via videos, objects, animals, plants, etc.

Species Classification: working with classification matrices to understand characteristics of natural objects

Sensory Stimulation Exercises: exposing the senses to nature's sounds, smells, tastes, touches, and sights

Hands-On Labs: performing experiments or activities that use objects from the natural world

Nature World Simulations: re-creating or representing nature in some form (e.g. photographs, drawings, etc.)

Awareness and knowledge about Multiple Intelligences provides teachers with a chance to examine their techniques and strategies from the viewpoint of individual learner differences and needs. English lessons more or less enable to respect individuality of the learner by exposing learners to words, numbers, visuals, music, songs, poems, physical movement, social experience and self-reflection.

## ? Review questions

Which learning styles do you know?

Which activities can you use to develop various styles?

Which intelligences can the teacher develop in English classes?

Do you know your learning style? See p. 152 for the questionnaire.

### **Task 4**

*Make an extended list of suitable activities and tasks for visual and auditory learning style.*

### **Task 5**

*Find one activity for the development of each strategy (See R. Oxford, 1990)*



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## Appendix A

Spoločné referenčné úrovne: globálna stupnica:

<b>Skúsený používateľ</b>	<b>C2</b>	Ľahko rozumie doslova všetkému, čo si vypočuje alebo prečíta. Dokáže zhrnúť informácie z rozličných hovorených či písaných zdrojov, pričom dokáže viesť polemiku a predniesť vysvetlenia v logicky usporiadanej prezentácii. Dokáže sa vyjadriť spontánne, veľmi plynulo a precízne a rozlišovať medzi rozličnými nuansami významu, dokonca aj v zložitých situáciách.
	<b>C1</b>	Dokáže porozumieť širokému rozsahu náročných, dlhších textov a rozoznať ich implicitné významy. Dokáže sa vyjadriť plynulo a spontánne bez priveľmi zjavného hľadania výrazov. Dokáže využívať jazyk pružne a účinne na spoločenské, akademické či profesijné účely. Dokáže vytvoriť zrozumiteľný, dobre usporiadaný a podrobný text na zložité témy, prejavujúc ovládanie kompozičných postupov, spojovacích výrazov a prostriedkov kohézie.
<b>Samostatný používateľ</b>	<b>B2</b>	Rozumie hlavným myšlienkam zložitého textu na konkrétne aj abstraktné témy vrátane odborných diskusií vo svojej špecializácii. Komunikuje na takom stupni plynulosti a spontánnosti, ktorý mu umožňuje viesť bežnú konverzáciu s rodenými hovoriacimi bez toho, aby to pre ktoréhokoľvek účastníka interakcie predstavovalo zvýšené úsilie. Dokáže vytvoriť jasný, podrobný text na rozličné témy a vysvetliť svoje stanovisko k aktuálnym témam s uvedením výhod aj nevýhod rozličných možností.

<p><b>Samostatný používateľ</b></p>	<p><b>B1</b></p>	<p>Rozumie hlavným bodom zrozumiteľnej spisovnej vstupnej informácie o známych veciach, s ktorými sa pravidelne stretáva v práci, škole, voľnom čase atď. Dokáže sa zorientovať vo väčšine situácií, ktoré môžu nastať počas cestovania v oblasti, kde sa hovorí týmto jazykom. Dokáže vytvoriť jednoduchý spojený text na témy, ktoré sú mu známe alebo o ktoré sa osobne zaujíma. Dokáže opísať svoje skúsenosti a udalosti, sny, nádeje a ambície a stručne odôvodniť a vysvetliť svoje názory a plány.</p>
<p><b>Používateľ základného jazyka</b></p>	<p><b>A2</b></p>	<p>Rozumie vetám a často používaným výrazom vzťahujúcim sa na oblasti, ktoré sa ho bezprostredne týkajú (napríklad najzákladnejšie informácie o sebe, o rodine, nakupovaní, miestnom zemapise a o zamestnaní). Dokáže komunikovať v jednoduchých a rutinných úlohách vyžadujúcich si jednoduchú a priamu výmenu informácií o známych a bežných záležitostiach. Dokáže jednoduchými termínmi opísať svoje rodinné zázemie, bezprostredné okolie a záležitosti v oblastiach nevyhnutných potrieb.</p>
	<p><b>A1</b></p>	<p>Rozumie známym každodenným výrazom a najzákladnejším frázam, ktorých účelom je uspokojenie konkrétnych potrieb, a tieto výrazy a frázy dokáže používať. Dokáže predstaviť seba aj iných a dokáže klásť a odpovedať na otázky o osobných údajoch, ako napríklad kde žije, o ľuďoch, ktorých pozná, a o veciach, ktoré vlastní. Dokáže sa dohovoriť jednoduchým spôsobom za predpokladu, že partner v komunikácii rozpráva pomaly a jasne a je pripravený mu pomôcť.</p>

# Appendix B

## Questionnaire: Learning styles<sup>1</sup>

1 Write the score that most applies to you next to each sentence below:

5 – almost always
4 – fairly often
3 – sometimes
2 – rarely
1 – almost never

**Score Statement**

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1 It helps me understand if I discuss things with other people.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2 When learning, I watch the teacher's face a lot.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3 I use colours when I take down notes or read (e.g. highlighter pens, different coloured pens).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4 I get good ideas while I am doing some kind of physical activity.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5 I prefer spoken to written instructions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6 I'd rather listen to a tape than read about a topic.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7 I prefer someone to draw me a map than to tell me directions to somewhere.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8 I do less well on written tests than on oral tests.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9 I don't like sitting at a desk, but study, for example, on the floor, on the bed, in all kinds of places.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10 I take notes but they are a bit of a mess.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11 I can easily understand maps, charts, graphs, etc.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12 I can't sit still for very long.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13 I like making things with my hands.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14 If I am doing some work, having the radio on annoys me.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15 I like to take a lot of breaks when I study.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16 I use a lot of body language (e.g. gestures) when talking.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17 I can't picture things in my head very well.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18 I would rather start doing an activity instead of listening to instructions about how to do it.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19 I like telling jokes and can remember them well.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20 I take lots of notes when I read or listen to a lecture.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 21 I doodle when I listen to a lecture.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22 If I don't look at a speaker, I can still follow well what he or she is saying.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 23 I like creating models of what I am learning.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 24 In a test, I can visualise the place on the page where I learnt something.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 25 I like making projects better than writing reports.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 26 I like to talk when I write.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 27 If I read, I 'listen' to the words in my head.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 28 If I write something down, I remember it better.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 29 I can't remember what people look like very well; I remember better what they say.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 30 If I want to remember something, for example someone's telephone number, it helps if I make a picture of it in my head.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 31 If I study aloud, I can remember better.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 32 I can see pictures in my head.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 33 I would rather read than be read to.

2 Transfer your scores and add them up:

2 _____	4 _____	1 _____
3 _____	9 _____	5 _____
7 _____	10 _____	6 _____
11 _____	12 _____	8 _____
14 _____	13 _____	17 _____
20 _____	15 _____	19 _____
24 _____	16 _____	22 _____
28 _____	18 _____	26 _____
30 _____	21 _____	27 _____
32 _____	23 _____	29 _____
33 _____	25 _____	31 _____

<b>Visual learner</b>	<b>Kinaesthetic learner</b>	<b>Auditory learner</b>
<b>Total score:</b>	<b>Total score:</b>	<b>Total score:</b>
_____	_____	_____

Your highest score indicates which your strongest learning style is, your lowest score shows your weakest. There is no right, or perfect, learning style: everyone is, to some degree, a mixture of all three learning styles, but most people may have one learning style which is dominant. A score of more than 40 indicates a particularly strong style; a score of under 20 indicates quite a weak style.

<sup>1</sup>This Learning Styles questionnaire was inspired by those in Reid, 1995.

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