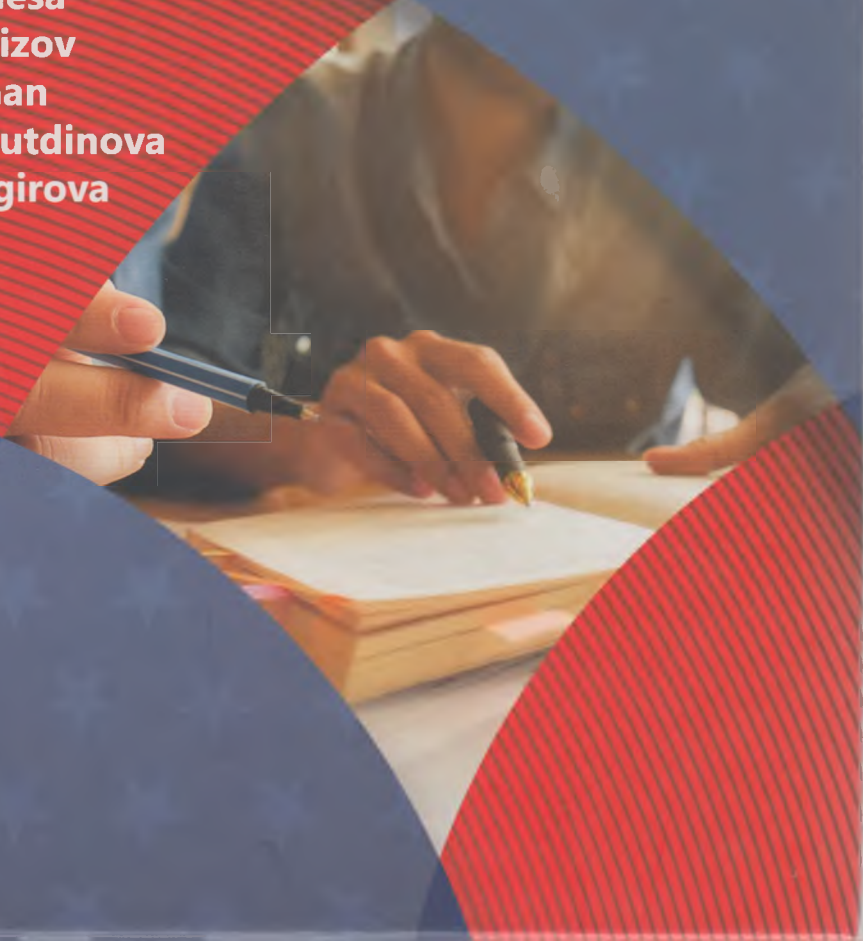


RECONCEPTUALIZING LANGUAGE TEACHING: AN IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION COURSE IN UZBEKISTAN

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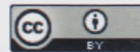
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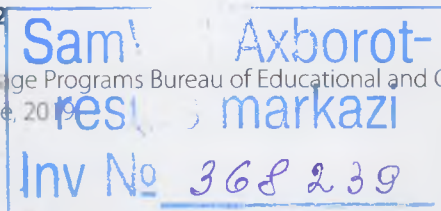


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**RECONCEPTUALIZING
LANGUAGE TEACHING:
AN IN-SERVICE TEACHER
EDUCATION COURSE IN UZBEKISTAN**



*Daniel Rosenblum
U.S. Ambassador
to Uzbekistan*

PREFACE

It is my honor as Ambassador of the United States to the Republic of Uzbekistan to oversee America's support for the people of Uzbekistan as they build an independent state and a better future for themselves and their children. In recent years, the United States has supported the government's reforms through programs, such as the one that helped create this book. I believe that if the spirit of reform is to be long lasting, it must manifest itself in every social institution – and nowhere more so than in places of higher education.

The development and realization of this textbook is a collaboration between Uzbekistan and the United States. Dr. David Chiesa, one of our English Language Specialists in Uzbekistan, with the help of several other authors and partners, has played a critical role in creating a sustainable and standardized in-service teacher education program by designing this book.

The English language, more specifically young people who speak fluent English, will be one of the primary means for Uzbekistan to access and join in fruitful collaboration with the international community. I am delighted to see the progress Uzbekistan has made in improving its English language education in the past few years. I am sure that this country's future is secure as long as innovative projects, such as this one, continue in the future.



*Dr. Tuymurod
Shoymardonov
Director of the
Head Scientific and
Methodological Center*

PREFACE

The Head Scientific and Methodological Center of the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education of Uzbekistan expresses its deepest gratitude to its partners for the development of "*Reconceptualizing Language Teaching: An In-Service Teacher Education Course in Uzbekistan.*" This textbook was designed as a joint venture between the Embassy of the United States and Republican Innovation Center of the World Languages University to centralize teacher-training efforts. It is the first of its kind and is going to become an integral part of the official curriculum of the in-service teacher-training course.

The creation of this textbook was possible in large part because of the generous support of the Embassy of the United States. We are thankful for the work of the Embassy and the authors of the textbook. We hope that the methodological guidance of the textbook revolutionizes the pedagogical approach of our English language teachers and, by extension, raises the quality of English language education in Uzbekistan.

Annotation

Reconceptualizing language teaching: an in-service teacher education course in Uzbekistan is designed to support the professional development of Uzbekistan foreign language educators. The textbook explains what it means to teach English based on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Communicative Competences (CC). Throughout the textbook, educators will explore new ways of understanding and conceptualizing language, language teaching, language assessment, lesson design, classroom observation, and feedback. In addressing these concepts, the textbook takes a sociocultural perspective of learning and present educators with short vignettes that problematize each concept within Uzbekistan context. As *Reconceptualizing language teaching* provides an in-depth overview of CLT and CC, this textbook can be used by foreign language educators in Uzbekistan as well as in other Central Asian countries.

Acknowledgements

We would like to express our deep gratitude to all the people and organizations who have had an immediate impact on this book. We are appreciative of the teachers who participated in the book's piloting phase and who provided insurmountable feedback on the content, layout, and teaching suggestions. The following participants were: Elnara Gulieva, Aziza Marupova, Muyassar Kadirova, Iroda Urunbaeva, Zemfira Kenjaeva, Ilya Zverev, Nazira Yergesheva, Feruza Dadadjanova, Olim Kodirov, Nodira Fayzieva, Musajan Tadjibayev, Raime Ismailova, Ijobat Jurayeva, and Saodat Saidakbarova.

As this book is a collaborative effort between participants from the United States and Uzbekistan, we would like to express our deep gratitude to the organizations that approved and funded this project. We would like to thank BIMM, the Uzbekistan Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education, the U.S. Embassy in Tashkent, and the National Scientific-Practical Center of Developing the Innovation Methods for Teaching Foreign Languages under the University of World Languages. Particularly, we express our deep gratitude to the Regional English Language Officer, Dr. Tim Collins; Cultural Affairs Officer, U.S. Embassy Tashkent, Kirsten Michener; Public Affairs Officer, U.S. Embassy Tashkent, Dr. John Brown; and, Assistant English Language Programs Coordinator, Umida Boltaeva.

Last but not least, we owe a great amount of debt and gratitude to Nodira Meliboeva whose vision of creating a sustainable in-service teacher education program came to fruition under her guidance and support. The development of Uzbekistan's foreign language in-service teacher education program would not have been possible without her.

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Introduction

The purpose of this in-service teacher education book is to support the professional development of Uzbekistan foreign language educators. The book provides opportunities for teachers to integrate their current knowledge and beliefs of language teaching and learning with up-to-date research, theory, and practice. Specifically, teachers will explore new ways of understanding and conceptualizing language, language teaching, language assessment, lesson design, classroom observation, and feedback – key areas in the professional lives of language teachers. In addressing these concepts, we take a sociocultural perspective of learning and present teachers with short vignettes (and reflections) in each section that illustrate key concepts. We hope teachers will think critically and compare their personal experiences with those reflected in the vignettes. Additionally, we present twenty homework assignments that follow many of the sections. Each homework task is meant to help teachers apply new knowledge and skills to their own teaching contexts.

The book is divided into six chapters and is meant to be completed in chronological order (see Table 1 below): Chapter 1, *Language and Communicative Competence*; Chapter 2, *Language Teaching*; Chapter 3, *Language Assessment and Testing*; Chapter 4, *Practical Examples of Teaching Communicative Competence*; Chapter 5, *From Syllabus Design to Lesson Planning*; and, Classroom 6, *Classroom Observation, Feedback, and Language Teaching*. By the end of using the book each teacher will have a theoretical and methodological understanding of key areas of language, language learning, and language teaching. Additionally, with completion of each Homework Task, in the expected order, the teacher will have a finished product they will submit for assessment of the in-service teacher education program and will be prepared for microteaching. Table 1 is a layout of the book.

Chapter 1 – Language & CC		Chapter 2 – Language Teaching		Chapter 3 – Language Assessment and Testing	
1.1 Principles of CC	Homework 1	2.1 Principles Language Teaching	Homework 6	3.1 Assessment for Learning: Gathering Data	Homework 11
1.2 Linguistic Competence	Homework 2	2.2 Communicative Language Teaching	Homework 7	3.2 Assessment for Learning: Using Gathered Data	Homework 12
1.3 Pragmatic Competence	Homework 3	2.3 Task-Based Language Teaching	Homework 8	3.3 Assessment of Learning: Principles and Types of Assessment	Homework 13
1.4 Sociolinguistic Competence	Homework 4	2.4 Post-Method Era	Homework 9	3.4 Using Statistics: Objectively Scored Items	
1.5 Strategic Competence	Homework 5	2.5 Learning Outside the Classroom	Homework 10	3.5 Using Subjectively-Scored Assessments	Homework 14
Chapter 4 – Practical Examples of Teaching CC		Chapter 5 – From Syllabus Design to Lesson Planning		Chapter 6 – Classroom Observation, Feedback, and Language Teaching	
4.1 Speaking and CC		5.1 Semester/Lesson Planning	Homework 15	6.1 Classroom Observation	Homework 19
4.2 Listening and CC		5.2 Goals and Objectives	Homework 16	6.2 Providing Feedback	
4.3 Writing and CC		5.3 Lesson Planning: Into, Through, and Beyond	Homework 17	6.3 Practice Teaching, I	Homework 20
4.4 Reading and CC		5.4 Lesson Planning Workshop	Homework 18	6.4 Practice Teaching, II	

*Nota Bene: CC = Communicative Competence

We will briefly present each chapter's descriptions below. (The descriptions are also reprinted at the beginning of each chapter.) After the chapter descriptions, we discuss each Homework Task that is used throughout the book.

CHAPTER ONE: LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Chapter One addresses the theoretical underpinning of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), which is the overarching framework of teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan. The goal of this chapter is to familiarize you with the four communicative competencies of language: linguistic, pragmatic, sociolinguistic, and strategic. More specifically, Section 1.1 will exemplify that successful human communication is built upon knowing linguistic competence *in addition to* other competencies (i.e., sociolinguistic, pragmatic, and strategic). Section 1.2 discusses linguistic competence, which is the ability to understand language structure (e.g., syntax). Section 1.3 delves into pragmatic competence, or, the ability to interpret and convey meaning in context. Section 1.4 addresses sociolinguistic competence, which examines how cultural norms play a role in meaningful communication. And finally, Section 1.5 will conceptualize strategic competence – the ability of the interlocutor to find ways to understand language without fully knowing what is being communicated. A firm grounding in these competencies will provide you theoretical support in your growing development as a language educator in Uzbekistan.

CHAPTER TWO: LANGUAGE TEACHING

In Chapter Two you will investigate recent approaches to teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Uzbekistan. In Section 2.1, we will address basic tenets of language teaching and learning and examine cognitive, linguistic, and affective factors that could play a role in an Uzbekistan EFL teachers' decision-making process. By the end of this section, you will be able to draft a teaching statement that will grow and evolve over the course of your professional career. Second, in Sections 2.2 and 2.3, you will investigate two popular approaches to teaching English as a foreign language worldwide – Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Teaching. By the end of these sections you will be able to know the justifications behind the use of these approaches and determine whether any (or all) aspects would be pertinent for your local teaching context. In Section 2.4 we will look at the current theoretical approach to teaching EFL in a Post-Method Era. Specifically, we will examine

the tenets of particularly, practicality, and possibility. Here, the goal is to provide teachers with an opportunity to explore the concept of 'method' and 'methodology' and whether thinking in methods is suitable to teaching language. Section 2.5 will present two different ways to support student's learning outside of the classroom. Chapter 2 will provide teachers with *theoretical and methodological justifications* for your microteaching lesson plan.

CHAPTER THREE: LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT AND TESTING

Chapter Three addresses language assessment and testing and will provide information and resources on how to better support the relationship among teaching, learning, and assessment for EFL teachers in Uzbekistan. The guiding question for this chapter is the following: How can language teachers use information about their student's knowledge and skills of language before, during, and after a lesson to better support their language development? The goal of this chapter is to familiarize teachers with the two main areas of language assessment and testing known as Assessment *for* Learning and Assessment *of* Learning. More specifically, Section 3.1 and Section 3.2 will address the Assessment *for* Learning construct, and will explain how to gather and interpret data about student's so teachers can make informed decisions about how to progress with lessons, change in syllabus, or changes in curriculum. Sections 3.3, 3.4, and 3.5 discuss the Assessment *of* Learning construct. The section will present information about testing concepts, while at the same time introduce teachers to basic statistical procedures that all language teachers around the world use to support their decision making.

CHAPTER FOUR: PRACTICAL EXAMPLES OF TEACHING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Chapter Four provides the reader with practical activities to make connections between teaching sub-skills (i.e., speaking, listening, writing, and reading) and the communicative competencies explained in Chapter 1. In Section 4.1 we address speaking activities and provide practical examples of supporting pragmatic competence. Section 4.2 examines the sub-skill of listening and communicative competence. In this section, we

will present a way to organize a class that targets at developing students' pragmatic, discursive, as well as sociolinguistic competencies through the teaching of listening. Section 4.3 targets the sub-skill of writing and uses comparative analyses to learn how to write in specific English genres. Finally, Section 4.4 addresses reading and communicative competence. The two main goals of this chapter: (1) present a connection between the sub-skills that we teach and communicative competencies; and (2) provide practical examples teachers may use in lesson plans.

CHAPTER FIVE: FROM SYLLABUS DESIGN TO LESSON PLANNING

In Chapter Five we address the classroom lesson plan from a top-down approach to planning. First, in Section 5.1 we discuss terms in the literature that often get confused amongst educators in Uzbekistan: curriculum and syllabus. Our lesson plans are situated within a syllabus, which are then a part of a curriculum that is a part of national standards. Our goal is to provide teachers with the necessary schemata to understand how each lesson they do with students is a part of a larger picture. Once we understand what kind of syllabus our class entails, we then look to Section 5.2 and address the goals and objectives of a lesson. These facets, could be, the most important concepts for teachers because knowing the goals and objectives of a lesson guide us in our day-to-day teaching and assessment practices. Section 5.3 guides teachers through lesson phases. No matter what kind or type of lesson plan format you are accustomed to or that your school wants you to compose, we believe firmly in the three-phase development of the lesson plan: into-through-beyond. Finally, section 5.4 provides a general framework to support your colleagues lesson plan development in a writing workshop. The goal of the lesson is to create an original lesson plan that has clear phases, well-written goals, and objectives that connects back to the course syllabus, which connects to the overarching school curriculum that is situated within the national standards

CHAPTER SIX: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, FEEDBACK, AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

In Chapter 6 you will read about familiar topics to all classroom language teachers: classroom observation, feedback, and teaching practice. However,

you will read about these topics from a different perspective, which are based on recent literature (and research) in language teacher education. Section 6.1 addresses the topic of classroom observation. In this section, teachers will learn how observation is a difficult but very worthwhile task that can support one's professional development. We will learn about the differences between observation, inferences, and opinions. Then, we will learn how to write an observation report. Section 6.2 presents the topic of feedback. This topic is about the mediational moves a teacher provides to colleagues after a class is observed. The topic of feedback is different than providing feedback to students for language learning. In teacher education, feedback is used to promote intersubjectivity (i.e., shared understanding and mutual engagement). Finally, Sections 6.3 and 6.4 provide teachers a space to practice teaching and receive feedback from colleagues, so one is better prepared to take-part in the final micro-teaching assessment.

Homework Tasks that Are Needed to Be Completed for the Microteaching Assignment

Part One: Understanding Language Competencies

Homework Task One

Please choose one English language class (e.g., speaking class or vocabulary class), which you have already taught, and which you will use for your homework tasks in this book. This class could be one you feel has been very successful, mediocre, or not successful. When you choose an English language class, please write a short description about it (e.g., who are the students, language levels, content area, etc.) and explain the challenges you have in making this class communicative. Then, please choose one lesson from your English language class you described above. Please give a brief overview (1 paragraph) of the lesson. You will use this lesson throughout the book and you will have different versions of the same plan with different foci.

Homework Task Two

Please refer to the lesson you chose for Homework Task One. In a one-page report please do the following: First, explain how you understand *linguistic competence* in general (i.e., what does linguistic competence mean to you); Second, explain how the lesson you chose for Homework Task One can be transformed to have linguistic competence as the focus.

Homework Task Three

Please refer to the lesson you chose for Homework Task One. In a one-page report or less, please do the following: First, explain briefly how you understand *pragmatic competence* (i.e., what does pragmatic competence mean to you); Second, explain how the lesson you chose for Homework Task One can be organized so that pragmatic competence is the focus.

Homework Task Four

Please refer to the lesson you chose for Homework Task One. In a one-page report or less, please do the following: First, explain briefly how you understand *sociolinguistic competence* (i.e., what does sociolinguistic competence mean to you); Second, explain how the lesson you chose for

Samir Axborot
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Inv No 368239

Homework Task One can be organized so that sociolinguistic competence is the focus.

Homework Task Five

Please refer to the lesson you chose for Homework Task One. In a one-page report or less, please do the following: First, explain briefly how you understand *strategic competence* (i.e., what does strategic competence mean to you); Second, explain how you can include strategic competence in the lesson for Homework Task One.

Part Two: Being Able to Discuss Various Language Teaching 'Methodological' Stances

Homework Task Six

The goal of Homework Task Six is for you to compose your own language teaching statement and use one or more of the 12 principles to support what you do in your language classroom. Look at your Homework Task One lesson plan and then discern your teaching principles from that lesson. To accomplish Homework Task Six, you may do the following two steps:

Step 1: Read the teaching statement by Dr. David L. Chiesa below as an example.

Step 2: Please write your own teaching statement (2 pages maximum). You may take your answers from the three action tasks in the section as a guiding framework.

Homework Task Seven

Look at the lesson plan from Homework Task One. Identify principles and features of Communicative Language Teaching in the lesson and then write a rationale (1 page) about it.

Homework Task Eight

As explained in the key concepts section there are four main characteristics that constitute a task: (1) meaning is primary; (2) there is a goal which needs to be worked towards; (3) task completion has some priority; and (4) there is a real-world relationship. Using the lesson from Homework Task One, explain if you use a true 'task' in the lesson. Thus, how does the task you identify use the four main characteristics? If not, please create a task that can be used for your Homework Task One and explain how it is a task using the four main characteristics.

Homework Task Nine

Watch the following video from YouTube about Postmethod Language Teaching: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iy2P4zUdzXo>. Using the lesson plan from Homework Task One, explain how your lesson identifies the concepts of particularity, practicality, and possibility; or, the 10 macrostrategies. Elaborate on the principles or strategies which do not fit (or may be not so much necessary) for your lesson.

Homework Task Ten

Write a page report about how you can extend the lesson from Homework Task One outside of the classroom.

Part Three: Assessing your students before, during, and after a lesson

Homework Task Eleven

Based on what you have learned in this section, develop or choose an available diagnostic assessment tool that will measure the concepts you want to teach in the lesson plan that you chose for Homework Task One. Thus, explain the brief diagnostic assessment you will use to measure the constructs before the class. Finally, explain how you will use the information to make informed decisions about your lesson plan. (2 pages total.)

Homework Task Twelve

Please refer to the Diagnostic Assessment Tool you chose for Homework Task Eleven. In a page, please explain how you will use the information you learn to make informed decisions about your lesson plan during the lesson. For instance, are there key areas you are interested in that might cause some confusion for your students?

Homework Task Thirteen

Imagine you have completed (i.e., taught) the lesson you chose for Homework Task One and you want to make a short quiz (10 min) that will measure what you taught in the class. For this homework task, please write the answers to the seven questions that will help you make test specifications for the test. We have pasted the questions again here:

- 1) What is the **purpose** of the test?
- 2) What sort of **learners** will be taking the test?
- 3) What **language skills** should be tested (reading, writing, speaking and/or listening)?

4) What **language elements** should be tested (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speech acts, etc.)?

5) What **target language situation** is envisaged for the test, and is this to be simulated in some way in the test content and method? (For instance, is this a test of academic French? Of English for international TAs? Of Japanese for hotel workers?)

6) What **text types** should be chosen as *stimulus materials* -- written and/or spoken?

7) What sort of **tasks** are required -- discrete point, integrative, simulated 'authentic', objectively assessable? (That is, what will the test-takers do?)

Homework Task Fourteen

You now have gone through five sections in the chapter and learnt the salient aspects in language assessment and testing. By this time, you should have developed ideas regarding what changes you can make in your teaching and assessment practices. Based on what you have learnt in this chapter and discussions at classes, write an action plan (minimum 1 page) describing the problematic areas which you are planning to address after you complete this in-service education course, provide details of:

Why you think it is a significant issue;

How you are going to address it; and,

What is the expected result?

Part Four: Your Lesson Plan

Homework Task Fifteen

Please explain in a page how the Homework Task One lesson fits into the syllabus of the course, the curriculum, and the national standards.

Homework Task Sixteen

Write clearly (and finalize) the cognitive, performance, and affective goals and the objectives for your lesson for Homework Task One. Make sure each goal is MEASURABLE – you can justify with data that learning has happened.

Homework Task Seventeen

Formally write a complete (and revised) lesson plan from Homework Task One [approximately 80 minutes]. Make sure you are able to answer the following questions about it:

Chapter 1: What kind of competencies are you trying to address in the lesson plan (i.e., linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic, strategic, and/or all the competencies)? The answer to this question will support your lesson plan from a theoretical language perspective.

Chapter 2: Which methodological approach and/or language teaching principles are you trying to achieve? The answer to this question will support your lesson plan from a language teaching methodological perspective.

Chapter 3: How will you assess what you are trying to measure (i.e., Assessment-for-Learning and/or Assessment-of-Learning)? The answer to this question will support the connection you see among teaching-learning-assessing.

Chapter 4: Will you be teaching a competency through speaking, reading, writing, reading (or) all the above? Will an activity that you had learned from Chapter 4 be included in your lesson plan? This answer can support some techniques you may use in your classroom to support the answers above.

Chapter 5: Please keep in mind how the lesson plan you create will fit into the syllabus of the course and the overarching national standards. More specifically, what are the specific goals (i.e., cognitive, performative, and affective) that you want to achieve; or, are the goals/objectives of your lesson being created from a backwards design perspective?

Homework Task Eighteen

There are two parts to Homework Task Eighteen:

First, address the issues in your lesson plan according to the feedback you received from your three colleagues throughout the workshop.

Second, choose one section of the lesson plan that you want to use for your microteaching. The one section should be approximately 15-20 minutes long. Explain in a page why you chose this section to use for your microteaching assessment.

Part Five: Supporting Your Colleagues – Providing Effective Microteaching Observation Report

Homework Task Nineteen

With a partner in your in-service teacher education program at the Innovation Center, please look over each other's lesson plans and discern

what you would like to observe and how you think you would observe the lesson. Then, find 5-10 colleagues to participate in the micro-teaching practice and video record it. Observe each other and take field notes. Finally, write-up an observation report of your colleague's microteaching class.

Homework Task Twenty

Write a one-page reflection about the class you taught. What were some positives and negatives of your experience, and, how will you continue to move forward in your career to pursue professional development?

CHAPTER ONE: COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Dr. Ulugbek Azizov and David L. Chiesa, Ph.D.

Chapter One addresses the theoretical underpinning of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), which is the overarching framework of teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan. The goal of this chapter is to familiarize you with the four communicative competencies of language: linguistic, pragmatic, sociolinguistic, and strategic. More specifically, Section 1.1 will exemplify that successful human communication is built upon knowing linguistic competence *in addition to* other competencies (i.e., sociolinguistic, pragmatic, and strategic). Section 1.2 discusses linguistic competence, which is the ability to understand language structure (e.g., syntax). Section 1.3 delves into pragmatic competence, or, the ability to interpret and convey meaning in context. Section 1.4 addresses sociolinguistic competence, which examines how cultural norms play a role in meaningful communication. And finally, Section 1.5 will conceptualize strategic competence – the ability of the interlocutor to find ways to understand language without fully knowing what is being communicated. A firm grounding in these competencies will provide you theoretical support in your growing development as a language educator in Uzbekistan.

SECTION 1.1

Principles of Communicative Competence

“Human communication fulfils many different goals at the personal and social levels. We communicate information, ideas, beliefs, emotions, and attitudes to one another in our daily interactions, and we construct and maintain our positions within various social contexts by employing appropriate language forms and performing speech activities to ensure solidarity, harmony, and cooperation – or to express disagreement or displeasure, when called for” (Celce-Murcia & Olshtan, 2000, p. 3).

GOALS

This section shows that successful human communication is not limited to linguistic competence (i.e. pronunciation, lexical items, appropriate word order, etc.); non-linguistic factors such as culture, lifestyle, shared norms, history, and other social circumstances play a role in securing successful communication (Coupland & Jaworski, 2009; Grice, 2004; Richards & Rodgers, 2014; Wardhaugh, 2006). Successful communication is therefore a social process, within which what is said by a speaker is accepted as meaningful and appropriate by a hearer.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) discern how linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic, and strategic competencies are categorized within the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR); and,
- B) compare traditional (Grammar Translation Method – GTM) and communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches to understanding language.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) was implemented in Uzbekistan in 2012 as a framework for teaching, learning, and assessing languages. CLT is employed within CEFR (Beresova, 2017) and the approach is much different than the rule-based/grammar-translation method (GTM) to language teaching that language teachers are accustomed

to in Uzbekistan (more on this topic will be discussed in Chapter 2). Within CLT, the identity of a language teacher is that of a facilitator instead as a conduit of information. Learning languages for communicative purposes shifts the classroom focus from the teacher to the learner; however, this shift does not mean the teacher no longer has a role to play! A teacher's role is to guide students to become communicatively competent in the following four areas: linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic, and strategic. This section is intended to discuss communicative competencies and introduce classroom interactive activities on how to better to teach foreign languages within the CEFR framework.

Think about the following:

What is the difference among traditional and non-traditional ways to teaching language?

What do you understand when we speak about different communicative competencies?

How one can organize classes in terms of four competencies?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

A head of an English Language department was asked by the rector of the University to observe a teacher's lesson, and to determine if the language teacher is using communicative approaches in his/her class. The head of the department (observer) expected to see a class on family, in which, students interacted with one another and did group discussions on their own stories on this chosen topic. However, the head of the department only saw the teacher explaining the vocabulary and the expected grammatical rules students should memorize. The observer reported the class was not interactive and the teacher's voice could be heard only during the lesson.

The following day, the head of the English Department decided to conduct a master class based on CLT. Everyone was interested in this communicative class, including the teacher who was recently observed. The class started. The topic was "The Principles of Communicative Competence." Rather than starting with an explanation of the rules on the principles of communicative competence, the head gave two examples. The first read:

The sister (she) of my friend (he), sitting in front of me, is the best.

The head asked the class to discuss for two minutes who is sitting, **he** or **she**. Some said **he** is sitting, while others said **she** is. Furthermore,

the head asked the teachers why some people made the decisions they did. The class discussed but did not come to a consensus. The head asked if there were any syntactical rules that would guarantee *his* or *her* sitting? No teacher could answer the department head's question. **This example shows that syntactic rules are not enough to answer his query.** Language is about social context, that is, the real life to which syntactical rules should fit into, and not the other way around. People, while communicating, could make mistakes from a GTM perspective but might be right from a communicative perspective. In other words, GTM says that "friend/he" is sitting because "there is at least a collocational relationship between "friend/he" and "sitting", in which *sitting in front of me* "is a phrase headed by the participle" (Matthews, 1981, p. 176). CLT, however, prioritizes communication that takes place in a concrete time, space and social context, thus *he* or *she* might be the case of sitting in that time, space, and social context.

The department head gave another example to demonstrate how non-linguistic factors affect the way we interpret words, sentences, etc. The example reads:

I will be back in five minutes.

The head continued the previous discussion and asked participants whether this utterance could be considered successful or not (i.e., successful communication can ensue). Teachers mostly said there was no problem in understanding and the intended meaning was apparent. However, the head said that this communication was not successful between two people in real life because the speaker's interlocutor did not understand appropriately the utterance from a cultural perspective. (Even though this utterance is grammatically correct.) The head explained the social context for this utterance to the teachers: an Uzbek who was talking to a person from the United States. Once this utterance was made, the American questioned it, saying "whether it is real five minutes or Uzbek five minutes." The American used to experience that Uzbeks use the phrase 5 minutes to represent a certain amount of time, but not actual five minutes. Even though five minutes is an objective fact, different cultures affect the way we differently interpret this objective fact. **Thus, we should decide whether we are educating students to be competent only in knowing facts and rules, or they should also be able to put these facts and rules into practice.** One should be able to accomplish a communicative goal.

REFLECTION

What do you think about the examples given in the vignette? Can you provide additional language examples that shows how non-linguistic factors favour meaning construction in human communication?

KEY CONCEPTS

There are six key concepts in this section: CEFR, communicative competence, linguistic / grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, pragmatic / discursive competence, and strategic competence. All competencies will be expanded upon in the next section. We will briefly explain each one below.

CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference) is an international framework within which the language ability of learner is explained and assessed identically (assessment). However, CEFR is not limited to assessment. It is also about teaching and learning. Within CEFR, teaching and learning are based on CLT within which four competences are taught during the class.

Communicative competence – an ability and knowledge of a language user about how, what and where to speak appropriately from the view point of culture, traditions, shared rules and norms. An ability of understanding social meaning and being understood within a social context. It consists of four aspects: linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic/discourse, and strategic competence.

Linguistic or grammatical competence – is the ability to be able to apply grammatical, lexical, syntactical, and stylistic rules to oral and written utterances. Linguistic competence is important since it explains how utterances and sentences are structured – structural conceptualization of language. However, these rules are not enough to accomplish a communicative goal since non-linguistic factors play a role in constructing social meanings.

Pragmatic/discourse competence – an ability to interpret and convey meaning in context. To understand a dynamic meaning depends on time, space, and social context. While communicating people not only exchange meaningful structures and semantics but they transfer intentions. An utterance carries within itself such intentions of a speaker. This intention is tied to time, space, and social context. To able to interpret

these intentions in communications is to possess a pragmatic/discourse competence.

Sociolinguistic competence – being aware of how culture(s), shared social rules and norms affect the way we describe things, objects, and processes within a society. Sociolinguistic competence targets at developing students' ability to understand how different cultures choose different grammar, syntax, semantic, stylistics in describing the same objects, subjects, and processes. It also tries to understand how something is spoken appropriately in a social context.

Strategic competence – while lacking knowledge in linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic competences, strategic competence is being able to overcome such a shortage of knowledge by delivering a message from one language into another one with the help of means other than those in linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic competencies. While communicating with different people in a foreign language we are not always aware of certain words. To be able to deliver the meaning of these unknown words without using these words themselves implies the possession of strategic competence.

ACTION

Read the following reflection – in its original – by an Uzbek university language teacher who has some thoughts about teaching communicative competencies from a CLT perspective. Then, explain if you agree or disagree with the teacher. Please write a brief plan about how you would integrate communicative competences in your own class.

There are many approaches and methods for language teaching and learning. In the last decade, in Uzbekistan, CLT has become popular. This term is closely associated with CEFR. I would like to associate CLT with learning through practice, real-life situations, where each single element of the language is trialed. Exploring the world through speaking orally and explaining in a written form. I think it is most important for us language teachers to not think of our language teaching as a content area of knowledge. I think we should enable our learners to be **competent communicators**. Language is therefore a tool for real communication and not a thing to be studied. I think we should think about communicative competencies and how to better organize a class, in which a teacher enhances students' four competencies simultaneously. At the beginning of the year a very good example I usually provide for my students is car: I say to them: imagine you are learning to drive a car.

Do you think that just being literate on the theory of driving is enough to drive? Or, do you agree that one can drive if only there is enough knowledge? Of course, ability is important here, that is: to be a good driver one should be able to cope with driving in various real-life situations, even risky. And it can be achieved only by practice. So, the student driver is sitting in the driver seat while the instructor is sitting next to him. The instructor does not drive for him, but assists with instructions and directions. The same is in language learning where learners are trained to be able to communicate in the target language in different situations being aware of culture, social context, etc.

SUMMARY

CLT is a topic that needs to be integrated in teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan. Such integration should take place by distinguishing from a traditional language teaching (GTM) and arriving at the key principles of CLT. Below is a comparative table of GTM and CLT.

Table 2. Comparative Table of GTM and CLT.

GTM	CLT
Rule is prioritized over practice. GTM believes that knowing the linguistic rules can secure the successfulness of communication.	Practice is prioritized over rules. Rules still play a role, <i>but they are not determining the meaning of utterances</i> . Students out of practice/in different real-life situations should derive rules. Thus, we have grammar in context, syntax in context, semantics in context, etc.
Teacher is the main source of knowledge generation. Students are expected to be taught, and not to be guided.	Teacher is not imposing his or her will on students. There is no right or wrong knowledge. Students <i>are exposed to real-life situations</i> , within which they generate their own knowledge on how to communicate appropriately in a situation.
Teaching is based on learning and memorizing rules, facts, and meanings from texts.	Teaching is based on developing students' thinking abilities, through which they themselves get to know about rules, facts, and meanings.

HOMework TASK ONE

Please choose one English language class (e.g., speaking class or vocabulary class), which you have already taught, and which you will use for your homework tasks in this book. This class could be one you feel has been very successful, mediocre, or not successful. When you choose an English language class, please write a short description about it (e.g., who are the students, language levels, content area, etc.) and explain the challenges you have in making his class communicative.

Then, please choose one lesson from your English language class you described above. Please give a brief overview (1 paragraph) of the lesson. You will use this lesson throughout the book and you will have different versions of the same plan with different foci.

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SECTION 1.2

LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

"... the harmony between thought and reality is to be found in the grammar of the language" (Wittgenstein, 1974, p. 162).

GOALS

The purpose of this section is to discuss the first feature of communicative competence – *linguistic competence* – and show how people share common linguistic rules (grammar, syntax, semantics, phonetics, and stylistics), with the help of which they can recognize meaningful structures (form) and signs (semantics). Thus, at the level of linguistic competence we learn language through its form/structure and meanings/semantics) – two facets of Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman's (1999) form, meaning, and use conceptualization of language, which we are drawing from, are in Figure One below:

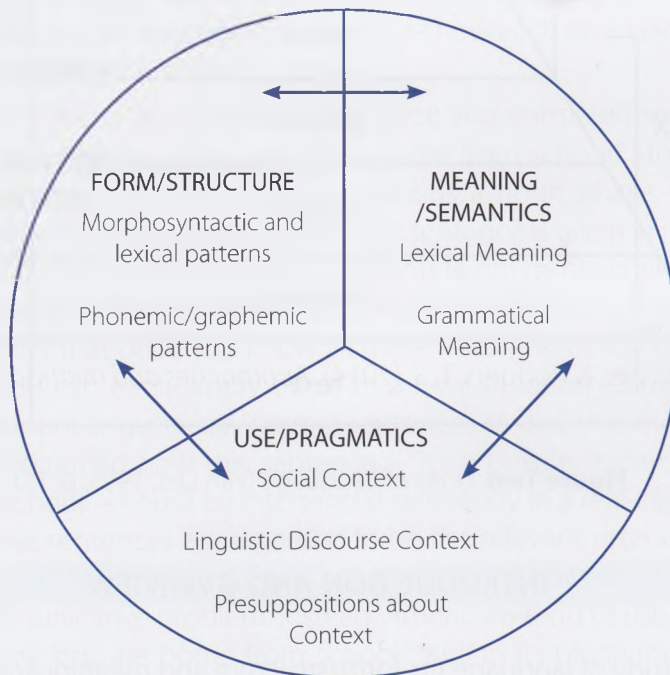


Figure One. Form-Meaning-Use (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

Language at the level of form/structure and meanings/semantics could only be employed to understand recognizable within a community words, phrases, sentences, texts, utterances; as such, to know form/structure and meanings/semantics is important but not enough to accomplish communicative goal.

Thus, by the end of this section, you will only be able to:

- A) discuss how linguistic competence is tied to form, meaning, use; and,
- B) confirm your knowledge of the building blocks of language:

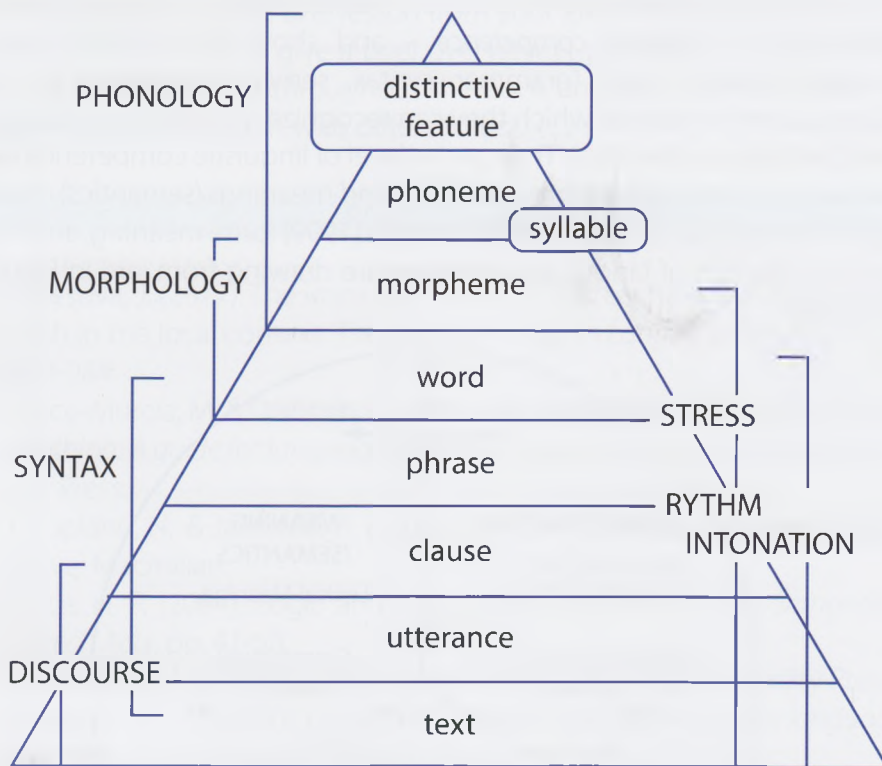


Figure Two. Units of Language (van Lier, 1995, p. 15).

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

The study of language (its form/structure and meanings/semantics) in Uzbekistan was regarded as being the main source of knowledge that was believed to secure the successfulness of human communication. We often

relied on dictionary meanings, structured rules, and impenetrable facts when we learn and teach language. However, times have shifted and with new insights from cognitive linguistics (Langacker, 1991), Construction Grammar (Croft, 2001), and recent approaches to Applied English Linguistics (Larsen-Freeman, 2003), we have moved to a more communicational/functional approach.

Think about the following:

- 1) What does linguistic competence mean to you?
- 2) Please think about the word, 'facilitator.' How would you facilitate a language class while understanding the core of linguistic competence; how does this approach differ from what you already do?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

I remember vividly my language teachers at the Uzbekistan State University of World Languages in the 2000s who educated me in the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). From that time, we targeted at analyzing only form/structure and meanings/semantics and left out an analysis of use/discourse/pragmatics. Let's see how such an analysis looked like in the following example:

A teacher in class asks students to analyze and translate the following utterance: "It's a holiday today; my kid is home from school." Students say that this is a simple sentence, which contains a noun phrase, verb, and secondary parts of speech. Each word in the sentence is given in its primary meaning, thus it is a neutral sentence. Students learnt by heart all the words given in these sentences. The dictionary helped students to translate them easily. GTM says that once you know all these rules (the building blocks of language), you can easily apply them to a new situation, composing an indefinite amount linguistically correct sentences to describe the reality.

We never questioned how this sentence – "It's a holiday today; my kid is home from school" – could be interpreted differently in a real-life situation. So, once these sentences are regarded to be the relevant utterances from the viewpoint of form/structure and meanings/semantics, their use could cause a communicative problem. Instead, Americans tend to use, "It's a holiday today, my kids are home from school." "Kid" in its plural form. To use "kid" in a singular form may mean (meaning-in-use) "my kid, whom I do not like or even despise" is home. To show endearment, the speaker may use

the singular noun, child, instead of kid. The form/structure and meanings/ semantics never tells us meaning-in-use, functional meaning, communicative meaning.

REFLECTION

Think about the vignette and reflect on it and the relationship among form, meaning, and use. Then, think about the following sentence: *Vegetarians like eating beef*. How could this sentence be correct in its form? Using Figure Two above, what are the building blocks of this sentence? (Thus, can you explain each level of the pyramid with the sentence, *Vegetarians like eating beef*?)

ACTION

Please write a one-page response to the following inquiry: Is human communication the totality of linguistic rules (form and semantics), or, it is more than that? If so, how; if not, how not? Use evidence from your life to provide your rationale and justification.

KEY CONCEPTS

There are seven key concepts in this section: Structured linguistics, sound image (signifier), mental image (signified), linguistic competence, form, meaning, and use. We will briefly explain each one below.

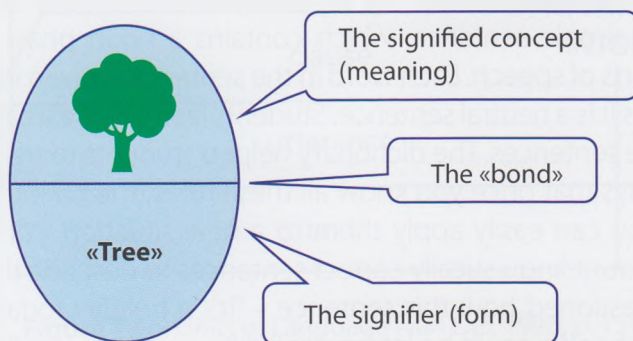


Figure Three. Signified and signifier (Payne, 2010).

Structured linguistics – linguistic competence is built upon structural linguistics of Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. According to structural linguistics, a meaningful sign is composed of two elements: sound image

and mental image. **Sound image (signifier)** – pronounced letters in a sequential order, which is supposed to cause a mental image. **Mental image (signified)** – the meaningful image, which comes up in the minds of people as a result of a pronounced sound image.

This dual explanation of meanings (words, phrases, sentences, texts), according to de Saussure, is an objective phenomenon. This objectivity is characterized by the fact that meaningful words/sentences exist independently of peoples' interpretation of these words and sentences. Thus, de Saussure proposes to study language at the level of its form/structure and meanings/semantics.

Linguistic competence – an unconscious as well as conscious knowledge of language “which consists of the basic elements of communication: sentence patterns, morphological inflections, lexical resources, and phonological or orthographic systems” (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, 16).

An American's Perspective of the Form-Meaning-Use Dimensions

The subsystems of form, meanings, and use (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999) are both interdependent and overlapping because “each element in a language is explained by reference to its function in the total linguistic system” (Halliday, 1994, p. xiv).¹ I will illustrate the interdependency and overlapping nature of the three dimensions with the title I was given during my Peace Corps Service. Although I was called a Peace Corps Volunteer (PCV) from the American Government perspective, that was not my title in China. Of the 72 countries Peace Corps serves, China volunteers are the only volunteers not called PCVs, but rather, US-China Friendship Volunteers. I have been intrigued with this change of name for quite some time. Through an explication of this noun phrase I will show how the linguistic system of language is a part of the social system. I will begin with Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman's (1999) subsystem of form.

Form, as one of the dimensions, “consists of the visible or audible units: the sounds (or signs in the case of sign language), written symbols, inflectional morphemes, function words (e.g., *of*), and syntactic structures” (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, p. 34). Form takes into consideration how grammar

¹ Dr. David Chiesa, an editor of this manual.

operates at the subsentential or morphological level and is constituted by studies in phonology, graphology, semiology, morphology, and syntax. *US-China Friendship Volunteer* is pronounced as /iu es tʃaɪnə frɛndʃɪp vɒlən'tɪər/, and is a noun phrase (NP) with five morphemes. *US-China* (noun + noun) are two free morphemes compounded to form one lexical item. *Friendship*, (noun + noun), consists of one free and one bound morpheme. The bound morpheme, *ship*, is derivational and does not change the grammatical function of the word. *Volunteer* consists of one free morpheme. The word order, or internal structure, of the NP *US-China Friendship Volunteer*, is fixed. The NP is broken down by the subject determiner, *US-China*, and then followed by the noun head. A NP "consist of a noun as head, alone or accompanied by one or more dependents" (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 326). The pre-head dependent adjective, *friendship*, accompanies *volunteer*; thus, the internal structure is fixed and the word order cannot be conceived as **Friendship US-China Volunteer*. This structure is the form of the noun phrase *US-China Friendship Volunteer*.

Meaning is another dimension. "When dealing with meaning, we want to know what a particular English grammar structure means and what semantic contribution it makes whenever it is used" (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p. 4). When placed in an appropriate case-form, the NP functions as a complement in clause structure; for example, as a subject (*A US-China Friendship Volunteer arrived*), object (*Our school needs a US-China Friendship Volunteer*), or predicate complement (*Dave is a US-China Friendship Volunteer*). Additionally, the *US-China Friendship Volunteer's denotation*, the dictionary definition or referential meaning, means "an unpaid person from the US Peace Corps who represents a friendly relationship between the United States of America and The People's Republic of China." The phrase's *connotation*, an extension beyond the literal denotation and the emotional association of the word, will be different from the denotation. One might assume that there is a relationship between the American and Chinese that involves mutual knowledge, esteem, affection, and respect.

A question inevitably arose from other China volunteers and myself during our two years of service: What kind of connotations did the title Peace Corps Volunteer hold for it to be changed to US-China Friendship Volunteers? According to Bonnie Thie, Peace Corps China country director (2009-present),

From talking with the first country director, my understanding is that the name "PC" had connotations linked to third world development work

and to notions of clandestine or subversive activities. In addition "corps" carried military overtones. Because of the concerns, a unique name was agreed on that recognized the specific goal of building people-to-people friendships. Both names were used in the country agreement which was signed in 1998 (personal communication, October 2009).

Bonnie's explanation of PC emphasizes how each element in a language makes reference to its function (meaning-in-use) in the social context. PC has a semantic relation of situational reference or exophoric reference. Halliday and Hassan (1989) posit that an "exophoric item...is one which does not name anything; it signals that reference must be made to the context of situation" (p. 33). The exophoric reference of PC retrieved a negative referential meaning of "subversive activities" and "military;" thus, the title was changed. This example shows how a word's reference (to a social context and to different cultures) can influence the use, or lack thereof, of a specific lexical item in a certain context.

Use is the third dimension in Larsen-Freeman's form, meaning, and use paradigm. According to Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), pragmatics is another name for use. Levinson (1983) explained that *pragmatics* are the "relations between language and context that are grammaticalized, or encoded in the structure of a language" (p. 9). Just knowing the form and meaning of the noun phrase, *US-China Friendship Volunteer*, is not sufficient for someone to be able to use it appropriately. A speaker will need to know when to use *US-China Friendship Volunteer* instead of *Peace Corps Volunteer* or another one of the hundreds of volunteer organizations from America that is currently in China. While I was in China, *US-China Friendship Volunteer* was used only in speeches at banquets, ceremonies, and festivals and in any other formal interactions between a Peace Corps staff and someone from China's Communist Party.

ACTION

Find a phrase that you use in your textbook, such as the one similar to *US-China Friendship Volunteer*. Can you identify the form, meaning, and use? Please write it out and then explain your answer.

SUMMARY

Teaching linguistic competence in Uzbekistan has traditionally been carried out within a Saussurian linguistics agenda with the close focus on form/structure and meanings/semantics. In that, rules dominate over practice, assuming knowing rules can secure the successfulness of human communication. However, a theoretical and practical shift has happened (See above). The teaching and learning of "grammar" need not be dull, static, or sentence-bound. When approached from a language awareness perspective and framed in discursive context, *teaching grammatical patterns (form, meaning, and use)* can be effective, engaging, lively, and lasting. As Larsen-Freeman (2003) asserts, "grammar is never boring" (p. 21). Moreover, Hewings and Hewings (2005) argue that "grammar is a fascinating area of study and (is) at the heart of our ability to communicate with one another" (p. xix).

HOMEWORK TASK TWO

Please refer to the lesson you chose for Homework Task One. In a one-page report please do the following: First, explain how you understand linguistic competence in general (i.e., what does linguistic competence mean to you); Second, explain how the lesson you chose for Homework Task One (A) can be transformed to have linguistic competence as the focus.

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SECTION 1.3

PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

"Pragmatics studies the context within which an interaction occurs as well as the intention of the language user ... Pragmatics also explores how listeners and readers can make inferences about what is said and written in order to arrive at an interpretation of the user's intended meaning" (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 20).

GOALS

The section illustrates to what extent successful human communication depends on language-in-use, which is not limited to form/structure and meanings/semantics. A word/sentence at the level of form and semantics may mean one thing, but it can be interpreted differently in use. People while interpreting words/sentences add their own intentions to these words/sentences. Thus, words/sentences in their use may change their primary/dictionary meanings. Pragmatics deals with "what people mean by their utterances than what the words or phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves" (Yule, 1996, p.3).

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) understand that interpreting meaning is not an objective phenomenon, but it depends on a particular social context; and,
- B) explore how intended meanings could be taught via the cooperative principle.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Pragmatics is an ability to interpret and convey meaning in social context. For example, look at the following picture. This picture is something you can use with students to introduce the concept of pragmatics.

It might be difficult for you to identify what they are doing and saying because we are not exactly clear about the context in which they are in. In other words, imagine if they were boyfriend and girlfriend, or friends at a coffee shop, or tutor and tuttee, or even business partners. Depending on

the context and the specific roles of each of these people, the language they use will be different. Thus, we will interpret what they say differently depending on the context. For example, imagine that they are dating and are on their first date. The woman says to the man, "I like you a lot." Then, let us assume they are on their 101st date. The man asks the woman, "Do you love me?" She replies, "I like you a lot." We thus interpret the woman's utterance deeply and feel sorry for the man when they are on their 101st date because she turned down his inquiry. When we think about language and context specifically, people will transfer not only fixed meanings within utterances, but intentions within these utterances (Hymes, 1967).



Figure Four. Picture Description Task.

Think about the following:

- 1) What is the relationship between language use and social context (i.e. intended meaning)?
- 2) What classroom activities could be introduced to organize classes from the vantage point of pragmatic competence?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

While observing an in-service teacher training class, the director of the Innovation Center under the Uzbekistan State University of World Languages, witnessed how a male teacher trainer was talking to a female teacher about an inappropriate behavior. The female was talking on the phone during the class. She believed she remained unnoticed. However,

the male trainer saw the teacher and then started communicating with her in the following way:

Trainer: Hello

Teacher: Sorry

Trainer: How are you?

Teacher: Excuse me!

Trainer: I think, you published a book last year on the topic that we are talking today, didn't you?

Teacher: I am sorry, because my child is ill and thus I am worrying, and thus I am trying to know about how he is now.

REFLECTION

Think about the problem indicated in the vignette. Why did the teacher not answer any of the trainer's questions during their communication? Was the trainer satisfied by the teacher's justification about her talking on the phone during the class session?

KEY CONCEPTS

There are six key concepts in this section: pragmatic competence, the Cooperative Principle, maxim of quantity, maxim of quality, maxim of relevance, and maxim of manner. We will briefly explain each one below.

Pragmatic competence – an ability to interpret and convey meaning in (social) context. The intended meaning is more than what is said. A dialogue can be wrong in terms of form/structure and meanings/semantics, but it can be correct from the viewpoint of pragmatic meaning. Once interlocutors understand each other's intended meanings, even with grammatically incorrect sentences, the communication is still successful.

The cooperative principle – an equal amount of effort (i.e. true, sincere and appropriate information) that is invested by both the speaker and hearer to construct meaning while communicating. Consider the following dialogue (Yule, 1996, p. 36):

Man: Does your dog bite?

Woman: No (the man reaches down to pet the dog. The dog bites the man's hand).

Man: Ouch! Hey! You said your dog doesn't bite.

Woman: He doesn't. But that's not my dog.

What do you think is the problem in this conversation? Why is this communication not successful? How did the interlocutors not understand each other, even though semantically and grammatically correct sentences were deployed? While we talk, we do not only exchange semantically meaningful and grammatically correct utterances, we also "...provide an appropriate amount of information (unlike the woman [in the given conversation]); we assume that they are telling the truth, being relevant, and trying to be as clear as they can" (Yule, 1996, p. 37). Grice's (1975) cooperative principle (maxims) should be followed in a dialogue so that interlocutors understand each other within a given social context:

1) The *maxim of quantity* – evaluation by the speaker hearer's need in new information (much/less speaking may lead to unsuccessful communication). In the given example, the woman did not provide enough information to the man. She just said *no*, which is misinterpreted by the man, who thought that *no* refers to *this dog does not bite*. This break of the maxim led to the failure of the communication, the result of which is an unintended action, i.e. the dog bit the man.

2) The *maxim of quality* – truth, intersubjectively accepted truth within a society. Both speaker's and hearer's beliefs on truthfulness of what is spoken and what is heard. Usually, when people talk to each other, they rely on common, shared memories, practices and experiences. These shared practices and experiences contain within themselves a certain type of truth, which is known to both interlocutors. Besides, if a person poses a statement without enough evidence to prove that statement, which is easily recognizable to the other party in the communication, a conversation may fail since one of the parties is not telling the truth. Analyze the following dialogue and try to guess at what stage the conversation is broken because the maxim of quality is not kept.

David: Have you heard about corpus linguistics? (David did his PhD, using corpus linguistics. So, he is a specialist in this particular field).

Ulugbek: Yes, but I am not a specialist in this particular field.

David: You should integrate corpus linguistics into your research.

Ulugbek: I think, corpus linguistics is bad for the analysis of my data.

David: Ok, no questions so far.

The conversation went well till Ulugbek posed a statement – *I think, corpus linguistics is bad for the analysis of my data* – without possessing adequate evidence about corpus linguistics. This was clear to David since earlier in the conversation Ulugbek said he is not a specialist in that field. Realizing that Ulugbek talking about things, even though he lacks evidences on those things, David did not want to continue his conversation further. David's intention was to introduce a new perspective to the analysis of data, but he stopped doing it once he realized that Ulugbek is not cooperative in that case.

3) *The maxim of relevance* – connected with the topic, timely given information. While talking to each other, people are required to pose utterances that are connected with the discussed topic. To be irrelevant in saying words and sentences that are off the topic may lead to the situation, where a hearer stops accepting speaker's information.

4) *The maxim of manner* – coherent (sequence, structure), well ordered and – organized utterance, absence of ambiguity. A speaker should be able to realize that his utterance is transmitted to a hearer, to an audience clearly. For example, there are lots of cases among scholars in Uzbekistan, in which the maxim of manner is broken while using PP presentations. Scholars use long sentences, texts from legal documents in their PP presentations, which are not readable by an audience because of poorly ordered organization of the language of PP presentations.

Generally, while we are communicating, we have to follow linguistic rules as well as Grice's maxims to be successful. Our success in communication does not only depend on form/semantics, but also on use, within which utterances should be ordered in accordance with quantity, quality, relevance, and manner.

SUMMARY

Pragmatic competence needs to be taught in foreign language teaching classes as it enhances students' ability to interpret meanings in social context, in real-life situations. Interactive classroom activities should be conducted around the concepts such as understanding the cooperative principle, through which we enhance students' pragmatic competence.

HOMework TASK THREE

Please refer to the lesson you chose for Homework Task One. In a one-page report or less, please do the following: First, explain briefly how you understand pragmatic competence (i.e., what does pragmatic competence mean to you); Second, explain how the lesson you chose for Homework Task One (A) can be organized so that pragmatic competence is the focus.

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SECTION 1.4

SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

"... a child learning to communicate through language has to acquire 'knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, in what manner'. In other words, there are social rules [and shared practices] of use, a dimension of language use 'without which the rules of grammar would be useless'" (Street & Leung, 2010, p. 292).

GOALS

The goal of this section is to show that during communication people exchange not only intentions (pragmatic competence), but also transfer via language form/structure and semantics particular identities, values, ideologies, and patterns of behaviors (sociolinguistic competence). Language that is used in jokes, greetings, story-telling, essay writing, publications, and books evoke shared experiences that are peculiar to a certain culture. Thus, *meanings* of those words/sentences that are used in these jokes, greetings, story-telling, essays, publications are not in those words/sentences themselves, but in shared experiences and practices. To communicate means to evoke and exchange these experiences and practices (i.e., language-in-use).

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) explain how culture (shared experiences and practices within a certain language community) affects the way people interpret words/sentences/utterances; and,
- B) explore how such variables as socio-economic class, ethnicity, gender, age, historical memory, and ideology could contribute to the construction of meanings of utterances we use in our life.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Different cultures share different values, social rules, norms, practices, and ideologies. Even within one culture these practices, social rules, and

norms could differ depending on such variables as social class, ethnicity, gender, and age (Coupland & Jaworski, 2009; Wardhaugh, 2006). While communication takes place between and within cultures, people evoke and exchange different values, social rules, norms, myths, beliefs, prejudice, and/or ideology via language they use. For example, the utterance "I will be back in five minutes" (see Section One) brings to the forefront different shared practices in Uzbekistan from the United States. In Uzbekistan people use the phrase "five minutes" to denote something more than an exact time of five consecutive minutes. They share the practice of being absent even two hours, and this is normal because they share this practice of being absent longer than an actual five minutes. In the United States, however people do not share this practice, and if an Uzbek uses this phrase while talking to an American, U.S. citizen may interpret "five minutes" as being five minutes. Thus, communicating means exchanging shared practices and experiences. Being able to interpret these shared practices and experiences between different cultures as well as within a culture implies the possession of sociolinguistic competence.

Think about the following:

How culture(s) can be reflected in utterances?

What socio-cultural factors play a key role in interpreting utterances?

How could one able to teach classes in terms of sociolinguistic competence?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

One day a head of the English Language department attended a class conducted by one of the best CLT teachers at the Uzbekistan State University of World Languages. The head was particularly interested in the types of CLT activities that this teacher (she) employs to teach sociolinguistic competence. The teacher's class was exceptionally interesting on that day: at the beginning of the class, the teacher asked the class to write on a sheet of paper how they interpret/understand the concept of love. The students (Ss) wrote the following: Love is...

S1 (she): "...passionate feeling toward someone who steals your peace days and nights";

S2 (she): "...addiction. Sacrifice your life for the sake the sake of others";

S3 (she): "...quicksilver";

S4 (she): "...understanding each other all your life";

S5 (he): "...emotion which comes of knowledge and understanding, as knowledge changeable, feeling changeable as well";

S6 (she): "...mutual understanding, respect, sympathy";

S7 (he): "...the attitude towards somebody who feels appealing";

S8 (she): "...abstract feeling. We have many kinds of love: to motherland, to children, to a family".

After this, the teacher asked the class to look in the dictionary and find out the meanings of "love". The class found the following dictionary meanings of love: (i) "a strong feeling of deep affection for sb/sth, especially a member of your family or a friend"; (ii) "a strong feeling of affection for sb that you are sexually attracted to"; (iii) "the strong feeling of enjoyment that sth gives you"; (iv) "a person, a thing or an activity that you like very much" (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 9th edition, 2015). The head was surprised why these differences between the dictionary meanings and the students' interpretations happened.

REFLECTION

Think about the situation above. Why was there a difference between the dictionary meaning of *love* and the students' interpretation of *love*? What social factors facilitated the emergence of these differences? What do you think was the next activity the teacher did with the class to proceed further?

ACTION

Please write a one-page response to the following inquiry: How can human communication and interpretations be affected by non-linguistic factors? Use evidence from your life to provide your rationale and justification on the relationship between language and culture.

KEY CONCEPTS

There are three key concepts in this section: sociolinguistic competence, ideology, and cultural metaphors. We will briefly explain each one below.

Sociolinguistic competence – being aware of how culture(s) and the variables such as gender, age, social status, shared norms and rules,

and ideologies affect the way we describe and/or interpret objects and processes. As such, different cultures interpret the same objects and processes differently. Each culture and the variables carry within themselves shared practices, experiences, rules and norms, shortly called *shared knowledge*. Shared knowledge is prior knowledge that has been constructed during previous experiences among interlocutors. Such knowledge is key in securing common interpretations of objects and processes. Even though people talk the same language and use grammatically correct sentences (form/semantics), they may not understand each other because of knowledge that is not shared. Myths, proverbs, music, poems, tales, publications carry within themselves certain shared knowledge, which is activated in and through language itself. For example, there is a difference between shared knowledge in Uzbekistan and the United States with regard to how teachers start lessons. Read the dialogue between a teacher and student and explain how shared knowledge and practices in university education are materialized in and through language. T=teacher; Ss=students.

In Uzbekistan:

T: Who is absent today?

Ss: Student B is absent, but he has a good excuse for not coming.

T: But, he did not take my permission.

Ss: We do not know B said that he/she had asked your permission.

T: No! Be calm! Let's start our lesson.

In the United States:

T: Good morning, everyone. I hope you are doing well. Today we will be addressing three main content areas: X, Y, and Z. Before we begin, I would just like to make sure I know who is not here today.

Ss: Student B is absent today.

T: Thanks for letting me know. (Teacher takes note on a piece of paper.) Would anyone like to take notes for Student B and let him know about the content for the day? Also, please let him know that if he wants the PowerPoint for the lesson, he will need to contact me after class to my email because the PPT is not on our course Moodle.

Ss: Ok. Will do!

T: Great – let's begin.

As we can see from the examples given above, different cultures carry within themselves different shared knowledge and practices about the same social phenomenon, i.e. starting class at universities. In the cultural context of Uzbekistan, the university teacher shows his or her authority and control over students at the beginning of the class (Duff, 2010, p. 430); while in the United States the focus is not about showing authority, but about making sure the student who is absent receives the necessary information from the class. Thus, through communication, people in different cultures materialize again and again what they share. It is within these shared practices and knowledge that language and people who use it get their significance, social role, identities. As such, "... dialogue imposes itself as the way in which men achieve significance as men" (Janks, 2010, p. 42). Consequently, sociolinguistic competence examines how culture (shared knowledge/practices) affects what we say and think appropriate to say in a social situation. What is appropriate/sayable in Uzbekistan to start the class at universities may be inappropriate/unsayable in the United States.

Ideology – a set of beliefs, shared practices and social institutions within a normative context. As such, ideology determines what language (form and semantics) is meaningful and appropriate within a specific time and space... Any text (i.e., spoken and written) can carry an ideology of a time and space. For example, curricular and textbooks are not exceptional in this regard. "Researchers conduct such content analyses to investigate [ideology in the example of] the social roles stated and implied by textbook activities ..." (McGroarty, 2010, pp. 24, 26). We will analyze two textbooks (see Figure Five below): one is the textbook on English (Kid's English) for third grade students, which was designed by the language specialists in Uzbekistan and approved by the Ministry of Public Education of Uzbekistan to use in public schools in the country (Khan, Jurayev, & Inogamova, 2015); the second book is the textbook on English (English World) for third grade students, which was prepared by the British language specialists and published by Macmillan Education (Bowen & Hocking, 2009). Below is given a comparative analysis of how different cultures and ideologies can be reified in and through language. The analysis focuses on: *the ideas* with which participants and observers frame their understanding of linguistic varieties *and map those understandings* onto people, events, and activities that are significant to

them. These are ideologies – because they are suffused with the political and moral issues pervading the particular sociolinguistic field and are subject to the interests of their bearer's social position.

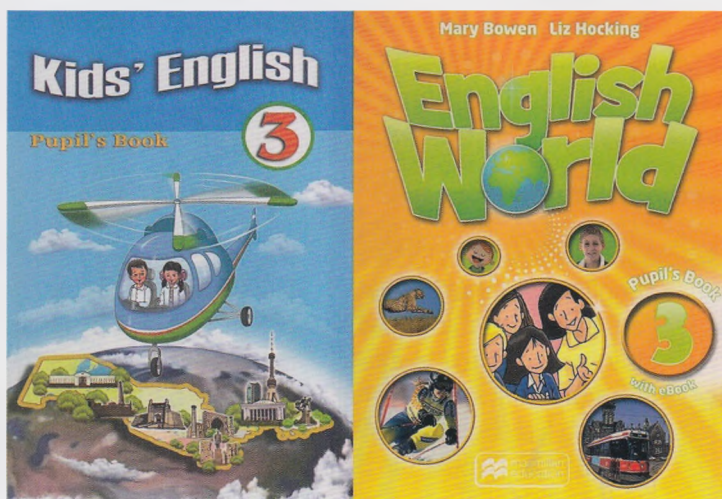


Figure Five. English Language Textbooks in Uzbekistan.

The comparative analysis given above shows that “reading the word cannot be separated from reading the world” (Janks, 2010, p. 42). Utterances contain within themselves different ideologies of different cultures. However, as analysis has shown, communication does not take in the form of only utterances. They may be pictures, photos, images, etc, that all are meaningful signs that carry within themselves different ideologies. Thus, meaningful utterances and signs are not objective, fixed in rules books and dictionaries. They are dynamic. They represent a society and how this society thinks, what belief systems it has, etc. Interpreting utterances means understanding societies.

Cultural metaphors – figurative utterances that represent a nation's culture, ideology and social institutions. As such, figurative utterances carry within themselves the ways of doing things and seeing the world. Thus, these utterances are active in a sense that they construct the world we live in; they determine our valuing of things (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Lakoff (2004) asserts that “As a result [utterances contain within themselves shared practices, and thus] they shape the goals we seek, the plans we make, the way we act, and what counts as good or bad outcomes of our actions” (Janks, 2010, p. 57). The everyday utterances in the English-speaking countries connected with concept of *time* is spoken via the metaphor *time*

is money, you're wasting my time, I've invested a lot of time in her. Following these metaphorical utterances Lakoff & Johnson conclude (1980, pp.7-8): Time in our culture is a valuable commodity. It is a limited resource that we use to accomplish our goals. Because of the way that the concept of work has developed in modern Western culture, where work is typically associated with the time it takes and time is precisely quantified, it has become customary to pay people by the hour, week, or year.

Table 3. Textbook Comparison

Topics	<i>Kid's English</i> (2015)	<i>English World</i> (2009)
Pictures from Real Life vs. drawn Pictures	English is framed in this cover as something that is imposed onto Uzbekistan (the helicopter of the English kids on coming down onto Uzbekistan. The kids and the country are drawn, which show a type of unrealistic conceptualization of the purpose of the language. Kids English in Uzbekistan is meant to be limited to the Uzbek context. Real life pictures (page 75) are only done to show the power of Uzbekistan – e.g., Samarkand.	The Cover – a combination of Real and Drawn. English is framed as World Englishes or an international language (inclusive) of all humans. The language is conceived as enjoyable and exciting. Real pictures are meant to make connections that English has a true and substantial use in their life. Real pictures are used throughout the book (e.g., Grammar in Conversation). Real pics are used to bring life to the book and to show the connection from English language to culture. Thus, English is a LIVING thing...
Social roles – conceptualized as connected behaviours, rights, obligations, beliefs, and norms	Race – a variety Men and women have specific roles and responsibilities. The ONLY picture that I have seen that defies stereotypical cultural norms of gender and work is the fireman. This role is presented as a woman's responsibility. Women ask more questions in this book and take more of a passive role in the discourse (e.g., parent's corner).	Race – all white. There is a balance of equality between the men and women's roles and responsibilities and how they interact with the world. For example, p. 47 a woman is provided the language of mathematics, which I have not seen in the Uzbek book. Grammar in conversation – the boy asks the girl questions (p. 61), and the girl asks the boy questions (p. 43).

Topics	<i>Kid's English</i> (2015)	<i>English World</i> (2009)
Age (Elderly vs. Young)	The focus is on everyone and how they interact with each type of person.	The focus of the book is on young people. They are the focus.
Tradition(s) – Dressing	Multiculturalism is expressed in the dressing. (Almost like being out in Tashkent and seeing a variety of different people – Russian, Uzbek, and more Western) ...Old traditional stories emphasize “traditionalist” approach – page 80. More women tend to emphasize the traditional outfit. When men have the traditional outfit, it is usually the hat. There is a sense of exclusivity to the Uzbek culture.	The dressing lacks patterns, expressions and is meant to be inclusive of all nationalities. However, there is an expectation of the U.K. traditional dress in the student’s “Grammar in conversation.”
Stress on Family vs. Friend	Family stress is high – throughout the content and pictures. Parent’s corner is very interesting – I believe the parent is expected to be involved in the teaching and learning for the child. Responsibility of learning is on the family.	In this book, there are no section titles that are about family. (Perhaps this vocabulary is taught earlier and not at the third book.) The focus of the family is limited and expressed in stories of America (p. 48) and traveling (p. 74). Responsibility of the learner is on the learner.

While modern Western culture associates *time* with *money*, causing the social institutions such as paying people hourly, weekly; Uzbek culture never experienced such a quantified form of understanding *time*. Uzbek *time* is expressed via such metaphorical utterances as: “Вақт тоғни эмирар, сув тошни кемирар”, “Вақтинг кетди – бахтинг кетди”, “Вақтдан ютдинг – бахтдан ютдинг”, “Вақт – қози”. All these figurative utterances characterize *time* as being a non-quantifiable category. As such, Uzbek *time* is associated with someone’s happiness that could be lost once he or she loses his or her time; or with philosophical power that could destroy even mountains for the duration of long time. Thus, there is no paying salaries hourly or/and weekly in Uzbekistan. These different metaphorical

associations cause differences in social institutions (e.g. paying salary) via language we use.

SUMMARY

Sociolinguistic competence needs to be taught in foreign language teaching classes as it enhances students' communicative competence, their ability to understand culturally-affect meanings, the meanings that are not tied to rules and dictionaries (form and semantics), but meanings that serve a certain function in a social setting.

HOMEWORK TASK FOUR

Please refer to the lesson you chose for Homework Task One. In a one-page report or less, please do the following: First, explain briefly how you understand sociolinguistic competence (i.e., what does sociolinguistic competence mean to you); Second, explain how the lesson you chose for Homework Task One can be organized so that sociolinguistic competence is the focus.

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SECTION 1.5

STRATEGIC COMPETENCE

"If you do not know a foreign language, its form and semantics, this does not mean that you do not know how to communicate in certain social situations in that foreign language" (Azizov, personal communication).

GOALS

This section presents communication strategies that could support ones' ability to be understood in an additional language when he or she lacks linguistic, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic competencies in the target language. Communication strategies, also known as strategic competence, help learners bridge the gap between what they can say and what they want to say.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) explain that effective communication does not solely depend only on being linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatically competent, but also on a persons' ability to effectively use his/her strategic competence during discourse; and,
- B) explore different communication strategies which you can use and/or teach students.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Often, one thinks that if we know linguistic rules (i.e. form and semantics) of a language then we will be able to communicate effectively in the target language. However, this is far from the truth. When a person communicates in an additional language that is not his/her own primary language, oftentimes there are words, phrases, and clauses that could be misunderstood or misinterpreted. Thus, there is a difficult relationship between knowing how to be accurate in a language while also being fluent, which can sometimes, if not spoken effectively, cause communication breakdowns. Additionally, every time we speak a language, we are taking risks that could promote or hinder communication. Sometimes we are embarrassed (e.g., losing face), we do not want to offend anyone, scared of miscommunication, and misunderstanding. For example, authentic

situations such as telephone conversations and job interviews pose lots of concerns for language learners that are less manageable by applying only linguistic rules. For example, what to do if you do not know the meaning of a word/question that is asked in a job interview, to which you have to answer; at the same time, to say to the interviewer that you do not know the meaning of a word directly shows your level of comprehension that might be treated by the interviewer negatively. The traditional foreign language curriculum in Uzbekistan does not deal with these communicative situations. Instead, language education has focused on memorizing linguistic rules that might have nothing to do with real-life situations. This section introduces some ideas about how to teach these strategies to students.

Think about the following:

Think about a time when you used communication strategies to continue a conversation. What were you trying to say? What strategy did you use? What was the result?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

One day a student who was majoring in English came to his language teacher at the university and explained a strange situation that had happened to him while he was talking to a foreigner who was visiting Uzbekistan from the United States. The foreigner did not speak Uzbek or Russian but only English and he was interested in Uzbekistan's national food. The student explained that he could not accurately and fluently talk about the famous Uzbek national food *plov* (i.e., what ingredients it contains and how to cook it). The student said that he felt shameful because he did not represent his country well. The student said he lacked vocabulary; he also said he was accompanied by fear that grammatically incorrect sentences were considered unacceptable (as he was taught). He felt embarrassed. After listening to the student, the teacher thought for a while and was not sure about how to support the student in this situation.

REFLECTION

Think about the situation above. What kind of communication strategies would you tell the student he could have used to communicate with the foreigner in a more effective way?

ACTION

Please write a one-page response to the following inquiry: how can human communication be successful, even if deficiencies connected with linguistic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic competencies arise? Use evidence from your life to provide your rationale and justification on overcoming such deficiencies.

KEY CONCEPTS

There are seven key concepts in this section: strategic competence; an uneasy situation; repair strategies; reduction strategies; generalization strategy; the extended paraphrases; and, compensation. We will briefly explain each one below.

Strategic competence – in having deficiencies in knowledge (linguistic, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic competences), being aware of how one is able to compensate such deficiencies to communicate effectively (Celce-Murcia, 2000, p. 16).

An uneasy situation – a breakdown that might happen during the communication because of (a) a speaker comes across the unfamiliar topic, (b) a speaker faces a situation, in which his/her interlocutor fails to understand the speaker (Canale & Swain, 1980).

Repair strategies – the ways through which one is able to overcome an uneasy situation. They are reduction strategy, generalization strategy, paraphrases (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991).

Reduction strategy – reducing and/or adapting what we know to our goal. Example: if we do not know the vocabulary on routes/travels/tickets, buying a ticket from an automatic vending machine, on which the pictorial explanation is accompanied to customers. By this, we avoid the risk of not being understood by a native speaker.

Generalization strategy – replacing a specific term with a commonly used word without destroying a general meaning of a message. For example, using this *thing* instead of *screwdriver*, for example.

The extended paraphrases – saying its functions rather than mention exactly its name. For example, while talking people can come across special terms that they do not know in foreign language, in which one can use extended paraphrases such as "how one can say this device in your language, with which you can combine two metals together so that they

cannot be separated and transmit electricity" (i.e. the function of a device is targeted).

Compensation – a communicative process, in which a speaker uses verbal and non-verbal language to compensate for communication problems that is caused by speaker's insufficient knowledge in linguistic rules.

SUMMARY

Strategic competence needs to be taught in foreign language teaching classes as it enhances students' ability to overcome uneasy situations that a speaker comes across in real life situations while talking to foreigners.

HOMEWORK TASK FIVE

Please refer to the lesson you chose for Homework Task One. In a one-page report or less, please do the following: First, explain briefly how you understand strategic competence (i.e., what does strategic competence mean to you); Second, explain how you can include strategic competence in the lesson for Homework Task One.

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CHAPTER TWO: LANGUAGE TEACHING

Svetlana Khan, Klara Nazmutdinova, & David L Chiesa, Ph.D.

In Chapter Two you will investigate recent approaches to teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Uzbekistan. In Section 2.1, we will address basic tenets of language teaching and examine the cognitive, linguistic, and affective factors that could play a role in teachers' decision-making process. By the end of this section you will be able to draft a teaching statement that will grow and evolve over the course of your professional career. Second, in Sections 2.2 and 2.3, you will investigate two popular approaches to language teaching— Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Teaching. By the end of these sections you will be able to understand the general reasons behind these approaches and determine whether any (or all) aspects would be pertinent for your local teaching context. In Section 2.4 we will look at the current theoretical approach to teaching EFL in a Post-Method Era. Specifically, we will examine the tenets of particularity, practicality, and possibility. Here, the goal is to provide you with an opportunity to explore the concept of method and methodology and whether thinking in methods is suitable to teaching language to your local context. Section 2.5 will present two different ways to support student's learning outside of the classroom. Chapter 2 will provide you with theoretical and methodological justifications for your microteaching lesson plan.

SECTION 2.1

Principles of Language Teaching

"For every complicated problem, there is an answer that is short, simple, and wrong" (H. L. Mencken).

GOALS

This section addresses the principles of foreign language teaching, and the challenges faced by Uzbekistan university English as a Foreign Language (EFL) educators.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) reflect on the importance of understanding the connection between theory and practice;
- B) know Freeman's (1989) KASA model and Brown's (2000) twelve principles; and,
- C) write your teaching statement.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Each teacher has their own personal theory of teaching, whether they can articulate it or not, and it is based on previous schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors, and classroom practices (Borg, 2003). Personal theory is important for a teacher's professional development. Kontra (1997) iterates this idea, and explains that "Teachers need to know the tricks of their trade, but also need to know why they do what they do" (p.1) In this section, you will explore the teaching principles that focus on cognitive, affective, and linguistic facets, which can help practicing teachers relate theory to practice, evaluate, and justify with confidence why they do what they do.

Think about the following:

Do you think teaching is complicated? If so, why; if not, why not?

Have you ever written a teaching statement?

Do you think that relating theory to practice can help you to teach better? If so, how?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

Teachers go through a long path from being a novice teacher to becoming an experienced professional. In many cases, this path is difficult and many language teachers have left their job to pursue other careers. Knowing how to bring in theory and research into the classroom might have helped those teachers to survive and build a successful teaching carrier. This vignette taken from real life might be very familiar to teachers in Uzbekistan. Read and think how much you agree or disagree with the teacher.

I was invited to the private language center to work with teachers. My duties comprised of lesson observations and running teacher training seminars. I observed all teachers to understand what kind of problems they faced and find possible solutions. The majority of teachers were young, with good English, and very ambitious. The lesson observations revealed that although they had different experiences and teaching styles, many of them lacked understanding of principles of language teaching. I wanted to start the first teacher training seminar with an exploration of teachers' attitudes towards language teaching. I decided to start with participants reading and discussing statements related to teaching like, whether our learners should know grammar; what is the role of reading aloud and translation; the role of the mother tongue in learning foreign languages; and the role of encouragement and reward ... in the middle of the discussion one young teacher stood up and said: 'I don't think this discussion will help me. You must give me something tangible, ready-made recipes, which I can take to my class on Monday!'

REFLECTION

Think about the case above. What is the disconnect between the teacher trainer and the language teacher? Do you share the teacher's opinion? If so, why; if not, why not?

The teacher's view is not unique. Kouraogo (1987) writes that teachers are reported to be consistently asking for "practical tips and ready-made materials to be used as soon as they return to their classrooms" (p. 173). Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) state that teachers do need knowledge and skills that will increase their ability to provide improved opportunities for their students to learn. Teachers need deeper subject knowledge and

greater confidence in classroom management and proficiency in new teaching strategies with a focus on learning rather than on teaching only. Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) argue that understanding teacher development process involves not only knowledge and skills teachers need but also understanding “what sort of person the teacher is and the context in which most teachers work” (p. 14).

Additionally, many researchers in L2 teacher cognition studies and in teacher development look towards the KASA model to understand teacher learning and teacher dynamics. The KASA model is based on Knowledge, Attitude, Skills, and Awarenesses and is portrayed in the following model:

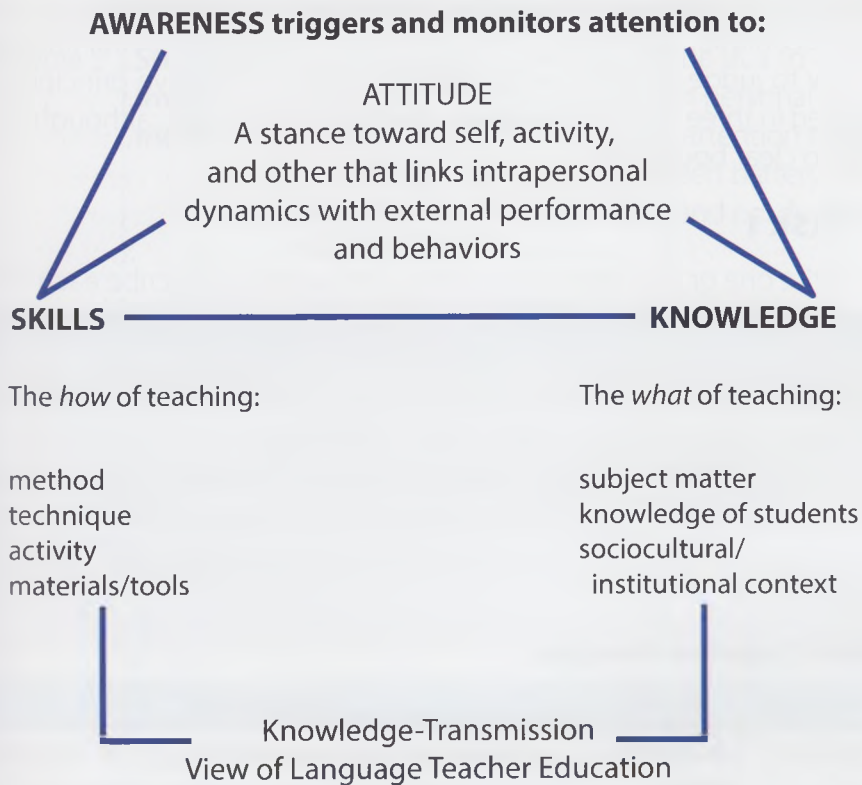


Figure Six. KASA Model (Freeman, 1989).

This model can be used for language teachers to identify their strengths and weaknesses in teaching and learning. Additionally, the model shows that when one aspect of KASA changes, then all other aspects shift as well. Thus, our attitude towards language teaching is tied directly to the

skills that we use and the knowledge of the subject matter. The specific techniques, methods, activities and materials that you use in the classroom have an underlying reason – which is often tied to your attitude. Therefore, for learning to happen for teachers, there should be awareness raising, which results in a change in attitude, knowledge, and skills of teaching.

KEY CONCEPTS

There are three key concepts in this section: cognitive principles, affective principles, and linguistic principles. We will explain aspect below.

There are twelve overarching principles that teachers of EFL can employ to learn how to teach language better. These principles might help language teachers gain an 'all-important ability to comprehend when to use a technique, with whom it will work, how to adapt it for your audience, or how to judge its effectiveness (Brown, 2000). The twelve principles are grouped in three strands: cognitive, affective and linguistic, although some with no clear boundaries.

TASK 1

Write one or two sentences in your own words to describe each of the twelve principles (Brown, 2000).

To teach more effectively teachers must understand how learners learn and what cognitive processes they go through. We cannot teach effectively if we do not know how people create knowledge, how they retain and extract it from the memory. Exploratory learning (Allwright, 2001) can help create a positive learning climate and ensure the learner movement from unconscious incompetence towards unconscious competence (Underhill, 1992).

Table 4. Cognitive Principles

Principle	Name	Explanation
Principle 1	Automat- icity	... involves a timely movement of the control of a few language forms into the automatic processing of a relatively unlimited number of language forms
Principle 2	Meaning- ful Learn- ing	Meaningful as opposed to rote learning. (Meaningful learning will lead toward better long-term retention than rote learning)

Principle	Name	Explanation
Principle 3	Anticipation of Reward	Human beings are universally driven to act, or "behave," by the anticipation of some sort of reward – tangible or intangible, short term or long term – that will ensue because of the behavior.
Principle 4	Intrinsic Motivation	The most powerful rewards are those that are intrinsically motivated within the learner. Because the behavior stems from needs, wants, or desires within oneself, the behavior itself is self-rewarding; therefore, no externally administered reward is necessary.
Principle 5	Strategic Investment	Second language mastery will be due to a large extent to a learner's own personal investment of time, effort, and attention to the L2 in the form of an individualized battery of strategies for comprehending and producing the language.

ACTION

Based on the five cognitive principles discussed, answer the following questions:

1. Please rank order what you think is the most to least important cognitive principle above. Then, provide a rationale for your rank order.
2. Provide a classroom example from your life about how you have incorporated your most important cognitive principle?

The importance of addressing Affective principles in teaching languages is vital. We cannot teach effectively if we do not understand the process by which people create knowledge, which Senge et. al (2000) call a living system "made up of often-invisible networks and relationships." Rogers (1986) stresses that learners possess a set of "values, established prejudices and attitudes in which they have a great deal of emotional investment" and warns that when this experience is devalued or ignored, this implies rejection of the person not just the experience.

Table 5. Affective Principles

Principle	Name	Explanation
Principle 6	Language Ego	As human beings learn to use a second language, they also develop a new mode of thinking, feeling, and acting – a second identity. The new “language ego,” intertwined with the second language, can easily create within the learner a sense of fragility, a defensiveness, and a raising of inhibitions.
Principle 7	Self-Confidence	Learners’ belief that they indeed are fully capable of accomplishing a task is at least partially a factor in their eventual success in attaining the task.
Principle 8	Risk-Taking	Successful language learners, in their realistic appraisal of themselves as vulnerable beings yet capable of accomplishing tasks, must be willing to be “gamblers” in the game of language, to attempt to produce and to interpret language that is a bit beyond their absolute certainty.
Principle 9	Language-Culture Connection	Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a complex system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling, and acting.

ACTION

Based on the four affective principles above...

1. Please rank order what you think is the most to least important affective principle above. Then, provide a rationale for your rank order.
2. Provide a classroom example from your life about how you have incorporated your most important affective principle?

Table 6. Linguistic Principles

Principle	Name	Explanation
Principle 10	Native Language	The native language of learners exerts a strong influence on the acquisition of the target language system. While that native system will exercise both facilitating and interfering effects on the production and comprehension of the new language, the interfering effects are likely to be the most salient.

Principle	Name	Explanation
Principle 11	Interlanguage	Second language learners tend to go through a systematic or quasi-systematic development process as they progress to full competence in the target language. Successful interlanguage development is partially a result of utilizing feedback from others.
Principle 12	Communicative Competence	Since it is the goal of a language classroom, instruction needs to point toward all its components: organizational, pragmatic, strategic, and psychomotor. Communicative goals are best achieved by giving due attention to language use and not just usage, to fluency, and not just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts, and to students' eventual need to apply classroom learning to previously unrehearsed contexts in the real world

ACTION

Based on the three linguistic principles above...

1. Please rank order what you think is the most to least important linguistic principle above. Then, provide a rationale for your rank order.
2. Provide a classroom example from your life about how you have incorporated your most important linguistic principle?

TASK

Looking back at the three questions in the Introduction and Overview part, think about the following.

Will you answer those questions differently now?

Can you formulate your personal theory of teaching?

How can knowing how to relate theory to practice can help you teach better?

SUMMARY

The twelve language teaching principles proposed by Brown (2000) are not exhaustive but can serve as corner-stones for building and enlightening your teaching path. The principles can help you and other teachers reflect on your teaching practice and get insights into successes and failures

we face in our professional life. Teaching by principles will empower you as a professional: being able to justify your choice of certain techniques appropriate for your students, monitor yourself while implementing them and evaluating their effectiveness, and making decisions on how to improve or adapt them to address your students' needs.

HOMework TASK SIX

The goal of this homework task is for you to compose your own language teaching statement and use one or more of the 12 principles to support what you do in your language classroom. Look at your Homework Task One lesson plan and then discern your teaching principles from that lesson. To accomplish this task, you may do the following two steps:

Step 1: Read the teaching statement by Dr. David L. Chiesa below as an example, which is located after the References.

Step 2: Please write your own teaching statement (2 pages maximum). You may take your answers from the 3 action tasks above as a guiding framework.

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TEACHING STATEMENT

David L. Chiesa, Ph.D.

My teaching philosophy has evolved over the past fifteen years with my experiences throughout the world (e.g., United States, Japan, China, Mongolia and Uzbekistan), teaching in a variety of diverse instructional contexts, adhering to certain theoretical positions (e.g., sociocultural), and with my own empirical and classroom-based research. My philosophy consists of three core values: (1) I believe in helping learners grow into abilities they do not yet possess; (2) I provide opportunities to enable inquiry, critical thinking, and problem solving; and, (3) I believe in forming the necessary social conditions for mediated cognition to occur. The three values will be expounded upon and then explained with an example from my own teaching.

Growing into Abilities

Bakhurst (1991) explains that "... the mind projects its mature psychological capacities onto the earlier stages of its development: We see the higher mental functions in the infant's behaviour even when they are not yet present" (p. 67). Bakhurst's explanation is what he called prolepsis, and, to me, this is the essence of all pedagogy. It is the essence of empowerment and autonomy-supporting actions in the classroom. I treat the learners as if they had knowledge and skills that they do not yet have, so that they may grow into those skills.

Showing how learners can “grow into abilities” can be exemplified in my research writing class. Modern conceptions of learning to write in a second language (L2) see writing as a social practice that is embedded in the cultural and institutional contexts in which it is produced. Writing is not only exclusive to the author, but it is interactional and collective, which expresses a culturally agreed upon purpose, reflecting a kind of relationship and acknowledging an engagement in each community. Thus, in my research writing class, I moved away from the cognitive-rhetorical process of L2 writing grounded in formal linguistic-textual emphases to a stance that pursued the specification of the *functional*-textual-rhetorical resources needed. I viewed learners as emerging scholars and provided them feedback as if they were already socialized into the research writing community; and included them in ethical discussions in class about the standards upheld by the broader applied linguistics profession - particularly in the design, data collection and analysis, and dissemination phases of research. The learners were treated *as if* they had abilities they did not yet possess, which is a necessary condition of the development of those abilities.

Enable Inquiry, Critical Thinking, and Problem Solving

The second value I hold to is enabling inquiry, critical thinking, and problem solving. I understand this as a process about conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, and evaluating information gathered through the lens of past experiences. Vygotsky (1994) explained that “learners perceive experiences in a new environment through ... a cognitive and emotional reciprocal processing of previous and new experience” (as cited in, Golombek and Duran, 2014, p. 104). This discussion views the learning process not as a static moment, but one of continual evolution and progression. Enabling inquiry, connects one’s past to the present, while also looking toward the future.

While teaching Introduction to Linguistics, I focused on providing my students both structural (e.g., phonetics, morphology, syntax, etc.) and functional conceptualizations of language (e.g., Gee’s seven building blocks of language). To enable inquiry and critical thinking, I used *dialogue journals* – written interactions between a learner and teacher over a consistent course of time. In the dialogue journals, students discussed their past experiences of language learning, the current classes they are taking, and how they would teach language based on their own beliefs about the conceptualizations of language, because the view one takes on

language has profound implications for language teaching. One's view on the nature of language will affect what will be taught, how it will be taught, how one assesses learning, the types of materials used, and the types of exercises and activities used in the classroom. Although dialogue journals are time consuming for teachers, they provide a unique pedagogical space for inquiry, critical thinking and problem solving with the assistance of a teacher.

Creating Social Conditions for Mediated Cognition

The third value I have is creating the necessary social conditions for mediated cognition to occur. *Mediated cognition* refers to the idea that the human mind is inherently social which emerges out of participation in external forms of social interaction that become internalized psychological tools for thinking. It is through dialogic interaction and co-construction of meaning, where learners have potential growth in knowledge, skills, and awareness that can lead to development. However, interaction can be fruitful when learners feel comfortable in their learning contexts with their interlocutors.

When I work with language teachers, I use collaborative group work to promote the social environment that can support mediated cognition. Over the course of a seminar, I provide teacher-learners with access to a group for the entire course of study, and explain (and show) them why I believe in collaborative work: first, to improve the quantity and quality of my student's learning; second, to foster their ability to interact effectively with others in both professional and personal terms; and third, to model and demonstrate co-operative activities and techniques which they can later use in life. I hope to create a sense of belonging for each learner and promote positive human interaction/community building, so that interaction can ensue for mediated cognition to take place.

Conclusion

My teaching philosophy is grounded in providing a cooperative atmosphere between me and learners and amongst learners. I treat them as if they already have the skills and knowledge that they do not yet have, so they may grow into those abilities. At the same time, I choose and design tasks that promote inquiry, critical thinking, and problem solving; I further frame them in terms of growth, challenge, and enjoyment. Finally, I believe that dialogic interaction and co-construction of meaning are needed for learning to take place. I enjoy teaching. I believe that teaching is not only

about helping learners with specific knowledge and skills, but to help them grow and evolve to meet the demands of society, and thus, become more humane people.

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SECTION 2.2

Communicative Language Teaching

“Language is not a collection of rules and target forms to be acquired, but rather a by-product of communicative processes” (Ellis, 2007, p. 7).

GOALS

Communicative Language Teaching’s (CLT) relevancy to the language curriculums in Uzbekistan is paramount. The pedagogical track and English for Specific Purposes directions were created from the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), which utilizes CLT principles and features. Although we are in a post-method era (see Section 2.4), we find it important for Uzbek university language teachers to be cognizant of CLT’s relevancy and practicality to the creation of each curriculum, so that Uzbek teachers can make educated decisions about how they want to proceed with their classes. Thus, we are not saying one should always adhere to all aspects of CLT; instead, it is the teacher’s decision about what aspects of CLT are most relevant and pertinent for their individualized context.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) define main features and principles of CLT;
- B) identify CLT’s features and principles from a CLT lesson plan; and,
- C) discuss relevancy of CLT within the current post-method era.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

In this section, we will look at specific features and principles underpinning CLT and its role in the current post-method era. CLT shifted the focus from grammar mastery to a communicative one, which implies change in approaches and attitudes towards goals of teaching, the teacher and learner roles, and the nature of interaction amongst learners.

UZBEK VIGNETTE

There is a disagreement between two professors from Uzbekistan about language teaching. Please read the following vignette and think about whose position you concur with.

Two respected professors participated in the seminar where new approaches to teaching young adults were introduced and discussed. After a while, Professor X went to the stage and said angrily: "I don't like all these new methods you are discussing now. They are not effective or useful for our students. They are alien and don't work in our country. Old traditional methods [Grammar-Translation Method] worked perfectly and we must use them! They are much better!" Professor Y stood up and replied: "Every year we have graduates who go to work and teach others. It's not easy ... it's a pain for us to admit the fact that our graduates know English grammar, can read well, but ... they cannot communicate in English! That's why nowadays we're looking for new ways of teaching, such as communicative language teaching"

REFLECTION

Think of the two professors and the viewpoints they presented. Whose opinion would *you*, *your colleagues*, and *your administration* support and why?

KEY CONCEPTS

Uzbekistan university English teachers, as other English language teachers in the world, were exposed to a variety of language teaching methods (e.g., Grammar Translation) until the discussion of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach, which is "an approach (not a method) that aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication" (Richards and Rogers, 2001, p. 66).

Richards (2006) makes the point that to understand what CLT is we must look at "the goals of language teaching, how learners learn a language, the kinds of classroom activities that best facilitate learning, and the roles of teachers and learners in the classroom" (p. 24). We can employ analysis of the differences between Audiolingual Method and Communicative Approach done by Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) for this purpose. They noted 24 differences in the contrast analysis of the two. We can look at some of them grouped around main features: (i) goals of the language teaching, (ii) language areas emphasized, (iii) the teacher and learner roles, (iv) nature of interaction, and (v) learner motivation. (p. 91-3).

Table 7. Distinctive Features of Audio-lingual Method & Communicative Approach taken from Brown (2000).

Audiolingual Method	Communicative Approach
Attends to structure and form more than meaning.	Meaning is paramount.
Language learning is learning structures, sounds, or words.	Language learning is learning to communicate.
Grammatical explanation is avoided	Any device which helps the learners is accepted – varying according to their age, interest, etc.
Communicative activities only come after a long process of rigid drills and exercises.	Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.
Linguistic competence is the desired goal.	Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e., the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).
The teacher controls the learners and prevents them from doing anything that conflicts with the theory.	Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
"Language is habit" so error must be prevented at all costs.	Language is created by individuals often through trial and error.
Students are expected to interact with the language system, embodied in machines or controlled materials.	Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.
Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in the structure of language.	Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

ACTION

1. Choose 2-3 features of Communicative Language Teaching from the table above which you think better represents this approach. Explain your choice by providing examples from your learning or teaching experience.
2. Bearing in mind Section 1.1. Communicative Competence Principles, define the difference between grammatical and communicative competence.

Klapper (2003) points out that the lack of prescribed classroom techniques makes CLT “fuzzy” in teacher’s understanding. This “fuzziness” gave CLT flexibility and space for teacher creativity and own interpretations. Some teachers consider it “a little more than an integration of grammatical and functional teaching” and others accept it as “procedures where learners work in pairs or groups employing available language resources in problem-solving tasks” (Richards and Rogers, 2001, p. 40). Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2016) admit that “It is probably fair to say that there is no single agreed upon version of CLT” (p. 115). More than that, Richards and Rogers (2001) also note that there is no single text or authority on it, nor any single model that is universally accepted as authoritative.

ACTION

Here is a lesson plan (see below) that was created by Prof. Peter Shaw from the Middlebury Institute of International Studies at Monterey for the CLT Paradigm. How is CLT conceptualized in this lesson plan?

1. Pre-listening Task 1

In your group, take a piece of blank paper and draw a line down the middle. At the top of one side write AGREE; at the top of the other side, write DISAGREE. Now brainstorm in your group by passing the paper around the group and writing down one way in English we express either agreement or disagreement (gestures and other non-verbal behavior may be included); if you need time to think, pass the paper and wait for your next turn. When the paper has been passed four times, you are done. Be ready to share your lists with the class.

2. Pre-listening Task 2

Think for a moment about the following four issues and decide which one you consider, at this moment, to be the most important one to combat or eliminate from our society: physical violence; sexual harassment; disinterest and apathy; lack of understanding and forgiveness. Go to the relevant corner of the room and briefly discuss with those you meet there one or two ways of reducing or opposing the phenomenon you chose.

3. Listening

Listen carefully to the story and then rank the following protagonists in order by writing the numbers 1 through 5 in column One. Write 5 opposite the person you consider the most offensive, the most reprehensible, the

nastiest; write 1 opposite the person you consider the least offensive, least reprehensible, least nasty.

Protagonist	One	Two
Abigail		
Sinbad		
Ivan		
Gregory		
Slug		

4. Discussion

Now meet with your group and discuss the rankings with the aim of reaching consensus. Write this new ranking in column Two. You may not arithmetically average your individual scores. You must argue for your position, make concessions, press points, ask questions, and seek clarification.

5. Review Issues

Return to the four issues in activity 2 and make the selection again. In other words, which one do you now think is most important to combat or eliminate from the world we live in? Go to the relevant corner and brainstorm with those colleagues you find there one or two ways to proceed in combating or eliminating this issue. Write your ideas as (a) a to-do list; (b) a letter to a politician; (c) a letter to the editor of the local regional newspaper; (d) the script of a speech to give at the next meeting of the PTA, Residents' Association, Rotary Club, or an organization of your choosing; or (e) the form of your choice (please check with your teacher).

6. Language Awareness Raising (1)

Listen to the tape of your discussion and note down (same format as activity 1) all the ways you agreed or disagreed with each other. Compare this list with the list you made originally. Prepare to share with the class any items on the new list that were not on the old list.

7. Language Awareness Raising (2)

Listen to the tape of 4 Australians (or Canadians or Pakistanis or residents of Hong Kong or Texans) discussing Alligator River and note down the ways they agree and disagree, using the same format and in activities 1 and 6. Be prepared to share with the class items not on either of your previous lists.

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SECTION 2.3

Task-Based Language Teaching

'The principles [of TBLT] are ones to which most language teachers and students subscribe in their everyday lives – principles that need not be forgotten in the classroom. They include educating the whole person, learning by doing, rationalism, free association, learner-centeredness, egalitarian teacher–student relationships, and participatory democracy ...' (Long, 2015, p. 9).

GOALS

This section focuses on the main principles of task-based language teaching (TBLT), and addresses challenges faced by teachers in the Uzbek context.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) relate the principles of task-based language teaching to your own teaching context;
- B) reflect on the challenges you face and search for ways to address them; and,
- C) apply the principles of task-based language teaching to develop your lesson plan.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

This section focuses on defining and explicating TBLT in Uzbekistan. It starts with a short vignette about the challenges of implementing TBLT. Then, the key concepts section will display TBLT's definition, roles of language teacher and learners, and the task cycle. The TBLT lesson structure will be also discussed.

Think about the following:

What is a task for language teaching and learning?

What do you know about the task cycle?

What does learner engagement mean to you? What is the role of a teacher in a TBLT classroom?

What do you need to know to effectively use TBLT in your classroom?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

An English language expert arrived in Uzbekistan in 2017 to examine and provide recommendations for the improvement of the National In-Service Language Teacher Education Program in Tashkent. This program provided university language teachers with recent language teaching methodological discussions, and provided teachers up-to-date information about best practices for language teaching, which included using tasks and TBLT. The TBLT discussions were well-received by the teachers and many people said they were going to incorporate TBLT into their language classes. However, after observing ten teachers across the Republic, it was clear to the English language expert that the university teachers did not use TBLT as they had said they would. Additionally, they did not give tasks for group work or pair work, and they mostly utilized the exercises from their course books. Mostly, in all the observed lessons, students were bored doing those exercises. There was a disconnect between what was taught in the training and what the teachers did in their classes.

REFLECTION

Think about the case above. What could be the disconnect between what was taught in the training and what the teachers did in their classes? What do you think are some solutions?

KEY CONCEPTS

There are three key concepts in this section: task characteristics; task cycle; and, teacher's role during the task cycle. We will explain aspect below.

Nunan explained that TBLT is about "setting specific tasks for students so that they act as if they were using the language in real life" (as cited in Munira & Ferdousi, 2012, p.98). The TBLT educational framework focuses on using authentic language through meaningful tasks (e.g., a visit to a doctor; having a telephone conversation with a hotel manager). Thus, we find it important to situate TBLT among other teaching methods. TBLT is a branch of CLT as Communicative Language Teaching is a broad umbrella term (Harmer as cited in Littlewood, 2013, p. 3).

Task Characteristics. There are four main characteristics of tasks: (1) meaning is primary; (2) there is a goal which needs to be worked towards; (3) task completion has some priority; and (4) there is a real-world relationship. Candlin suggests that tasks should contain inputs, roles, settings, actions,

monitoring, outcomes and feedback; Shavelson and Sternlist the following elements which teachers should consider while designing a TBLT lesson: content, materials, activities, goals, students, social community (as cited in Munira & Ferdousi, 2012, p. 99)

Long (2015) discusses that "tasks are the real-world activities people think of when planning, conducting, or recalling their day. That can mean things like brushing their teeth, preparing breakfast, reading a newspaper, taking a child to school, responding to e-mail messages, making a sales call, attending a lecture or a business meeting, having lunch with a colleague from work, helping a child with homework, coaching a soccer team, and watching a TV program. Some tasks are mundane, some complex. Some require language use, some do not; for others, it is optional" (p. 6).

Task-Cycle. The TBLT lesson follows the following task cycle format: pre-task stage, task cycle stage and language focus stage (Willis, 1996). During the pre-task stage a teacher introduces the topic and explains the task. During the send stage of task cycle the learners complete the task and report it either in written or oral form. During the third stage of language focus teacher together with learners analyze the language used during the second stage and do more practice on some points, if necessary.

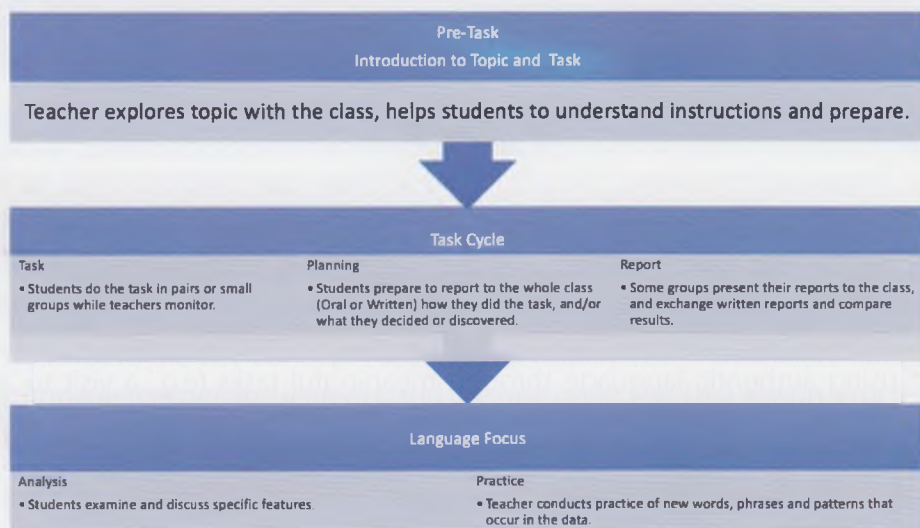


Figure Seven. Task Cycle (based on, Willis, 1996).

The effectiveness of the TBLT pedagogy is based on the learners' engagement during the whole lesson process. Philp and Duchesne (2016)

describe the engagement “as a multidimensional construct that includes cognitive, behavioral, social, and emotional dimensions of engagement among second and foreign language learners in the classroom” (p.51).

Teacher’s Role. The teacher’s role during the TBLT lesson is different during each stage of a lesson. Willis (1996) provides detailed instructions for teachers’ behavior during a TBLT lesson. After careful preparation before the lesson, a teacher should work hard “to set the scene in the introduction phase” by explaining the task and by giving necessary help (e.g., a listening track, or small reading text, or a short video). After it, during the task stage a teacher’s role is of a **monitor**. Here, it is important “to stop teaching and stand back”. Willis suggests not standing close to learners and just observing carefully how they are working in the groups. After the task stage has finished a teacher may give 1-2 short comments on learners’ work and then move on to the planning and reporting stage. Here it is important to give clear instructions on learners’ further actions and preparations for their reporting. A teacher becomes **a language advisor** during the planning stage. A teacher goes around and may correct some errors *selectively*: only those which impede the meaning. During the next stage a teacher becomes **a chairperson** and helps to navigate the learners’ reporting by “introducing the presentations, setting a purpose for listening and summing up at the end”.

After understanding how TBLT works, we understand that it is a simple procedure. But this simplicity makes the approach genius. As they say, everything genius is simple. And the procedure is natural: all the processes in life follow this cycle: preparation, doing, performing and deeper practicing/analyzing (if necessary). So, this natural simple cycle, repeated during several lessons ensures the effective results: when learners internalize a language and really increase their speaking production.

TASK

Think about your classroom. Use the “Components of the Task-Based Learning Framework above” and explain how to teach Passive Voice or a specific language point of your choice?

SUMMARY

The task-based language teaching approach emerged to suffice the needs of second/foreign language learners. It is widely used around the world in all possible contexts due to its simple structure and effective

results. It is learner-centered and teacher-mediated. The lesson structure follows the task cycle format. The learners are engaged in completing the tasks from cognitive, behavioral, social, and emotional perspectives, which facilitates language acquisition.

HOMework TASK EIGHT

As explained in the key concepts section there are four main characteristics that constitute a 'task' in the TBLT framework: (1) meaning is primary; (2) there is a goal which needs to be worked towards; (3) task completion has some priority; and (4) there is a real-world relationship. Using the lesson from Homework Task One, explain whether you use a true 'task' in the lesson. If positive, how the task you identify uses the four main characteristics. If not, please create a task that can be used for your Homework Task One and explain how it is a task using the four main characteristics.

RESOURCES

1. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5OLySXzZY-4> – Prof Rod Ellis on Task based Language Learning.
2. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=59XMhMO0FMU> – Demo: Task-Based Learning - International TEFL Academy.
3. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QLjyHh3LxmY&t=8s> – Task Based Lesson - Teaching Vocabulary and Speaking Skills.

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SECTION 2.4

Post-Method Era

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

GOALS

This section focuses on illustrating the main features of the current foreign language teaching approach – *postmethod pedagogy* – and addresses challenges faced by Uzbek language teachers.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) apply the principles of the postmethod pedagogy to your own teaching;
- B) operate with ten general macrostrategies which follow the principles of the post-method pedagogy; and,
- C) relate the principles of the post-method pedagogy to the CEFR descriptors.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

The field of English language teaching and learning has moved forward from language teaching methods into a post-method era. This section will provide the rationale in how a post-method pedagogy evolved, with an explication of the theoretical frameworks, and the principles associated with it.

Think about the following:

- 1) There are three parameters of post-method pedagogy: particularity, practicality, and possibility. What do you think they mean?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

A foreign expert in English teaching came to Uzbekistan and observed two university English teacher's classes and then, talked to each teacher one-on-one. One class he observed was an academic writing class for first year students of pedagogical majors; the other was a writing class for ESP students of law. He was confused because he noticed many things: (1) the writing teachers both taught in the same way and introduced similar materials and had similar goals/objectives; (2) during each interview, the teachers could not explain clearly why they used activities they had; (3) during the interview the expert asked about the technology which was used during each lesson, and both teachers talked about the pedagogical technology *jig-saw reading*; (4) when the expert asked what method is the most widely used in Uzbekistan, all of the interviewed teachers said "communicative approach."

REFLECTION

How would you respond to the foreign language expert's confusion? In your response, please identify each problem he addresses, then explain what you think are the causes for each. We have listed a few (not all) possible causes below:

- a. Teachers may not know the difference between approach, method, and technique.
- b. The teachers may not know the difference among task, exercise, and activity.
- c. There may be confusion in terminology itself. In Russian and Uzbek languages, there is a term – pedagogical/educational technology. This *technology* means what we do in class (similar in meaning with method or technique), but in the English language *technology* means technical equipment like computer or projector, or any other equipment.
- d. Teachers may not know about the "Post-Method Pedagogy" in language teaching and learning.

KEY CONCEPTS

There are fourteen key concepts: post-method condition; parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility; macrostrategies (i.e., Maximize learning opportunities; minimize perceptual mismatches; facilitate negotiated interaction; promote learner autonomy; foster language awareness; activate intuitive heuristics; contextualize linguistic input; integrate language skills; ensure social relevance; and raise cultural consciousness).

Different language teaching methods have been proposed, evaluated, and researched since 1940. The purpose was to find the most effective way to teach students language, for efficient language learning to happen; and thus, if we compare the methods over time, we can see how the teacher's role, learners' role, classroom procedures evolve along the way.

The problem with methods is that language teachers often do not adhere to only one method, because they often rely on their intuitive ability and experiential knowledge for more effective language teaching pedagogy. Language teachers in Uzbekistan often recycled the same ideas, which created a *post-method condition* – characterized by the need to create an alternative for method, not just recommending to language teachers *the best method*. Another characteristic of the post-method condition was the fact that teachers needed and had, in fact, *autonomy* – freedom from external control. Every day in their classrooms Uzbek teachers made the necessary decisions they felt benefited the language development of their students.

Kumaravadivelu (2003) introduced the term of post-method condition, which signaled the beginning of the "Post-Method Era" in the early 1990's. In this era teachers' decisions are based on post-method pedagogy, which has three main parameters: particularity, practicality and possibility. **Particularity** means there is no one special "recipe" for effective language teaching. In other words, teaching procedures will vary depending on "particular teachers, teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu" (ibid., p.34). The parameter of **practicality** means that any procedures which are "recommended" for language teachers must be practical to the context, otherwise they are useless, something that teachers can use in their classrooms. The third parameter of **possibility** illustrates the idea that language teachers use those procedures which are possible in their classrooms from a social, cultural and political perspective. Kumaravadivelu (2003) developed ten macrostrategies which follow three principles of the post-method pedagogy:

Table 8. Kumaravadivelu's Macrostrategies

#	Macrostrategies	Meaning
1	Maximize learning opportunities	Language teachers should create (and identify) many different opportunities for learning during a class period

#	Macrostrategies	Meaning
2	Minimize perceptual mismatches	Language teachers should anticipate possible mismatches between their intentions and learners' interpretation
3	Facilitate negotiated interaction	Language teachers should guide learners to interact with one another, so that they can share his/her own individual perspectives, in a way that is relevant to each learner
4	Promote learner autonomy	Language teachers should teach their learners self-study and self-control strategies, to help them feel more empowered learners
5	Foster language awareness	Teachers should draw learners' attention to the form and functions of the target language
6	Activate intuitive heuristics	Language teachers should provide as much input (written and spoken) as possible for learners to activate and develop their "intuition/feeling" for language meaning and usage
7	Contextualize linguistic input	Language teachers should demonstrate to their learners that language usage depends on context (situational, extralinguistic); so, teachers should teach the language in context
8	Integrate language skills	Language teachers should teach all four skills; not separate, but integrate them
9	Ensure social relevance	Language teachers should choose the way for teaching which is relevant for the social, economical, educational and political environment of the place where teaching is happening
10	Raise cultural consciousness	Language teachers should be aware of learners' different cultures by letting them share this knowledge, and thus, empowering them

TASK 1

Think about your classroom practices. How could you apply the principles of practicality, particularity, and possibility proposed by Kumaravadivelu to your specific teaching context? Choose *one* class and explain.

Discuss the meanings of each macrostrategies of Kumaravadivelu's Framework. Which macrostrategy(ies) do you feel is more important to read more/learn about?

SUMMARY

The discussion of a single method no longer suffices when we speak of language teaching pedagogy, as we are now in a *Post-Method* Era. The post-method pedagogy is characterized by particularity, practicality and possibility, and could contain ten macrostrategies that language teachers could think about: (1) maximize learning opportunities; (2) minimize perceptual mismatches; (3) facilitate negotiated interaction; (4) promote learner autonomy; (5) foster language awareness; (6) activate intuitive heuristics; (7) contextualize linguistic input; (8) integrate language skills; (9) ensure social relevance; and (10) raise cultural consciousness.

HOMEWORK TASK NINE

Watch the following video from YouTube about Post-method Language Teaching: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iy2P4zUdzXo>. Using the lesson plan from Homework Task One, explain how your lesson identifies the concepts of particularity, practicality, and possibility; or, the 10 macrostrategies. Elaborate on the principles or strategies which do not fit (or may be not so much necessary) for your lesson.

RESOURCES

1. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KooCNVEffts> – Penny Ur “Rethinking Presentation-Practice-Production in the Post-Method Era”. This video explains the post-method era and some positives and negatives of Kumaravadivelu’s framework.
2. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U4zN8iR-LTk> – Post-Method Era a brief history up to now in TESOL
3. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MUVq1Rhr4P0> – Post Method Era <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IXTdPKScsSg> – Methods and approaches to language teaching (Anthology of videos)

REFERENCES

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SECTION 2.5

Learning Outside the Classroom

"There are two important dimensions to successful second language learning: what goes inside the classroom and what goes on outside of the classroom" (Richards, 2015, p. 1).

GOALS

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) explain learning outside class benefits for students and teachers;
- B) explain effectiveness of learning outside the classroom;
- C) identify principles and advantages of extensive reading;
- D) explain principles, advantages and possible drawbacks of dialogue journals; and,
- E) identify learning outside the classroom resources suitable for students.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Many teachers believe learning language happens in the classroom; however, we will look at learning outside the classroom and discuss its benefits. In the era of information technologies there are a lot of opportunities for learning outside the classroom, namely using technology and internet, listening songs and lyrics, watching movies, out-of-class projects, etc. We specifically look closely at involving learners through extensive reading and dialogue journal writing.

Think about the following:

1. Does *language learning* happen only in the classroom, during class time? Please explain your answer.
2. How have you addressed students' learning outside of the classroom?
3. How do you integrate out-of-class work with in-class learning?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

Recently I participated in ESP training where teachers working in different institutions across the country participated. Among many important issues

raised in the training improvement of quality of learning of students in ESP institutions was one of the hottest. We think that our students' level of English is poor because amount of English lessons is not enough and students have a low motivation to study English. Although we have some additional hours for independent study it is a burden for teachers and students. During a discussion on organizing independent study all teachers admitted that Uzbekistan students are very teacher and textbook dependent. We know that learning outside the class is very important for tertiary level students and it can help solve some of the problems we face in teaching. But I strongly believe that it cannot work in our country. Our students cannot work without our guidance and control, their learning depend on us teachers and textbooks we use. They used to do what we teachers give them. They trust us and do what we ask them to do. I think that it comes from our culture and mentality and it's impossible to change.

REFLECTION

Think about the following two questions:

1. Do you think learning outside the classroom can improve learning?
2. Do you think learning outside the classroom is possible in Uzbekistan?

KEY CONCEPTS

Teachers must recognize that challenges of the twenty-first century move learning far beyond the formal educational settings. We must connect classroom learning to wider world opportunities provided by technology, internet, mass media; use of network creates opportunities for real authentic and meaningful use of English, thus preparing our learners for the reality of the world. Recognizing and employing learning beyond the classroom opportunities can create environment for successful language learning.

Extensive reading

Day and Robb, (2015) argue that in learning the target language extensive reading is "an excellent vehicle for learning that language" (p 3). Research shows that learners who read extensively develop not only reading skills but all other language skills including listening, speaking and writing. More than that, extensive reading increases motivation and positive attitude to learning the target language. Day and Robb, (2015, p. 3) employ five principles out of 10 principles of extensive reading suggested by Day & Bamford (2002, cited from Day & Robb, 2015, pp. 3-12).

Table 9. Learning outside the classroom benefits (cited from Richards, J., 2015).

<i>Learning benefits</i>	<p>Out-of-class activities can provide opportunities for learners to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • develop aspects of linguistic, communicative, and pragmatic competence • learn through interaction and negotiation of meaning • improve their levels of both accuracy and fluency • have extensive contact with English • make use of multimodal sources of learning • develop skills of autonomous learning • develop the use of communication strategies
<i>Learner Benefits</i>	<p>They also offer a number of advantages for the learner:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • allow for flexibility and convenience in learning so that learners can manage their place, mode and manner of learning • provide a pleasurable and positive language use experience • reflect learners' needs and interests • reflect their out of class activities • allow for social interaction with others • help them recognize the role they can play in managing their own learning
<i>Teacher Benefits</i>	<p>There are also benefits for teachers. Out-of-class activities can:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provide learning opportunities that are difficult to create in the classroom • enable links to be made between classroom and out-of-class learning

Table 10. Principles of Extensive Reading as cited by Day and Robb (2015, p. 3).

Principle 1	<p><i>The reading material is easy.</i></p> <p>For extensive reading to be possible and for it to have the desired results, texts must be well within a learner's reading competence in the foreign language. In helping beginning readers select texts that are well within their reading comfort zone, more than one or two unknown words per page might make the text too difficult for overall understanding. Intermediate learners might use the rule of hand – no more than five difficult words per page.</p>
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Principle 2	<p><i>A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available.</i></p> <p>The success of extensive reading depends largely on getting students to read. Research clearly demonstrates that we learn to read by reading. And the more we read, the better readers we become.</p>
Principle 3	<p><i>Learners read what they want to read.</i></p> <p>The principle of freedom of choice means that learners can select texts as they do when they read in their first language. That is, they can choose books they know they can understand and enjoy and learn from. And, just as in First-language reading, learners are free to stop reading anything they find too difficult, or that is not interesting.</p>
Principle 4	<p><i>Learners read as much as possible.</i></p> <p>We know that the most important element in learning to read is the amount of time spent actually reading. There is no maximum amount of reading that can be done; the more the learner reads, the better.</p>
Principle 5	<p><i>Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower.</i></p> <p>This is very important. When we read slowly, one word at a time, comprehension is poor. We have to go back to the beginning, and read again.</p>

ACTION

Look at ten suggestions offered by Ono, Day, & Harsh (2004 as cited in Day & Robb, 2015) and decide which of them you would give to your students for reading outside the classroom.

1. Read, read and read.
2. Read easy books.
3. Read interesting books.
4. Reread books that you really like.
5. Read for overall understanding.
6. Ignore difficult words or words you don't know. Skip them and keep reading.
7. Avoid using dictionaries.
8. Expand your reading comfort zone – challenge yourself to read books that earlier you found hard to read.
9. Set reading goals and keep a reading log.
10. Enjoy, enjoy, enjoy!

REFLECTION

Think about the following questions.

1. What challenges can our students face while reading outside the classroom?
2. Where can they find appropriate reading?
3. Can we offer our students to read Graded readers?

ACTION

Before reading about dialogue journals as one of effective means of organizing learning outside class, answer the following questions:

1. Have you ever tried dialogue journals?
2. If so, what were the advantages and disadvantages you came across?

Dialogue journals

Chiesa and Bailey (2015) argue that students who are engaged in dialogue journal writing find this as not only a language learning task but a way to grow socially, mentally and emotionally with the support of a teacher. Dialogue journals can be used from secondary school settings to advanced academic courses and with almost all levels of language proficiency. In order for dialogue journals to be successful, teachers should take into consideration several principles.

Table 11. Principles of dialogue journals (cited from Chiesa and Bailey, 2015, pp. 55-56).

Principle 1	<p><i>Teachers should respond to students' ideas and comments, not their language problems.</i></p> <p>When teachers read dialogue journals, they should focus on understanding meaning rather than fixing grammatical or spelling errors. By responding to the content, a teacher is able to create an ongoing written conversation outside of class around a student's self-initiated topics of interest.</p>
Principle 2	<p><i>Teachers should relinquish power to build interactive reciprocity.</i></p> <p>One of the characteristics of dialogue journals is that the teacher is an active participant in the writing process. Traditional teaching practices presuppose a power imbalance whereby the teacher is the giver and the student is the receiver of information. However, dialogue journals create an equal relationship, in which the teacher can learn and receive information from the student. In addition, depending on the topic, the teacher might be asked to state opinions or share life experiences.</p>

	The appropriateness of the response is contingent upon what the teacher feels comfortable sharing as a participant in the conversation.
Principle 3	<i>Teachers should be prepared to learn about experiences that might not be discussed in class.</i> Dialogue journals often provide a platform for further discussion outside of class on a topic raised in class.

Chiesa and Bailey (2015) make the point that dialogue journals give teachers opportunity to explore in depth their learners' *zone of proximal development* (ZPD) defined by Vygotsky (1978) as "the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development" (cited in Chiesa and Bailey, 2015, p. 57). More than that, it helps provide a private and secure communication between the teacher and student. This private communication gives students opportunities to discuss with the teacher personal issues, clarify worries, doubts, and express own feelings which they might consider too controversial or personal to discuss in class. However, Chiesa and Bailey (2015) warn that teachers must be prepared to consider several issues related to dialogue journals, among them: 1) time; 2) commitment; and, 3) challenges in handling serious personal problems shared by students. Teachers must be very skillfull in order respond to sometimes disturbing information which must be handled with maximum attention and care. Amount of time spent by the teacher to respond to journal entries can be decreased by word processing.

ACTION

Think of possible advantages and disadvantages for students. How can teachers use dialogue journals for language improvement?

REFLECTION

Think of the issues raised in the passage above and answer the following questions.

1. What is the most efficient way to respond to dialogue journal entry?
2. How should the teacher react if the student raises a very serious personal problem?
3. How to decrease amount of time spent on writing responses?

TASK

Look at the list of suggested resources below. Try them and choose resources suitable for your students.

Resources

Mreader	http://mreader.org
Accelerator Reader	http://www.renlearn.com
Scholastic Reading Counts	http://src.scholastic.com
Xreading	http://xreading.com
International Research Foundation for English Language Education	www.tirfonline/resources/references

SUMMARY

Section 2.5 discussed ways of learning outside the class. First, we explored the benefits of learning outside class for both learners and teachers. Second, we examined five principles of extensive reading. Third, we discussed principles of dialogue journal use and specifically looked at their potential advantages and possible drawbacks.

HOMEWORK TASK TEN

Write a page report about how you can extend the lesson from Homework Task One outside of the classroom.

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3. Richards, J. C. (2015) The changing face of language learning. *RELC Journal*, 1-18.

CHAPTER THREE: LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT/ TESTING

Komila Tangirova and David L. Chiesa, Ph.D.

Chapter Three addresses language assessment and testing and will provide information and resources on how to better support the relationship among teaching, learning, and assessment for EFL teachers in Uzbekistan. The guiding question for this chapter is the following: How can language teachers use information about their student's knowledge and skills of language before, during, and after a lesson to better support their language development? The goal of this chapter is to familiarize teachers with the two main areas of language assessment and testing known as *Assessment for Learning* and *Assessment of Learning*. More specifically, Section 3.1 and Section 3.2 will address the *Assessment for Learning* construct, and will explain how to gather and interpret data about student's so teachers can make informed decisions about how to progress with lessons, change in syllabus, or changes in curriculum. Sections 3.3, 3.4, and 3.5 discuss the *Assessment of Learning* construct. The section will present information about testing concepts, while at the same time introduce teachers to basic statistical procedures that all language teachers around the world use to support their decision making.

turn, is the broadest concept out of the three, which encompasses both assessment and a test. It looks at the whole picture of teaching context and functions to make decisions based on the obtained evidence regarding the whole educational setting.

Assessment for learning: Why? How? When? Imagine a doctor and a patient situation: a doctor cannot start treating a patient until he does not learn about the background and the current health condition of the patient. Based on a diagnosis, the doctor then can decide what to start from and how to treat the patient. A doctor gathers information about his/her patient in order to make decisions for treating an illness. In the same manner teachers first need to gather information about their students before commencing the learning process. Those teachers who immediately provide instructions may not be aware of learners' background knowledge and the strengths and weaknesses of their students, which could have an effect on what is taught. This is called *Assessment for Learning*. From its name, we can see that *Assessment for Learning* or more widely known as *formative assessment* is used with the intention to form knowledge, skills and competencies to develop further (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010) and reach expected results. Information gathered through any assessment, even summative, can be used formatively, thus determining what has been achieved, what needs more attention and how to remediate a certain issue. The effective implementation of *Assessment for Learning* depends on teachers' knowledge of its principles and techniques. It is important to consider the **aim** for a certain formative assessment instrument (what information is needed), the **way** in which the assessment is administered (what method is used) and finally **actions** to be taken afterwards (how the gathered information is then used to make changes in teaching and learning). Unfortunately, teachers tend to look at the students' results obtained at formal assessment period, however, every day of classroom communication is a source for teachers to make their decisions how to teach, where to remediate, and when to act on the issues identified.

Diagnostic assessment – is an act of gathering information which helps teachers identify learners' strengths and weaknesses with regards to course content (i.e., skills and knowledge) and is tied directly to the course syllabus. Diagnostic assessments are often used before teaching commences. Using diagnostic assessments can support teacher's decisions about the content that will be taught as well as the approach of assessing that content. The focus of diagnosis is most important. For example, if

you teach how to speak English during an interview, then, you should assess student's abilities during a *spoken* interview. If the student writes a paragraph about themselves, then, you are measuring a different construct than the oral interview – although the 'topic' might be similar. Diagnostic assessments need to match what is expected to be taught in the course syllabus. Thus, they can provide valuable data about what should be given more attention and what students already know, thus helping teachers to use class time efficiently.

Gathering information about students can help teachers to modify the way in which they teach, influence the decisions made and prevent from the wrong focus and waste of time. At the same time, it is important that teachers are aware of what they need to look for when diagnosing and most importantly what to do with the data collected. Teachers should be able to communicate the results to students, administration and other stakeholders in the appropriate way, targeting improvement.

Self and Peer-assessment. One of the ways to involve students in assessment is using peer-assessment. Students can develop their own understanding of how to measure one's or others' knowledge. In other words, they become active participants of an assessment process and learn what they need to take into account when assessing themselves or their peers. For example, you might provide them with a set of questions and by answering students can realize where they are in their learning; what they know and what they need to learn more about. Then, at the end of the course you can provide the same measurement tool and learners can compare what they knew before and after the course. For example, below is a traditional assessment tool that a teacher can use before and after a course. Dr. Kathleen M. Bailey from the Middlebury Institute of International Studies at Monterey used this self-assessment mechanism for her course on Language Assessment and Testing:

She provided students with all the topics of the course and the learners marked T (true) or F (false) if they are (or are not) able to understand and can explain the statements. Then, at the end of the course Dr. Bailey provided the same handout to students and they re-filled it in. She then distributed the student's first comments with their last comments so that they can see if they grew in knowledge and skills during study.

In addition to self-assessments, you could also provide learners criteria to help them assess their colleague's work (i.e., peer-assessments). In the

same way, students can look at each other's written works and/or observe them speaking and mark the performances by following the procedures set by a teacher. For example, if you teach a speaking class that focuses on giving speeches, you can provide a peer-assessment tool that could support the conclusion of a speech.

LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT AND TESTING SELF-ASSESSMENT

Name: _____ Date: _____

Directions: Complete each of the following items by marking a "T" for True or an "F" for False.

_____ I understand and can explain the difference between direct, indirect, and semi-direct tests.

_____ I understand and can explain the difference between norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests

_____ I understand and can explain the difference between analytic, holistic, primary trait and objective scoring of writing (and speaking)...

PEER-ASSESSMENT FOR SPEECHES, CONCLUSION

Speaker's Name: _____

Yes No

1) Does the author (speaker) signal the end of the speech?

2) Is the central idea reinforced by one of the following: Summarizing the main points; ending with a quotation; making a dramatic statement; or referring to the introduction?

3) Is the conclusion limited to 5-10 percent of the entire speech?

4) Has the author worked on the language of the conclusion in detail?

1) What are the positive qualities of the conclusion?

2) What suggestions do you have for the author?

By including peer-assessments, teachers support inclusive education, which enhances students' involvement and role in classroom assessment. Therefore, the two (i.e., self and peer-assessments) are important constituents in Assessment *for* Learning.

Continuous Assessment (CA) – involves a procedure of collecting evidence about students' knowledge and achievements throughout the

course which then results in one final score at the end. CA is different from a final achievement test. The final test reflects student performance only at the end of the course under certain constrained conditions. One important features of continuous assessment as a form of assessment is that it allows teachers track the progress of students over a period. Another strong quality is that CA results are generated based on various instances, tasks, and activities allowing both teachers and students to check and recheck strengths and weaknesses. There are two ways of approaching continuous assessment in Uzbekistan: accumulation of scores to reach the final top and deduction of average results based on all the obtained scores. Teachers have an opportunity to choose which of the assessment instances will be recorded and which will not; this choice can even be decided upon mutually, among teachers and students. When students are involved in the process, assessment can become less intimidating, as they know that they have numerous chances to improve their scores.

ACTION

1) Please discuss the approaches to gather information described above by answering the following question: How do you think the approaches can support teaching and learning in your class?

2) Also, using your own teaching syllabus, think of the ways you can gather information about your students. Explain to a colleague how you can use this information?

SUMMARY

Assessment *for* Learning provides opportunities for both teachers and students to form their further path in learning. Used purposefully and proactively, Assessment *for* Learning can bring about significant changes to all stakeholders involved in the assessments. It is important to remember that assessment never ceases; it exists in everything a teacher does; in other words, anything that is done before and during class sections can provide valuable information to a teacher to act upon.

HOMEWORK TASK ELEVEN

Based on what you have learned in this section, develop or choose an available diagnostic assessment tool that will measure the concepts you want to teach in the lesson plan that you chose in Homework Task. Thus, explain the brief diagnostic assessment you will use to measure the

constructs BEFORE the class. Finally, explain how you will use the information to make informed decisions about your lesson plan (2 pages total).

RESOURCES

Websites

The most prestigious website in language assessment/testing is from Prof. Glenn Fulcher. This website contains videos, podcasts, articles, links, and scenarios to better assist you in your assessment practices: <http://languagetesting.info/>

Journals on Assessment

In the journals listed below, you will be able to find articles on all possible aspects of Language Assessment. It is important that language teachers keep themselves updated by reading about various research studies.

Language Assessment Quarterly

Assessment in Education: Principle, Policy & Practice

Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education

Language Testing

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SECTION 3.2

Assessment for Learning: Using Gathered Data

"...recognition of the centrality of assessment to the learning process means that all who teach and facilitate student learning need to reflect critically on assessment practices in higher education" (Norton, 2007, p. 91).

GOALS

This section focuses on why and how language teachers can use gathered information (i.e., data) to make informed decisions in their teaching and learning processes.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) use gathered data to make changes to lesson plans, teaching materials, and syllabus;
- B) incorporate dynamic assessment into your teaching practice;
- C) adjust teaching instructions based on the obtained data about your students; and,
- D) differentiate between the features of feedback and feedforward.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Data about student's language abilities collected either prior to or during the teaching process can inform a teacher about further actions to be taken in his or her classes. How such data is used depends on the teacher's intention and focus. Sometimes, understanding student's language skills happens in interaction – either in the oral or written form – between a student and teacher. Thus, understanding how teacher's feedback plays a role in the student's learning process is also a very important area for language teachers to consider. Teacher feedback plays a significant role in *Assessment for Learning* and has been identified in the literature as *feedforward* – *feedforward* is anticipatory in that it provides students with focused information that they can use in the next steps of the task, for future learning, or for specific outcomes (Hattie & Timperley, 2017). Bourke and Mentis (2013) argue that *feedforward* is an approach that "all students benefit from" (p. 857).

Think about the following:

1. What different types of data can you gather about student's language abilities? (Reflect on Section 3.1) and what kinds of decisions can you make after you collect that information?
2. How can student assessment results influence the way we teach? Please be as specific as you can.
3. How should feedback be delivered by a teacher to help students progress further?

UZBEK VIGNETTE**Case 1**

At the beginning of every academic year we receive a new cohort and the first thing we want to know is their level. Administrations often asks the departments to test the students. The students are tested and classes start. However, what happens after? Well, after this assessment, there is nothing. These test results are stored to serve no purpose. Both curriculum and syllabus are predetermined. The textbooks and teaching materials are prepared in accordance with set standards and regulations. All the decisions are made top-down.

Case 2

I teach writing skills. The main challenge in my practice is that my students do not seem to progress as they repeat the same mistakes. I feel frustrated every time I have to tell them the same rules and advice. I check their essays and nothing changes, they seem to keep making these mistakes. I always try to teach them using the syllabus and the teaching materials that have been approved by my department. But I feel there should be a way to address my problem of student recurring issues, there must be a solution...

REFLECTION

Think about the cases above. What are the ways the gathered data can inform a teacher about learners? How can assessment data be used to benefit teaching process? Have you ever had an experience of using assessment results for making changes in your syllabus, teaching materials, or the way you teach?

KEY CONCEPTS

There are four key concepts in this section: Using collected Data; Dynamic Assessment; Feedback; and Feedforward. We will briefly explain each one below.

Using Collected Data. A relatively new concept for the Uzbek EFL context is teaching and learning based on the data collected about students. It is called *data-driven learning*. Data-driven learning allows teachers to address students' immediate needs and remediate the issues they have. We frequently just rely on our assumptions in our choices of input. But can we really be sure what our students need without collecting the required information about their current state of knowledge.

Gathered data can inform language teachers about:

- the current state of students' knowledge and skills
- aspects that need to be given more attention to during class and/or after
- aspects that can be given less attention during class
- additional input that is required to remediate the identified lack of knowledge or skill
- sequence of the teaching input (i.e., you might want to change the teaching process)
- corrections to lesson plans
- changes should be made to the curriculum, syllabus and teaching materials (e.g., this information can be discussed with the members of your department.)

Reliable data about students are not the results of one test only; teachers are to collect their data continuously to check whether they are right about certain conclusions they have drawn. This approach in English as a Foreign Language pedagogy relies on the use of collection of computer readable texts which is called corpus. For example, many students' essays can be gathered to learn about the most common issues in learners' writing. This information can then be a foundation for you to create teaching materials, modify your teaching approaches, and make plans in the teaching content and focus.

Dynamic Assessment. One of popular forms of Assessment for Learning is Dynamic Assessment. It is quite new for the Uzbek context but very widespread around the world. The most useful feature of dynamic

assessment allows a teacher to observe changes happening during the process of assessment because of his/her influence on student performance. Dynamic Assessment relies on interaction between an assessor and a student and is based on principles from Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. According to theory, students can perform at a certain level at a test; however, given support they can reach their highest potential within the zone of proximal development (ZPD) – "the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). This quotation from Vygotsky emphasizes how an expert or someone more capable is needed to help someone learn. This happens as a result of interaction between a teacher and a student. Dynamic assessment is different from psychometric tests (i.e., tests that produce a numerical score at the end) for example, a multiple-choice test, which allows observing students' performance in one instance only. In contrast, by the help of dynamic assessment, we cannot see whether this student can perform better if more support is provided or conditions are changed. Dynamic assessment in this regard is more flexible while psychometric is static. As the interaction continuous, the assessor can see some features and skills, which were not initially demonstrated, emerging.

As a teacher, you can use dynamic assessment to scaffold your students in the process of learning. For example, you can give them a speaking task and as each student responds, you try to notice what a student already knows and where he or she has difficulties. However, you do not stop at the point of identifying an issue you keep the conversation going to see how much further you can take the student by clarifying what he or she has said and extending the opportunities to arrive at better performance than initially. It is always useful to know how far your students can go. This can influence planning further lessons and teaching materials, as you have already learnt about their potential.

Feedback and Feedforward. One of the key constituents in data collection is providing valuable feedback. Both *written* and *oral* feedback can be useful input for students to work on their weaknesses. It is important that feedback is timely (so that students can act on it to make changes during the learning process), clear (so that students understand and feel confident about actions to be taken) and future-oriented (so that students feel that the efforts that they are going to take are meaningful for and

influential on their academic success) Thus, teacher's role in this process is not only indicating the problem but also suggesting ways to overcome and address the identified problem. In the literature this is called *feedforward* i.e. advice and instructions from a teacher to students for further improvement. *Feedforward* might be dependent not only on how comments are written but also on what students do with them.

ACTION

Think how you can use the results of assessments (classroom, midterm, etc.) to make changes in your teaching. Describe the challenges that you might face? Then write an action plan focusing on the followings:

- describe an assessment tool used to gather data about students (what the task or activity involves)
- explain how the gathered information can be used by you to make changes
- speculate on possible issues that might arise in this process based on your experience in your teaching context
- provide some plausible ways of addressing these issues and making the implementation of data effective and useful

SUMMARY

Using assessment data is central to evidence-based discovery of issues. If teachers want to see improvements in the way they teach as well as in the way students learn, they need to be conscious of immediate data that they have at hand. One of the primary measures taken in response to identified issues is feedback, which should aim *forward* to make an impact on students' skills and knowledge enhancement. Therefore, to make this impact even stronger, assessment forms such as dynamic assessment are critical at both identifying issues, digging for more evidence as the assessment process goes and finally remediating them.

HOMEWORK TASK TWELVE

Please refer to the Diagnostic Assessment Tool you chose for Homework Task Eleven. In a page, please explain how you will use the information you learn to make informed decisions about your lesson plan DURING the lesson. For instance, are there key areas you are interested in that might cause some confusion for your students?

RESOURCES

1. <https://www.ucd.ie/t4cms/UCDTLA0044.pdf> [accessed August 1, 2018]
2. <https://www.theguardian.com/teacher-network/teacher-blog/2013/aug/29/assessment-for-learning-effective-classroom> [accessed August 1, 2018]
3. <https://www.msdf.org/blog/2012/05/education-testing-assessment-of-learning-versus-assessment-for-learning/#> [accessed August 3, 2018]
4. <https://www.classroomassessments.com/blog/assessment-for-learning-vs.-assessment-of-learning> [accessed August 2, 2018]
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SECTION 3.3

Assessment of Learning: Principles and Types of Assessment

"What is most essential about assessment is understanding fundamental principles that can be used to enhance student learning and teacher effectiveness"
(McMillan, 2000)

GOALS

This section focuses on the main principles of language assessment, and addresses challenges faced by teachers in the Uzbek context.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) distinguish between Assessment *for* Learning and Assessment *of* Learning;
- B) relate principles of language assessment to your own teaching context;
- C) apply key principles of assessment to the quality of assessment tools; and,
- D) reflect on the challenges you face and identify ways to address them.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Assessment is an inseparable part of teaching because language teachers have a dual role of teaching and assessing, which ultimately will have an impact on students' learning and motivation. They make decisions about who could pass or fail a quiz, test, or course of study; they determine whether the class is going well, and if the teaching they do is effective (Harding & Kremmel, 2016). Assessment *of* Learning measures these concerns. However, it is often the case that assessment tools used by language teachers fail to provide the measurement of what is targeted. Such misuse causes unfair judgement of students' knowledge and preparedness.

Think about the following:

1. How do you think Assessment *for* Learning differs from Assessment *of* Learning?
2. What do you know about assessment principles?

3. How can teachers make sure the way they assess students' knowledge is fair?
4. How can you know whether your assessment is measuring what you want to measure?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

Case 1

I designed a test for the required level by state standards. Students showed very low results. I was blamed for designing poor quality assessment tools but what if the students are simply not at the expected level? How can I know that? Another challenge I have been facing again and again is the connection between teaching and assessment. It is quite often that what I teach during the semester is not assessed at tests. The problem is that every teacher uses their own approach in teaching but in the end the final test is the same for all the students across the groups. As a result, students learn one thing but are assessed for another.

Case 2

I have been responsible for designing tests in my department for several years. Every time I find it hard to make decisions and choices regarding what tasks to set in an assessment tool. I feel that I need to rely on some principles; however, what are they? Everything I do is usually based on my own intuitions as a teacher and the instructions by the head of the department. I collect tests from various sources, including the Internet and textbooks. I put all the parts together and the test is ready! But when my colleagues and I administer the test, it appears to be too easy or too hard, sometimes the designed test takes longer time than it was planned to.

Case 3

A teacher in my department believes that test should not be designed by teachers themselves as they do not possess sufficient skills to do it. She notes that there should be a special person responsible for this task in each department. Developing a test requires much preparation and time, therefore, teachers who are already overloaded cannot spend sufficient time for this. However, my other colleague, thinks that it is a responsibility of every teacher to be involved in and concerned with their students' assessment. This process is part of teaching.

REFLECTION

Think about the cases above. Are the issues raised in them familiar to you in your own teaching context? What do you think can be possible solutions for each case?

KEY CONCEPTS

There are eighteen key concepts in this section: *Assessment of Learning*; norm-referenced tests; criteria-referenced tests; key principles of assessment; validity; reliability; practicality; washback; construct validity; content validity; face validity; types of assessment; placement tests; diagnostic tests; progress tests; achievement tests; aptitude tests; proficiency tests; testing specifications; and, piloting. We will briefly explain each one below.

Assessment of Learning – also known as summative assessment, is usually used at the end of a course of study. The intention is to summarize, to see if achievements are at the expected level. In this case, further learning is usually not considered. Knight and Yorke (2003) note that “because summative assessments tend to come at the end of learning sequence, it can be difficult to use them to give feedback to help learners to do better next time” (p. 16). In this case, the challenge for teachers can be developing an understanding of students that summative assessments such as midterms or final tests are not the end of the road but just the accomplishments of a certain phase. Students should be able to look at this assessment as a learning opportunity as well.

Norm-referenced and Criteria-referenced assessment. There are two approaches in language assessment. **Norm-referenced assessment** is based on the comparison of all test-takers within a continuum. In other words, each test-taker is compared to how well (or poor) other test-takers did on the same exam. Oftentimes you will be notified your score is in the “X” percentile, or, you have done better than “X” number of test-takers who took the same test. The National Entrance Examination in Uzbekistan uses this approach for admission to higher educational institutions. The other approach – **criteria-referenced assessment** – looks at whether each candidate meets the requirements for a certain level or position based on characteristics, i.e. descriptions provided in criteria. An example for this type of scoring in Uzbekistan is the PRESETT Exit Test. Another example is more widely-known tests such as CEFR level certification, which is created and implemented by the National Testing Center.

Key Principles of Assessment: The notion of a "good test" (Madsen, 1993, p. 178), implies that an assessment tool provides accurate and reliable information about learners' knowledge and skills. To make sure the selected or developed assessment tool is fair and successful, it should meet four criteria (we have provided guiding questions to define each term): **Validity – does a test measure what it is trying to measure? Reliability – does the test produce consistent results? Practicality – does the test take an adequate amount of time, money, energy and resources to make? Impact – is there a positive effect on the teaching and learning with the distribution of this test?** These four principles work together and are sometimes contradictory. For instance, multiple choice assessments, which are very practical to distribute and score, are often the most notoriously difficult to write. Thus, the closer you become to establishing all four principles in your assessment practices, the more you learn about your students' abilities, and will thus, be able to make the necessary choices about how to design your assessment and the appropriate feedback to give them. Knowing and understanding these principles is important not only for those who design their own tests, but also for those who select an assessment tool from existing ones. Inappropriate selection from well-constructed commercially available tests for a certain purpose of assessment can cause as much harm as developing one from a scratch. We discuss the four areas in detail below.

Selecting or developing an assessment tool is a very responsible task for a teacher, as the information obtained through it will be used for making decisions. The administration of the test is as important as the test construction itself. A teacher should consider a fair conduction of assessment of any kind, whether it is a mere classroom check or high-stake official examination. Unfavourable assessment condition can influence the results.

Validity is critical for assessment. This quality signifies whether the intended purpose of assessment has been met and is reflected in the created assessment tool. In other words, by checking the validity of a certain test or task, we learn whether it provides the evidence about test-takers that we intended to obtain. Validity also influences the way assessment results are interpreted by teachers and delivered to stakeholders. It is, therefore, vital that we know what the purpose of a certain assessment tool is before checking whether it is valid or not.

There are three types of validity from Cumming & Berwick (1996), which are commonly referred to in the language testing literature:

- Construct validity: 'a mutual verification of the measuring instrument and the theory of the construct it is meant to measure', p.29; 'we examine the psychological trait, or construct, presumed to be measured by the test and we cause a continuing, research interplay to take place between the scores earned on the test and the theory underlying the construct' (p. 26)
- Content validity: 'review of the test by subject-matter experts and a verification that its content represents a satisfactory sampling of the domain' (p. 22)
- Face validity: 'the appearance of validity...for example that the language and contexts of test items be expressed in ways that would look valid and be acceptable to the test taker and to the public generally' (pp. 23-24)

Reliability. A reliable assessment tool generates consistent results even if administered on several occasions. However, several factors must be taken into consideration when judging the reliability of a certain test. Brown and Abeywickrama (2010) highlight the main four: students, the scoring, the test administration and the assessment tool. It is possible that the same student can perform differently from a previous time due to physical (e.g. fatigue, illness) or psychological (e.g. stress) conditions (p. 27-28). There are also issues such as inter-rater and intra-rater reliability (these will be discussed in more detail in Section 3.4). Sufficient attention should be paid to develop reliability in terms of discrepancy in different raters' marking and the consistency of the same rater across students.

Impact. It is undeniable that any kind of assessment has a certain impact. This is also referred as *washback* or, sometimes in the literature as *backwash*. Such impact can be intentional or unintentional. McNamara (2000) differentiates washback from impact by referring to the former as "the influence that testing has on teaching" and the latter as "the effect of a test beyond the classroom, the ripples or waves it makes in the wider educational and social world" (p. 72). Overall, washback can be positive or negative, narrow or broad, intended or unintended. Washback happens more with high stakes-tests than low-stakes tests.

Practicality. An assessment tool can be considered practical if it uses fits an available budget, does not exceed the optimal time constraints and easy in administration as well as scoring. In other words, a practical test is well-considered logistically. Therefore, departments responsible for

hundreds of students should make thorough considerations in planning such assessments.

Types of Assessment. Below are types of assessment and the description of their main purposes:

Table 12. Types of Assessments.

Assessment types	Main purpose
Placement test	places students at an appropriate level of instructions within a program
Diagnostic test	identifies students' strengths and weaknesses
Progress test	provides information about mastery or difficulty that learners have with course materials
Achievement test	Provides information about students' attainment of learning outcomes at the end of a course
Aptitude test	measures a general ability to learn a foreign language
Proficiency test	measures global competence in a language

REFLECTION

Which of the above are the most common types of tests in your teaching context? Which have you never used? Why?

Test Specifications. Before designing any kind of assessment, a test developer must prepare test specifications which contain all the information about the test to be constructed. This blueprint is an informative document and also is also kept for preparing further variants of the same kinds of test in the future. Developed once, test specifications can serve for a long time and be revised when needed (Similar to the design and implementation of classroom lesson plans.) Another important feature of test specifications is that they provide instructions to other specialists who will use them. It means they should be as clear and detailed as possible so that anyone other than the developer can use it for test creation. In essence, test specifications can be different in content and form, as different developers prefer to focus on different aspects; however, this is not an issue as long as the document provides sufficient information you need to know about the test. There are seven specific questions all test specifications should answer:

- 1) What is the *purpose* of the test?
- 2) What sort of *learners* will be taking the test?
- 3) What *language skills* should be tested (reading, writing, speaking and/or listening)?
- 4) What *language elements* should be tested (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speech acts, etc.)?
- 5) What *target language situation* is envisaged for the test, and is this to be simulated in some way in the test content and method? (e.g., is this a test of academic French? Of English for international TAs? Of Japanese for hotel workers?)
- 6) What *text types* should be chosen as stimulus materials -- written and/or spoken?
- 7) What sort of *tasks* are required -- discrete point, integrative, simulated 'authentic', objectively assessable? (That is, what will the test-takers do?)

Piloting. The best way to find out whether the created assessment tool works well is piloting. A test should not be administered without prior piloting. Such trialing can inform us about weaknesses the test might possess. Using a test without piloting may bring about serious consequences such as providing the wrong evidence about learners' knowledge. Therefore, it is the department's and particularly the test developers' responsibility to strictly comply with the right procedures of the creation and use of assessments. The characteristics of the group which will be used for piloting a test should be similar to those of the target audience for the test itself. A teacher that piloted even one assessment tool will realize how useful this can be. It can reveal the issues and the features of the test that the test developers otherwise might never be able to spot themselves. Thus, the evidence gathered from piloting is used to make the necessary changes and the whole process recommences.

ACTION

Read the following reflection by an English language teacher who has learnt the main principles of language assessment and read extensively the literature. Please highlight the decisions and aims set by the teacher and pay attention to how each principle of language assessment is reflected.

My teaching context is undergraduate students, which I taught the four skills of listening, reading, writing and speaking for Practical English. Apart from formative assessment that they have during the semester, they take one midterm and one final exam in each of the two terms in the academic year. Therefore, I usually deal with achievement tests based on the syllabus content. It means that my tests need to reflect what students have presumably learnt and assess their knowledge of the skills that they have developed through the course. In this endeavor, my concern has always been how to develop language tests used for classroom assessment in a professional way.

Having learnt the significance of different test qualities, I find it important to bear in mind that "a test cannot be valid for more than one purpose" (Henning, 1987, p. 89), which I used to ignore without realizing how inappropriate a certain test can be. I made no serious attempt to check the validity and reliability of the tests that I created or selected for assessment. All my decisions have been based on my own intuitions and the instructions from the administration and the head of my department. However, what I am inclined to do as of now is to make validity and reliability central in the development of my assessment tools. My aim from this is to make sure that students are tested for what they are intended to be tested and the tasks across all the variants of tests are of equal difficulty.

Usually my department administers midterm and final tests in several slots within the same day by grouping students, as there are over 400 students to be tested. As a result, my task as a test developer is to create several variants for every slot. At the same time, I have to make sure that every variant is no different from another in terms of difficulty and other characteristics. Here my responsibility is to construct equivalent tests, or what Weir calls "parallel forms" (2005, p. 250) so no matter what variant is given to a certain student, he/she should be able to perform with the same results, which is the concern of reliability. An important consideration is checking a testing instrument by piloting. I have been through experiences when my test turned out to be too easy or too difficult. I was usually given feedback from other teachers in my department after the administration of the test. I realize here that what I lacked at that point is piloting my testing instruments, which means that no matter how much effort is made in considerations with regard to main principles of an effective and useful test, it is impossible to know how good the test is unless it is piloted.

My second aim is to work with other teachers in my department, particularly with those who are also responsible for creating assessment tools. Usually when a test needs to be constructed, teachers search for ready tests that can be applicable for their purpose. This means that test selection is as important as test designing.

Nevertheless, even when selecting a test instrument from a variety of sources that are available on the internet or in printed materials, it is important to ask whether the purpose of the chosen test is the same with that we want to use it for. "Too often the content of tests is determined by what is easy to test rather than what is important to test" (Hughes, 2003, p. 23). It is a serious disadvantage if all the testing instruments that are created or selected from available sources can be random and without considerations concerning whether they are valid, reliable, and practical or what impact they might have on test takers.

In this respect, Davies (1997) maintains that professional ethics and morality in language testing is important, which in my context is rarely discussed. It seems very necessary to "develop assessment literacy" (Taylor, 2009, p. 31) so that teachers could approach their task with a better understanding, not relying exclusively on their intuition. Only by consulting relevant theories and practices followed by collaboration and consultation amongst each other can teachers learn how to approach test development professionally and avoid serious mistakes.

It is essential to continuously research and collect data in one's own context to provide better testing conditions for test takers. A comprehensive discussion of the responsibilities of testers and the rights of test takers in Shohamy (2001) makes me realize how complex is the process of language assessment and how much thought every decision should be given to avoid any unfairness that can take place. Most students are usually scared of tests and this experience and causes then much stress. The impact of assessment is very important in my context, as this often has a great influence of decisions made concerning every student. The results of tests and, assessment on the whole, influences the students not only academically but also financially, as depending on the marks received, they become eligible for a certain amount of monthly student allowance paid by the government. Understandably, every student strives to be successful at the tests he/she sits. Such circumstances make test developers particularly attentive to the impact from the tests they create.

I also aim to balance required with available. In my department, practicality is the main concern when it comes to testing. The decisions made concerning test constructs are usually influenced by trying to decrease teacher workload. Therefore, oral and written tasks are used much less compared to those that can be checked faster and easier, such as multiple choice items in reading and listening. My position here is that even though it is important to take into account practicality aspect, students must not be deprived of being tested for what they are taught, which, from my observation, quite often happens in my department. When developing achievement tests I find it important to align the assessment with the syllabus.

TASK

Having read the reflection and an action plan given above, consider what changes would you like in the way that you have been approaching assessment in your teaching practice. Prepare a short vignette focusing on a certain issue in your context, followed by a plausible action plan in which you need to suggest improvements and support your arguments with the literature (e.g. books, articles, websites, etc.) that you read.

SUMMARY

In conclusion, language assessment in education is a great responsibility for the teacher because assessments can influence decisions about students and possibly their futures. Therefore, teachers should reflect each step in the development of assessment instruments. Without understanding validity, reliability, practicality as well as impact (washback), it is difficult to come up with an effective language assessment. The adherence to these principles is vital. At the same time, there is no universal formula of creating an effective language assessment tool. The same test can be the best and the worst assessment instrument depending on where and when it is used. Therefore, the main considerations are the purpose of a test and the context where it is used. Only by giving sufficient attention to these two factors can one design or choose an effective language assessment tool, which will be appropriate just for that occasion.

HOMEWORK TASK THIRTEEN

Imagine you have completed (i.e., taught) the lesson you chose for Homework Task One (A) and you want to make a short quiz (10 min) that will measure what you taught in the class. For this homework task, please write the answers to the seven questions that will help you make test specifications for the test. We have pasted the questions again here:

- 1) What is the *purpose* of the test?
- 2) What sort of *learners* will be taking the test?
- 3) What *language skills* should be tested (reading, writing, speaking and/or listening)?
- 4) What *language elements* should be tested (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speech acts, etc.)?

5) What **target language situation** is envisaged for the test, and is this to be simulated in some way in the test content and method? (e.g., is this a test of academic French? Of English for international TAs? Of Japanese for hotel workers?)

6) What **text types** should be chosen as stimulus materials -- written and/or spoken?

7) What sort of **tasks** are required -- discrete point, integrative, simulated 'authentic', objectively assessable? (That is, what will the test-takers do?)

RESOURCES

Some useful books and book chapters on language assessment:

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13. Shohamy, E. (2001). *The power of tests: A critical perspective on the uses of language tests*. Pearson Education Limited.
14. Taylor, L. (2009). Developing assessment literacy. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 29, 21-36.
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SECTION 3.4

Using Statistics: Objectively Scored Items

"...The multiple-choice format is intrinsically inimical to the interests of instruction. What multiple choice formats gain in reliability and ease of administration, in other words, is more than used up in detrimental instructional effects and difficulty of preparation" (Oller, 1979, p. 233).

GOALS

The main goal of this section is to explain basic statistical procedures (Brown, 2006) required for a language teacher to be able to analyze student assessment results. The section focuses on objectively scored items.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) explain the significance of assessment statistics for teaching and learning;
- B) conduct basic statistical analysis of results from objectively scored items (i.e., Measures of Central Tendency and Measures of Dispersion); and,
- C) interpret the results of conducted statistics.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Most teachers try to steer clear of seemingly complicated mathematical calculations of statistical analysis. However, this process is not as daunting as it might be assumed. Below, you will learn the most basic procedures that every teacher should be able to apply while considering the validity of the objectively-scored assessment results.

Think about the following:

1. What do you know about Measures of Central Tendency and Measures of Dispersion?
2. Why do you think it is important to conduct statistical analysis of assessment results?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

Teacher: During an academic year, we have two midterms and two final tests. The assessment tools are designed based on what is taught in the class. Teachers collect different tasks from textbooks and we also take stuff from the Internet on reading, listening, as well as grammar and vocabulary.

Interviewer: Why do you choose these skills to assess?

Teacher: They are easy to check; we do not have to spend much time on scoring.

Interviewer: What happens after the tests?

Teacher: We check the tests without any criteria and announce scores. Then, these scores are used to provide a final score for the student.

Interviewer: OK, what happens after?

Teacher: That's it. We finalize. Students receive their scores.

Interviewer: Do you ever analyze the students' scores?

Teacher: No, we do not have time. We need to start the new term.

REFLECTION

Think about the case above. What issues come up? Is the teacher's assessment procedure similar to others at your university? Having been introduced to *Assessment for Learning* and *Assessment of Learning* what can you suggest a teacher can and should do with the test results?

KEY CONCEPTS

There are seven concepts in this section: Objectively-scored assessments; Measures of Central Tendency; Mean; Median; Mode; Measures of Dispersion; Standard Deviation. We will briefly explain each one below.

Objectively-Scored Assessment. An Objectively-scored item is a question where there is only one fixed correct answer. It is also known as closed-answer test. One of the strongest advantages of using this type of assessment is its high reliability and accuracy in generating a total score. In the Uzbekistan context, using objective scoring to measuring language has been the main approach in assessment. The most popular is being multiple-choice tests with four variants of responses. Even though it is a highly reliable method of testing, it does have certain dangers. Multiple-

choice items are notoriously hard to design. Other closed-response item test method types might be easier to develop but even they are fraught with issues, like guessing. Therefore, statistics can reveal not only the quality of a test but also the preparedness of students.

Measures of Central Tendency. After students have taken an objectively-scored test you might want to know how your strong students did as opposed to the weak ones? Or, you might be interested in knowing how well one class did in comparison to another group. When a teacher obtains students' test results, this becomes informative data. Usually in statistics we look for an average result, which is also referred to as **central tendency**. Central tendency can be informed by *mean, median, and mode*.

Mean is the average of all the available scores from a test. The formula can be represented mathematically as:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n}$$

In other words, the mean or (X bar) is the sum (addition) of all scores in a set divided by the number of test takers. Here is an example: A class of 10 students were assessed in reading with a progress test consisting of 30 closed-item questions, in which the maximum score was 30. The procedure for obtaining the mean is as follows:

1) Present the Distribution of Scores

Table 13. Distribution of Scores.

Student Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Score	14	18	19	20	21	21	21	26	26	27

2) All the scores are added up and divided by the number of students:

$$14+18+19+20+21+21+21+24+26+27 = \mathbf{213 \text{ (the sum of all scores)}}$$

the sum of all scores

number of students

$$213: 10 = \mathbf{21.3} \text{ (this is the average score and it is also called mean)}$$

We need to know **mean** to see how well our students did on average. And here, with total score of 30, the mean is **21.3**.

3) Interpreting the mean score. To interpret the mean, you need to think about what type of test you used (e.g., progress test, proficiency,

achievement, etc.). For example, the mathematical distribution above was for a progress test. In a progress test a teacher hopes for higher scores, which means the students have learned the knowledge or skills. 21.3 is a low average and informs the teacher that the students did not understand the materials as best as they could. However, to more fully understand the central point of understanding, we will need to also look at the median and mode.

Median is derived by means of, firstly, setting scores in ascending order (see Table 13) and then identifying the score that appears in the middle of the list. Thus, the median is the point at which 50% of the scores are higher and 50% of the scores are lower. Because there are an even number of students (i.e., 10) we will take Student 5 and Student 6 scores, which are both respectively 21 and 21. Then, we find the average of these scores. Median in our case is **21**.

Mode is the most commonly occurring score. To find the mode, you find the score that is used most often in the data set. In our case, it is **21** (if you look at Table 13 above, 21 is the score of three students).

Interpreting overall results of the Measures of Central Tendency. We have identified that the mean is 21.3, the median is 21, the mode is 21. Because this test is a progress test and most students were not successful – as the total score is 30 – we will need to revisit some topics that students did not understand.

Measures of Dispersion. Apart from the Measures of Central Tendency indicators (i.e., mean, median, and mode), we are also interested in *how* spread out the scores are from the mean. These mathematical procedures are called Measures of Dispersion (i.e., standard deviation).

Standard Deviation is the average distance of scores from the mean. The lower number you receive for standard deviation to 0, the more the students in the class are similar. The larger number you obtain for standard deviation, the less similar (i.e., more different) the students are in the class. The standard deviation formula is mathematically represented as follows:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})^2}{n - 1}}$$

In other words, there are five steps we need to take to complete the standard deviation (if we calculate the standard deviation by hand). Let's refer to our data set from the reading quiz:

Student Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Score	14	18	19	20	21	21	21	26	26	27

1) Find the mean. The mean is represented by \bar{X} in the formula. We found the mean to be 21.3.

2) For each data point, find the square of its distance to the mean: Here is an example for the first data point: 14, from Student 1:

a. $(14 - 21.3) = -7.3$

b. $(-7.3)^2 = 53.29$

Student Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Score	14	18	19	20	21	21	21	26	26	27
Square of the distance from the mean $(x - \bar{x})^2$	53.29	10.89	5.29	1.69	0.09	0.09	0.09	22.09	22.09	32.49

3) Sum the values:

a. $53.29 + 10.89 + 5.29 + 1.69 + 0.09 + 0.09 + 0.09 + 22.09 + 22.09 + 32.49$

b. Sum = 148.10

4) Divide by the number of data points minus one.

a. 10 students took the class; $10 - 1 = 9$

b. 148.10 divided by 9 equals 16.45

5) Take the square root.

a. $\sqrt{16.45}$

b. 4.06

Interpreting the standard deviation: The closer the number is to 0, the more similar the class is; the farther away from 0 the number is, the more different the students in the class are. Usually, for language teachers, you would like your class standard deviation to be between 0.00 and 1.00. However, the standard deviation for the groups of students here is 4.06, which means the students are very spread out and you have various ranges of levels of students in your class.

Interpretation of assessment scores. To fully interpret your results, you will need to combine the results from the Measures of Central Tendency (i.e., mean, median, and mode) with the standard deviation.

ACTION

You have learned the main ways of statistical test results analysis, now, in groups, consider the following case and compare the results of two classes.

Class One:

Student Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Score	14	18	19	20	21	21	21	26	26	27

Class Two

Student Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Score	10	12	17	18	21	21	27	28	29	30

You already know the mean in the Group 1, find out the mean the Group 2.

Derive the mean, median as well as the standard deviation. What can you realize when making class comparisons using basic statistical procedures? Which class did better (i.e., which class is stronger). If you were the teacher of these classes what actions would you take next?

SUMMARY

Assessment statistics such as finding the Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion allows deriving valuable information about both the success and failures of students. By following the procedures above, assessment results can be turned into a very useful source of data about your student's knowledge and skills of language and show what at first glance might not catch your attention. Without such information, it is hard to say whether your efforts have brought the expected results, what are the challenges, and how best to address them.

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SECTION 3.5

Using Subjectively-Scored Assessments

"Test tasks should...be designed to give not only a "yes" or "no" answer as to whether an examinee can "do" a task, but should indicate how well he or she can do it relative to how well he or she needs to do it" (Wesche, 1983, pp. 44-45).

GOALS

The main goal of this section is to discuss different principles language teachers should take into consideration when using subjectively-scored assessments.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) explain what subjectively-scored assessments are;
- B) differentiate holistic and analytic assessments;
- C) discuss and come to a consensus over assessment scores; and,
- D) distinguish and apply holistic and analytic scoring.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Recently, teachers in Uzbekistan are highly encouraged to use subjectively scored methods of assessment based on performance (e.g. role-play, presentation) and product (e.g. essay, report, portfolio). This approach to assessment involves judgement from one or more assessors who will need to use either holistic and/or analytic criteria (see below).

Think about the following:

1. What do you think are the main challenges in using subjectively-scored assessments?
2. How difficult is it to agree on a score with a colleague? Please think about examples from your own experience during your time as a pre-service or current in-service teacher life.
3. Have you ever had any trouble understanding assessment criteria? If you had, why do you think that happened?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

At the end of a course, students are assessed based on the presentation of their project work. The process involves 20-minute speech delivered by students, and a question-answer part from members of a specially assigned assessing committee. Then, the presenter is to leave the room and the committee members discuss and agree on the score to be announced. Sometimes, students disagree with the granted scores and consider them unfair. For example, the other day, one of the students presented on a topic that he liked a lot during the course and he received instruction on it during classes. However, when he presented, one of the committee members, was very critical of the selected approaches in the project work and he marked the student down claiming the absence of the required procedures. The student was shocked as, in his project work; he followed the procedures taught by his teacher. Therefore, the mark seemed to be very unfair.

REFLECTION

Discuss the case above. What do you think is a possible violation – of the four traditional criteria of language assessment (i.e., validity, reliability, practicality, and washback) – that the assessor made? How do you think assessors can be sure that their assessment is fair? How should the score be explained to a student, when such a situation happens?

KEY CONCEPTS

There are six key concepts in this section: Assessment criteria; holistic scoring; analytic scoring; inter/intra-rater reliability; benchmarking; informing and explaining a score. We will briefly explain each one below.

Assessment criteria. Marking criteria or rubric is central to making sure that subjectively-scored assessments are valid and fair for subjectively scored assessments. We believe a teacher cannot and should not assess a student unless there are clear criteria from which he or she is to be assessed. A piece of work (i.e., essay) or oral response (i.e., interview) by a student that is assessed without using any criteria is regarded unacceptable. A common issue in Uzbekistan is that criteria for one assessment is used for multiple situations and does not address the appropriate content to be measured. (Thus, many subjectively-scored tests are not valid.) It should be noted that adapting criteria should be approached with specific attention, as the

quality and clearness of scale descriptors can affect scoring and its validity. Another common issue is interpreting scale descriptors for assessment. Therefore, creators of criteria must make sure that there is no ambiguity in descriptors and teacher, in their turn, need to notify the issues observed. Responsibility of fair assessment lies on teachers. The proper use of rating criteria is also crucial, which means that teachers need to be attentive in making their decisions.

Holistic and Analytic Scoring. There are two main types of scoring: holistic and analytic. Holistic scoring looks at the whole picture of the student's work. Thus, you will need to provide one general score. Analytic scoring, however, is concerned with separate constituents when assessing. Your task is to look at various aspects or scoring facets to generate a score. Here is an example of holistic criteria that was used by Pat Blogger (as cited in Bailey, 1999) for his test, which was an attempt to measure English language ability with respect to understanding written passages first and then to work with that information in order to construct arguments:

Holistic Scale for a Speaker's Effectiveness of Argumentation

7	Relevant arguments are presented in an interesting way, with main ideas prominently and clearly stated, with completely effective supporting material; arguments are effectively related to the speaker's view.
6	Relevant arguments are presented in an interesting way; main ideas are highlighted with effective supporting material, and are well related to the speaker's own views.
5	Arguments are well presented with relevant supporting material and an attempt to relate them to the speaker's views.
4	Arguments are presented but it may be difficult for the rater to distinguish main ideas from supporting material; main ideas may not be supported; their relevance may be dubious; arguments may not be related to the speaker's views.
3	Arguments are presented, but may lack relevance, clarity, consistency or support; they may not be related to the speaker's views.
2	Arguments are inadequately presented and supported; they may be irrelevant; if the speaker's views are presented, their relevance maybe difficult to see.
1	Some elements of information are present but the rater is not provided with an argument, or the argument is mainly irrelevant.
0	A meaning comes through occasionally but it is not relevant.

This rubric is holistic because the assessor will provide one score, from 0 to 7, to the student based on the descriptors for each level. There are both advantages and disadvantages to using holistic scoring methods.

Table 14. Advantages and Disadvantages for Holistic Scoring

Advantages	Disadvantages
Higher rater reliability can be achieved	May mask differences across individual assignments
Scoring scale can be understood by students and teachers.	Does not provide much useful diagnostic feedback.
Applicable to many different topics	Fails to capture important differences
Emphasizes strengths rather than weakness	
Great potential for positive washback	

Here is an example of analytic criteria that was used by Dr. David Chiesa when assessing students discourse analysis paper after analyzing dialogue from an American Movie. The analytic criteria were adapted from Ferris and Hedgcock (2014).

Analytical Writing Scoring Criteria			
Names:			Movie Title:
Facilitator: David Chiesa			Date:
Record Score	Grade	Score Range	
Content			
	A	36-40	Superior understanding of topic and writing context; all questions answered and supported with sound generalizations and substantial, specific, and relevant details; rich distinctive content that is original, perceptive, and/or persuasive; strong reader interest.
	B	32-35	Accurate grasp of topic and writing context; many questions answered and supported with sound generalizations and relevant details; substantial reader interest.

C	28-31	Acceptable but cursory understanding of topic and writing context; few questions answered and supported with adequate generalizations and relevant details; suitable but predictable content that is somewhat sketchy and overly general; occasional irrelevant detail or unsound generalizations; average reader interest
D/F	1-27	Little or no grasp of the topic or writing context; little to no questions answered; inadequate supporting points or details; irrelevant details, numerous unsound generalizations; insufficient, unsuitable, unclear, vague, or weak content; minimal or no reader interest.
Academic Writing: Rhetorical Structure		
A	36-40	Exceptionally clear plan connected to purpose; plan developed with consistent attention to proportion, emphasis, logical order, flow, and synthesis of ideas; paragraphs coherent, unified, and effectively developed; striking introduction, body paragraphs, and conclusion.
B	32-35	Clear plan connected to purpose; plan developed with proportion, emphasis, logical order, and synthesis of ideas; paragraphs coherent, unified and adequately developed; smooth transitions between paragraphs; effective introduction, body paragraphs, and conclusion.
C	28-31	Conventional plan apparent but routinely presented; paragraphs adequately unified and coherent, but minimally effective in development; weak topic sentences; transition between paragraphs apparent but abrupt, mechanical, or monotonous; routine introduction, body paragraphs, and conclusion.
D/F	1-27	Plan not apparent, inappropriate, underdeveloped, or developed with irrelevance, redundancy, inconsistency, or inattention to logical progression; paragraphs incoherent, underdeveloped, or not unified; transitions between paragraphs unclear, ineffective, or nonexistent; weak introduction, body paragraphs, and conclusion.

Grammatical Form: Including Mechanics			
	A	18-20	Sentences skillfully constructed, unified, coherent, forceful, effectively varied; deftness in coordinating, subordinating, and emphasizing ideas; harmonious agreement of content and sentence design; impressive use of grammatical structure; clarity and effectiveness of expression enhanced by consistent use of conventional punctuation, capitalization, and spelling.
	B	16-17	Sentences accurately and coherently constructed with some variety; evident and varied coordination, subordination, and emphasis of ideas; some errors in complex patterns; effective and clear use of grammatical structures. Flow of communication only occasionally diverted by errors in conventional punctuation.
	C	14-15	Sentences constructed accurately but lacking in distinction; minimal skill in coordinating and subordinating ideas; little variety in sentence structure; clarity weakened by occasional awkward, incomplete, fused and/or improperly predicated clauses and complex sentences; marginal to adequate use of grammatical structures. Adequate clarity and effectiveness of expression, though diminished by punctuation, capitalization, and/or spelling errors.
	D/F	1-13	Sentences marred frequently enough to distract or frustrate the reader; numerous sentences incoherent, fused, incomplete, and/or improperly predicated; monotonous, very simple sentence structure; unacceptable use of grammatical structures. Communication hindered or obscured by frequent violations of punctuation, capitalization, and/or spelling conventions.
Total Score (out of 100 total points)	Grade		Comments:

Both approaches to scoring subjectively (holistic and analytic) have advantages and disadvantages. The decision regarding which approach to choose – holistic or analytic – depends on the purpose of assessment.

Inter (Intra)-rater reliability. One of the significant challenges in performance and direct assessments is inter-rater reliability (between two people)/ intra-rater reliability (amongst yourself as an assessor). It is very hard to achieve consistency in marking not only between one rater with the other, but also among various instances of assessment made by the same rater. It appears subjectivity cannot be avoided and we find quite frequently teachers who are quite generous and kind in marking, while others are quite harsh and demanding. To mitigate this endless problem, raters are usually asked to have benchmarking before they conduct assessment. **Benchmarking** is when two raters are both assigned to check the same written work or conduct a spoken examination together. In this case, both specialists must agree on a certain score. A third rater might be invited in cases when the judgement of the two differ significantly. In McNamara (2000, p.58) minimum acceptable inter-rater agreement range from 50%, where other 50% are the cases when raters disagree. Much acceptable is the case of 80% agreement to 20% disagreement, which can be the result of accurate wording or criteria or proper training of the raters. For information on the mathematical formulas on how to conduct inter-rater and intra-rater reliability, we recommend referring to Bailey (1998).

Informing and Explaining a Score. Very often, in the Uzbekistan context, students tend to ask for the explanation of a score. Arguments over a score can be avoided if transparent scoring is in place, which means that students need to know how they are assessed and why they are granted a certain score. Issues come out from the absence and ambiguity of marking criteria. Therefore, the primary concern of a rater must be whether the granted score is thoroughly considered and whether the necessary procedures have been used.

SUMMARY

In conclusion, subjectively-scored assessment can be very challenging for a teacher and it is hard to abstain from impressionistic marking. We recommend sticking closely to using either a holistic or analytic scoring method. However, a teacher must be conscious of ethics in assessment, as whatever mark we-teachers settle on might change the course of events in the lives of our students. Therefore, assessment is great responsibility.

HOMWORK TASK FOURTEEN

You now have gone through five sections in the chapter and learnt the salient aspects in language assessment and testing. By this time, you should have developed ideas regarding what changes you can make in your teaching and assessment practices. Based on what you have learnt in this chapter and discussions at classes, write an action plan (minimum 1 page) describing the problematic areas which you are planning to address after you complete this in-service education course, provide details of:

- Why you think it is a significant issue,
- How you are going to address it; and,
- What is the expected result?

RESOURCES

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CHAPTER FOUR: PRACTICAL EXAMPLES OF USING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Ulugbek Azizov, Ph.D.

Chapter 4 provides the reader with practical activities to make connections between teaching the sub-skill sets of English (i.e., speaking, listening, writing, and reading) and the communicative competencies explained from Chapter 1. In Section 4.1, we address speaking activities and provide some practical examples of supporting pragmatic competence. Section 4.2 examines the sub-skill of listening and communicative competence. In this section, we will present a way to organize a class that targets at developing students' pragmatic, discursive, as well as sociolinguistic competencies through the teaching of listening. Section 4.3 targets the sub-skill of writing and uses comparative analyses to learn how to write in specific English genres. Finally, Section 4.4 addresses reading and communicative competence. The two main goals of this chapter: (1) present a connection between the sub-skills that we teach and communicative competencies; and (2) provide practical examples you may use in your lesson plan for Chapter 5 and/or beyond the professional development course.

SECTION 4.1

Speaking and Communicative Competence

“The basic assumption in any interaction is that the speaker wants to communicate ideas, feelings, attitudes, and information to the hearer or wants to employ speech that relates to the situation. The objective of the speaker is to be understood and for the message to be properly interpreted by the hearer(s). It is speaker’s intention that needs to be communicated to the hearer” (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 166).

INTRODUCTION

Language teachers in Uzbekistan often utilize the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) when they teach the skill of speaking. To master speaking skills has meant to memorize form/structure and meanings/semantics. As such, students are expected to follow linguistic rules and dictionary meanings (i.e., denotation) while speaking about any topic. Teaching speaking within a GTM conceptualization has often caused some problems that carry over into real (and substantial) human communication. With the introduction of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in Uzbekistan, in 2012, the focus has shifted from learning *form* and *semantics* to studying language in *use*. We do not argue that the GTM is invaluable, and we respect what this methodology brings to the area of language teaching and learning. Within *use*, however, language learners are expected to consider the intended meaning of an utterance (i.e., pragmatic competence), and/or take into consideration values, beliefs, and shared knowledge (i.e. meaning-in-use). A question arises regarding how to teach not only form/semantics, but also use in EFL classes in Uzbekistan via speaking activities. This brief section presents one activity you can utilize which focuses on pragmatic competence for the speaking course.

GOALS

This section illustrates how one can use an activity for teaching speaking that is focused on form/semantics as well as meaning-in-use in real-life situations.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) understand how to better teach intended meanings (i.e., meaning-in-use) based on interactive classroom activities; and,
- B) interpret pragmatic meanings in different social contexts. This means knowing pragmalinguistics (i.e., meaning-in-use depending on time, space and social context) and sociopragmatics (i.e., societal shared rules and norms that make an utterance appropriate from the viewpoint of the maxims of quality, quantity, relevance and manner).

TASK IN CLASS²

Topic: Researching different sociolinguistic categories (e.g., age, gender, and nationality) about how people respond to the utterances *hello*, *how are you*, and *I heard you have problems these days*.

Purpose: To understand how different categories of people respond to utterances *hello*, *how are you*, and *I heard you have problems these days* from the maxims of quantity and quality (see Grice, 1975, and chapter 1 for a detailed discussion of maxims). Generally, the maxim of quantity implies how many words/sentences different categories of people use to respond to the utterances *hello*, *how are you*, and *I heard you have problems these days* (i.e., language variation). On the other hand, the maxim of quality means to what extent a person who is responding is open/genuine, and thus telling the truth about his or her state of being. Usually, people (e.g., friends, relatives) respond to the utterance *I heard you have problems these days* as follows: (i) shortly "no," meaning this person does not want you too close to him or her. Thus, he or she is not open, even though he or she has a problem; or, (ii) people are very open and tell all his or her problems. The meaning of the utterance *I heard you have problems these days* depends on how people respond to your question. Thus, forms/structures and meanings/semantics are meaningful while speaking takes place. Students doing this speaking activity will feel how form, rules, and dictionary meanings are deployed in real life situations to accomplish a communicative goal.

Focus: questioning people (i.e., other students, relatives, friends (via phone, for example)) by asking: *hello*, *how are you*, and *I heard you have problems these days*.

Pre-work: none.

² Please note that the proposed activity is one example out of many. This example is given to show how a teacher can organize class based on CLT via speaking activities. This activity will serve as a framework for organizing such classes with different topics, in different contexts in the future.

Activity: individual work. Students will explore how different categories of people respond to *hello*, *how are you*, and *I heard you have problems these days*. The answers, with the permission of interlocutors, will be recorded with the help of mobile phones and then the content of these communications will be analyzed from the viewpoint of the maxims of quality and quantity. The findings of students will be presented one by one.

Needed technology: mobile phones, laptop, and projector.

IN CLASS – DAY 1

- 1.1. The teacher divides a class into four (or more) groups – depends on the size of your class. Each group will be responsible for obtaining different types of data. Three of the groups will be given a task of asking people *hello* and *how are you?* After they have asked participants the questions and wrote down their responses, the learners will categorize people's answers based on three categories – age (group 1), gender (group 2), or nationality (group 3). This task could be conducted either in Uzbek and/or Russian/English to investigate the language variation.
- 1.2. Group 4 will be given the task of looking into authentic materials (e.g., movies), in which proficient English speakers will answer the questions *hello* and *how are you*. If there is a highly proficient English speaker on the University campus, he or she can also be questioned. Sometimes these speakers come from English dominant speaking countries.³
- 1.3. The teacher asks each group to bring the results of their survey to the class the following session.

IN CLASS – DAY 2

- 2.2. Each group will present their results on the screen. A comparative analysis will be carried out to understand language variations in the context of different categories (i.e., age, gender, and nationality) from Grice's maxims perspectives. For example, the maxim of quality – whether Russian speaking people in comparison to Uzbek speaking people were more open while answering, and/or told

³ We do not use the phrase native speaker in this text because it is fraught with controversy. Instead, we use the phrase proficient speaker of English to denote anyone who is often perceived as a 'native speaker' or one who comes from English dominant speaking countries.

the truth about their inner state (i.e., the hearer's assessment of the speaker's utterance as being true in accordance with generally accepted social norms, rules, traditions). The maxim of quantity – whether different categories of people use long/short sentences; one, two or three moves to answer the questions. These results will be compared to the answers taken from the authentic materials in English or from a proficient speaker of English.

CONCLUSION

These activities have demonstrated how different non-linguistic factors such as age, gender, and nationality affect the way people order their speaking; and how these non-linguistic factors make people choose a certain type of grammar, semantics, syntax, stylistics while speaking. Thus, learning language should not only be limited to memorizing the linguistic rules; it should also take into consideration how people appropriately speak in real-life situations.

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SECTION 4.2

Listening and Communicative Competence

“When people listen – whether they are listening to a lecture, a news broadcast, or a joke, or are engaging in a conversation – they are listening to a stretch of discourse. ... good listeners make use of their understanding of the ongoing discourse or co-text (i.e., they attend to what has already been said and predict what is likely to be said next” (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, pp. 102-3).

INTRODUCTION

Listening within Grammar Translation Method (GTM) classes in Uzbekistan has been an activity within which purely linguistic features such as phonetics (i.e., whether one pronounces sounds correctly), grammar (e.g., whether tenses are used properly), semantics (i.e., whether one can translate what is heard within the meanings fixed in dictionaries) have been taught and assessed. As such, listening and the comprehension of it have depended upon knowing these linguistic features. With an outgrowth of the works of anthropological linguists such as Hymes and Halliday (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Snow, 2014, p. 8), listening has started to be regarded as an activity of interpretation, and not just understanding the linguistic rules/features. An interpretation of what is listened to is closely connected with the term *discourse* – a social event happened in a particular time and space within which prior knowledge, sociocultural knowledge, shared norms and rules as well as a certain regime of truth determine the meaning of a conversation. This definition implies that comprehension of a listening activity is closely connected with interpreting a particular discourse, and not the text itself. This section will show how one can teach listening via discourse in the context of communicative competence.

GOALS

This section illustrates how one can teach listening communicatively. To achieve this goal, this section presents two classroom activities: one targets sociolinguistic competence, one examines listening and pragmatic competence.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

A) understand how listening is a social act through which non-linguistic factors such as shared knowledge, prior knowledge, and accepted truth within a section of society contribute to comprehending a spoken meaning (sociolinguistic competence);

B) understand how listening is a social act through which the intention of speakers is transmitted through form and semantics (pragmatic competence); and,

C) organize a class that targets developing students' sociolinguistic, as well as pragmatic, competencies.

TASK IN CLASS

Activity #1 (Sociolinguistic Competence)

Topic: The person you really need to marry.

Background: Ted Talk. A talk by Tracy McMillan, a television writer from the United States.

Purpose: To understand how the idea of whom one should marry is meaningful from the viewpoint of an American cultural perspective, as well as how one should understand "The person you really need to marry" in its social context (i.e., beliefs, norms, and traditions).

Focus: Listening and watching a video taken from YouTube on June 15, 2018:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=P3flZuW9P_M&t=194s

Pre-work: Yes. The teacher asks the students to watch and listen to the video carefully and find out why McMillan's talk is meaningful to the audience by answering the following questions: (1) What is the meaning of *really* in her talk title? (2) Why does the audience applaud when she said she had married three times? (3) What are those social conditions (beliefs, norms, etc.) that make "The person you really need to marry" meaningful and successful in American society? (4) What is the meaning of the "The person you really need to marry" in Uzbek culture? These are questions listeners would have to find an answer to while listening and comprehending the video.

Activity: Individual work, interpreting, group discussion.

Needed equipment: Laptop, projector and speakers.

In class

1. While listening, students try to answer the questions mentioned in

the pre-work section above by taking brief notes. (Learning how to take notes can be and should be taught prior to this lesson.)

2. After listening to the TED Talk, the teacher asks students to talk in pairs and/or groups about the answers to the four questions. Students discuss the answers. The teacher conducts a full class discussion and asks for volunteers from each group to talk on behalf of the group. Students are not expected to understand everything, but key ideas that make McMillan's speech meaningful and successful to the audience.

3. The teacher can extend the activity to include a speaking component. The teacher asks students to make a speech on the same topic that he or she thinks is relevant and socially acceptable in Uzbek culture.

TASK IN CLASS

Activity #2 (Pragmatic Competence)

Topic: Understanding a word – hello – beyond its dictionary meaning.

Purpose: To understand how *hello* might have different social meanings depending on time, space and social context; and, at the same time how by saying *hello* people transmit their intentions to the other party.

Focus: Listening and watching a video taken from YouTube: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5aeCxWyNAQQ>;

Pre-work: Yes. Discern the fixed meanings of *hello* by using a published English dictionary.

Activity: Individual work, interpreting, group discussion.

Needed equipment: Laptop, projector, and speakers.

IN CLASS

1. Before watching the video, the teacher asks students to use the dictionary to discern the number of meanings for the word *hello*. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2015) states three meanings of *hello*:

1. ... Used as a GREETING when you meet somebody, when you answer the telephone or when you want to attract somebody's attention.

2. ... Used to show that you are surprised by something.

3. ... Used to show that you think somebody has said something stupid or is not paying attention.

2. Then, the teacher asks students to listen to a conversation from YouTube that focuses on using the word *hello* without watching it and find

out what meanings of hello each situation contains. In the video there 14 situations in which interlocutors use the word *hello*. Students are asked to write in the "Definition without a social context" column what meanings of *hello* are used without watching the video, but listening only. Students are limited to discern the meanings of *hello* out of the three given above by *The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*.

3. The teacher asks students to watch (one can interpret a social context) and listen to the video carefully, and see how a social context can give new meanings (meaning-in-use) of *hello* depending on time, space, and social context. Students will write their findings in the "Definition with a social context. What is the intention of the speaker?" column. See below for chart.

#	Word	Definition without a social context	Definition with a social context. What is the intention of the speaker?
1	Hello		
2	Hello		
3	Hello		
4	Hello		
5	Hello		
6	Hello		
7	Hello		
8	Hello		
9	Hello		
10	Hello		
11	Hello		
12	Hello		
13	Hello		
14	Hello		

CONCLUSION

The activity in this section has shown how listening comprehension is not limited to meanings fixed in a dictionary. Social circumstances play a role in defining the meanings of words. People, while comprehending oral speech, should also be able to recognize a social context, which listening and listening comprehension depend upon.

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SECTION 4.3

Writing and Communicative Competence

“From the sociocultural perspective, writing is seen as part of a socially and culturally situated set of literacy practices shared by a particular community. From this perspective, the process of learning to write is the process of becoming a member of a discourse community, a group of people (e.g., biologists, politicians, or even fans of a particular musical genre) who share values and assumptions about using language and also have certain ways of using language (oral or written) for particular purposes” (Weigle, 2014, p. 223).

INTRODUCTION

Teaching writing is perceived as a difficult task for language teachers. In a traditional classroom, students are asked to do translations, read texts, retell them, and conduct grammar exercises. Thus, most students from universities throughout the Republic of Uzbekistan demonstrate insufficient knowledge of how to write well-organized, genre-specific, and culturally-situated texts. Additionally, most language teachers in Uzbekistan report that writing is an individual activity. Therefore, at the end of a semester of study, what is going to be measured is the final written product instead of the *process* of writing. As is assumed by most teachers in Uzbekistan, to know syntactical rules and to be competent in logically ordering texts leads to the production of successful information in a paper. However, with the development and implementation of CLT writing has started to be regarded as a socialized discursive process. In this process, a reader of a written message plays a great role in interpreting a conveyed meaning. It is not only a writer that should follow syntactical rules and logical coherence to successfully communicate a meaning, but a reader (his culture, his shared knowledge, the truth that he is embedded in, etc.) of this written message should be taken into consideration.

GOALS

This section illustrates how one can teach sociolinguistic competence through writing.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

A) understand how writing is a socialized dialogic speech (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000); and,

B) realize that writing, to be successful, should take into consideration and include readers' culture, discourse, and shared knowledge.

TASK IN CLASS

We have two classroom activities for writing. One is "recommending someone" for scholarship programs and the second – "Welcome: Writing an address for the UzSWLU's website".

Activity #1

Topic: Recommending someone.

Purpose: To understand how culture could influence someone's choice of syntax, grammar, and semantics in writing. While understanding this concept, one should take into consideration the reader's culture, shared knowledge and truth, which in turn leads to convincing the reader regarding a recommended person.

Focus: Writing a recommendation letter in class.

Pre-work: None.

Activity: Pair-work, discussion.

Needed equipment: Laptop and projector.

IN CLASS

1. The teacher asks students to work in pairs and provides them with instructions: write a recommendation letter about each other. Tell them that this recommendation letter should be submitted to a Fulbright Scholarship Program, as his or her friend has applied to the program. The program allows accomplished scholars from Uzbekistan to stay in the United States for up to one year to conduct research at American universities. The recommendation letter should convince a reader in his or her field of expertise that the applicant can conduct research at an academic level.

2. The teacher informs learners to finish writing the letter of recommendation within 30 minutes (type on laptops or handwrite on paper).

3. The teacher chooses one pair's letter and projects it onto the screen. (See Example 1 below.)

4. At the same time, the teacher brings a recommendation letter written by a proficient English writer for the same purpose (see Example 2 below).

5. The teacher projects the writer's letter along with the letter written by an Uzbek student in class.

6. The teacher asks students to find the differences between these two letters: (a) semantics – word choice, that is, more verbs vs. adjectives, word collocations while recommending an applicant; (b) syntax – how these letters are structured in terms of simple, compound and complex sentences, passive and active voices. Using active or passive voices show whether a person that is recommending is direct (active voice) and thus tries to show his or her direct relation to the recommended person, or not (passive voice); (c) grammar – what tenses a person that is recommending uses. By this, we can see whether we are leaning upon facts (past tense, what one did), or upon people's present state of being in general (e.g., the present tense with an example *he is a good person*); (d) how recommending an applicant in individualist vs. collectivist societies reflects on grammar, syntax choices, etc.

7. The teacher asks students to write the differences they have found on their laptop and asks them why these differences are the case.

Below are two recommendation letters. Example #1 is a letter written by an English teacher in Uzbekistan, whose nationality is Russian. Example #2 is a letter written by a proficient English writer from the United States. Both letters are given to the same person who applied to the Fulbright program in the United States. Names (and other identifiable information) in these letters are erased to protect the anonymity of the participants.

Example #1

REFERENCE LETTER

Date Dec 5th, 2017

Name: XXX

Title: Senior lecturer

Institution: XXXX

City: XXXXX

To whom it may concern

Dr. Mr./Mrs.,

As the participant of teacher training course in Uzbekistan State World Languages University, it is a privilege for me to write a reference letter for Mr. XXX and his/her position XX is mentioned.

Undoubtedly, Mr. XXX has been the vital part of the professional growth of University of World Languages being the member of new curriculum committee and eagerly taking up extra responsibilities as researcher in the new areas of social constructivism, cognitive linguistics, critical linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, and interpretative methodology in social sciences.

His recent publications in the above mentioned areas have shown that XXX embraces any opportunity for professional development, which makes him an ideal promoter of socio-linguistics studies in the Republic of Uzbekistan. I particularly want to highlight his book XXX, published in Berlin in 2015, which is very crucial for our region.

In his position as XXX he or she is able to build effective working relations between all his staff members and trainees demonstrating a high level of competence, integrity and commitment.

I recommend Dr. XXX to you without reservation. If you have any further questions with regard to his background or qualifications, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

X

Example #2

Dear Members of the Search Committee,

I am pleased to write this letter of recommendation for Dr. XXX, who is applying for the Fulbright program. I have known Dr. XXX since May 2017 when we discussed empirical and conceptual research in Central Asia, co-constructed an abstract for a professional international conference, co-taught a class on pragmatics, and collaborated on the review of a national in-service teacher education program, so I feel well qualified to comment on his research, teaching, ability to work with others across cultures, and English language skills. By way of foreshadowing my final comments, let me add that in each of these contexts Dr. XXX has done excellent work, and I look forward to reading about his future research that will come from his time on your program.

As a scholar, one needs to have a strong research agenda. Dr. XXX's research trajectory is noteworthy, and his passion about his research seeps

through in conversations. With three peer-reviewed journal articles and two books, his research focus is on multidisciplinary approaches that brings together the areas of political science, international relations, sociology, and linguistics. In his recent research -- which he wrote an abstract for the international American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL) Conference under my guidance -- he took an applied linguistic perspective to how states, international organizations, and individuals in Central Asia share meanings and by this way stay connected to each other as a self-referential social system. The paper is titled, "AAA." This interdisciplinary research based in linguistics and utilizes international research theory, is not common in the field of Applied Linguistics, and has been met with much anticipation from me and my colleagues at AAAL.

In addition to having a strong research agenda, a strong scholar should also be able to discuss his/her area of research specialization with anyone who is interested in learning about it. Dr. XXX's ability to explain complicated topics to people who are not used to hearing about specialized information is exceptional. In a class I co-taught with him for university English teachers on pragmatics on English language learning and teaching, teachers could understand the close ties among language and context. I was impressed with his ability to take a complicated topic and make it manageable for the teachers to understand. The topic of pragmatics is particularly important for Dr. XXX because his research agenda is based on the ability to understand how language, context and cultures interact. Additionally, as evidenced in his curriculum vitae, Dr. XXX has much experience teaching classes and I have full confidence Dr. XXX would excel in any capacity if he had to give presentations, lectures, or teach university classes the undergraduate or graduate levels about complicated topics in social constructivism in international relations, cognitive linguistics, critical and discourse analysis, and methodology in the social sciences.

A scholar should also be well-organized; his planning and organization skills are worthy of discussion. I collaborated with Dr. XXX on the review of the national in-service teacher training curriculum for university English teachers at the Republican Scientific-Practical Center of Developing Innovative Methods of Teaching Foreign Languages under the Uzbekistan State University of World Languages. For three months, Dr. XXX was able to plan teacher trainings, focus-group interviews, and individual interviews for me to conduct and analyze data. His program administration, as the XX (his or her position) of the Innovative Center, is outstanding, and the

program would not only have a wonderful researcher and teacher, but also a well-established administrator.

A scholar needs to have exceptional English language skills. As a native speaker of American English and after having lived and worked in over six different countries throughout the world, I am proud to say Dr. XXX's language skills – both in speaking, reading, writing, listening, and translation / interpretation – are exceptional. Furthermore, one of Dr. XXX's main strengths lies in his personal and interpersonal skills. I have found him to be energetic, enthusiastic, reliable, well-organized, and pleasant. He takes feedback well and he is truly concerned with being an excellent researcher and teacher. He also gets along well with teachers from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds across Uzbekistan. At the Innovative Center, he was well liked by both his faculty and staff. In addition, he has demonstrated his ability to learn new languages and to live and thrive in cultures other than his own (e.g., Germany and Japan). I have no doubt he will be outstanding on your program.

I am delighted to give Dr. XXX my strongest possible recommendation. I can think of no one better suited to take on these responsibilities. Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions regarding this recommendation. I can be reached by telephone at TTTTTT or by email at MMMMMM.

Sincerely,
XX

ACTIVITY #2

Topic: Welcome: writing an address for UzSWLU's website.

Purpose: To understand how two different cultures influence the way one structures his or her form and semantics in writing. The differences will lead to an understanding of the language-in-use in the context of the university welcome address.

Focus: Writing a welcome address for the university website.

Pre-work: None.

Activity: Pair-work, discussion.

Needed technology: Laptop and projector.

IN CLASS

1. The teacher asks students to work in pairs and provides instructions: to write a welcome address for a university website for potential incoming

students. Tell them that this welcome address will be read by millions of people, who are interested in university life. The address should reflect the social role that the university takes while fulfilling its main functions for society. The address should also attract future students, so at the same time, it should have an advertising purpose. The address should be limited to 200 words and it must be in English.

2. The teacher asks students to finish writing within 30 minutes and compare the finished writing with the one that is written by a proficient English writer from the United States.

An English specialist from Uzbekistan	An English specialist from the United States
<p>Welcome to the Uzbek State World Languages University.</p> <p>Applying the Uzbek State World Languages University enables you to have enough competence to communicate with the world much more easily, since we provide our students with the sufficient knowledge based on both the language and culture.</p>	<p>Welcome to the Uzbek State World Languages University.</p> <p>We are delighted you have taken an interest in joining our community of language practitioners, scholars, and researchers and look forward to building a lasting and professional relationship with you. The university provides students with exceptional knowledge and skills in language learning, teaching, translation, and interpretation. As we believe in creating transformational learning experiences for students, we wholeheartedly support the connection between language and culture in our every day practices. Through our rigorous curriculum and exceptional teaching, you will gain enough competence to communicate and interact with people and organizations from around the world within varying sociocultural contexts.</p>

An English specialist from Uzbekistan	An English specialist from the United States
<p>Our undergraduates are able to obtain the skills of 27 languages that have their centers offering free face-to-face classes and speaking clubs. The lessons are professionally organized in three languages, namely Uzbek, Russian and English. Receiving their diplomas, the graduates have been employed at the ministry of foreign affairs, educational institutions, international companies, JV enterprises and other governmental as well as non-governmental administrations.</p> <p>We hereby feel totally grateful to invite you to our higher institution.</p>	<p>Our undergraduates have had a tremendous impact on the global society and have been able to obtain the skills of multiple languages. Alumni from the university have gone on to become translators and interpreters, language educators, policy makers, workers in international companies, and also employees in JV enterprises. A degree from Uzbek State World Languages University will open many doors to careers that will support your professional and academic development.</p> <p>We hereby feel grateful to invite you to join our collaborative and engaged community of language professionals in order to make the world a more meaningful place.</p>

3. Compare the linguistic and sociolinguistic differences based on the following criteria: a) *audience*: that is, whether the address clearly knows whom it is addressing; is it clear from the utterances who is expected to read the address?; b) *politeness*: what do you think? Which address is more polite and how is this politeness is achieved?

CONCLUSION

Both activities have demonstrated how writing is affected by culture(s). The Uzbek/Russian and American ways of thinking are not the same, even though those who wrote the given materials have a good command of English. Thus, through writing, students learn not only to write grammatically correct sentences, but also appropriate and persuading messages.

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SECTION 4.4

Reading and Communicative Competence

"In the process of trying to understand a written text the reader has to perform a number of simultaneous tasks: decode the message by recognizing the written signs, interpret the message by assigning meaning to the string of words, and finally, understand what the author's intention was. In this process, there are at least three participants: the writer, the text, and the reader" (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p.119).

INTRODUCTION

Teaching reading in Uzbekistan has been regarded as a structured process. This process means that the text's meaning is dependent upon knowing the structured relations within a text. The structured relations are associated with anaphoric and cataphoric references, with the help of which a reader, as is believed within the GTM, easily interprets the text's meaning. Generally, within the GTM, the relationship between the reader and the text is scrutinized. What is left out of analyses is the author, who can bring into a text different types of interpretations, worldviews, and discourses (i.e., meaning-in-use). As is seen within the CLT, the author is not passive, but active in constructing meanings in a text. What is written is not neutral, but reflects the author's point of view, culture, ideology, and shared norms on things.

GOALS

This section illustrates how one can teach sociolinguistic competence through reading. Reading texts does not leave you neutral, but to some extent affected by certain intersubjective interpretations of an author.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) understand how texts communicate an author's worldview, culture, norms, ideology, and power relations; and,
- B) realize that reading texts is not only understanding what is written and seen in texts, but what is hidden in those texts. The latter is characterized by a situation, within which an author's worldview, his

or her truth, normative judgement, as well as ideology in a particular time and space are communicated throughout texts (sociolinguistic competence).

TASK IN CLASS

Topic: Assessing the educational system in *Country Name*.

Purpose: To understand how a certain type of assessment by the author became possible while interpreting the education system in *Country Name*.

Focus: Interpreting the text "*Country Name: An educational system in crisis*".

Pre-work: None. Only sociolinguistic competence is needed.

Activity: Individual work, group discussion.

Needed facilities: Handouts, blackboard.

IN CLASS

The teacher distributes among students the following text (see below) and asks them to read it carefully. While reading the text, students are required to interpret the meanings of photos that appear within the text to deliver a certain ideological meaning. All words that indicate the belonging of the country name in this text are hidden to keep neutrality (i.e., anonymity) regarding the judgment given by the author of this text. The changed words are given in *italics*.

Country name: An educational system in crisis

Country name has implemented reforms aimed at giving pupils an equal shot at a good education. But the introduction of centralized university entrance exams has so far failed to end corruption in the school system.



Country name's educational system in the post-Soviet era was largely rooted in patterns from the second half of the 20th century. Just a few subjects were withdrawn from the curriculum at the beginning of the 1990s. Whether children got a good education depended heavily on their individual teachers and on how wealthy their families were. University education was mainly reserved for the offspring of urban, high-income families. *People from that country* from rural areas had to get by with the equivalent of a high school diploma or vocational training.

In the middle of the 1990s, reforms were introduced, and many schools changed course. Specialized educational institutions sprang up. College degrees, which had lost some attractiveness due to the financial difficulties of the 1990s, regained their luster. But the university admissions process got more and more difficult. Citing corruption in the admissions committees, the government put an end in the early 2000s to the existing system of university entrance exams.

Unified University Examinations



Centralized college admissions testing may do little to curb corruption

In place of the old exam system came the unified university exams, which are now administered by a central body to each graduate of the 11th grade in all 83 of *Country's* regions. The centralized exam tests each of the most important school subjects, like *Country's* language and literature, math, foreign languages and natural science. Those who want to attend university submit their scores to their desired colleges. Only select institutions like the public universities in *City 1* and *City 2* are allowed to require additional tests. "The idea was good, but the result has been

sobering," said *Person's name* of the *Organization's name*, adding that as soon as the new national exam was introduced, problems came up. An enormous number of high school graduates crowded into the large universities in the capital, where the infrastructure was not in place to accommodate them." There isn't even enough room in the dorms," *Person's name* said.

Deeper problems

But deeper and more serious problems in the educational system remain. *Person's name* notes that corruption is still prevalent, shifting away from the university admissions process but settling instead in secondary schools.



Administrators measure their success by kids' exam scores

"Students' grades in the official university exam have also become a criterion for the success of local educational bodies," *Person's name* said. That leads to a system in which regional governments as well as school principals and teachers want to beat one another out when it comes to exam scores. Entire curricula are now built around getting good grades on the centralized exam, while actual learning and knowledge fades more and more into the background, in *Person's* estimation. "The educational system is in a critical position," he said. One result: universities have to make up for the gaps in students' secondary education once they get to college. That cuts into the time needed for advanced learning, leading to inadequately trained graduates leaving university. The emerging system is one reason that many young *people from that country* attempt to study abroad.

Courses in ethics, religion

Country's schools also get bad marks when it comes to social concerns - with serious consequences. The country has the highest suicide rate among young people. "The role of the teacher has been completely devalued in the last 20 years, and this development begins to emerge as early as pre-school. Everything is oriented around the computer and not around the teacher," said *Person's name*.



New courses, new exams, but the same problems?

An international study showed that Finland's elementary teachers earn much higher salaries than teachers in grades with older students. The rationale is that elementary school teachers do not primarily convey knowledge, but rather promote the ability to think critically, which demands a high degree of pedagogical skill. However, the opposite holds true in *Country's name*. Elementary teachers earn too little and are not sufficiently trained, *Person's name* says. As is often the case, *Country's* response to the situation is to issue an official decree. In a few schools, a new subject has been introduced: foundations of religious cultures and secular ethics.

Parents can decide what their children should learn: the basics of Islam, Buddhism, Judaism or more general topics like worldwide religious cultures or secular ethics. But a number of experts think little of the new courses. "Research has shown that parents do not approve of the curriculum, and the teachers are not really prepared to give instruction in these areas," said *Person's name* of the *Organization's name*.

Person's name believes that education in questions of faith and ethics should be integrated into other subjects rather than being treated in a

single course, handed down from the government. Schools and parents should also have more room to decide what their children learn, she said.

After all, the *Country's* population is gradually coming to assert more autonomy when it comes to education, although there have not yet been official and pointed protests against the problems in the school system.

Author: *Person's name*

Editor: *Person's name*

2. The teacher asks students to answer the following questions:

a) ***Within the text:***

i) What is the meaning of "centralized university entrance exams" in the text? Why was it introduced in *Country Name* in the 2000s, and not in the United States, for example?

ii) What is the meaning of "...actual learning and knowledge fades more and more into the background..."? The quote is in the **Deeper problems** section. What do you think the meaning of this "actual learning" will be within CLT?

iii) In the section **Courses in ethics, religion**, the author tries to compare education in Finland with *Country Name's* system. What do you think is the difference between "...convey knowledge..." and "...promote the ability to think critically?"

iv) In the section **Courses in ethics, religion**, the author uses the word *autonomy*. What is the contextual meaning of this word? What does *autonomy* mean in the sector of education, and how could this autonomy help secure the quality of education?

b) ***Within the photos:***

i) Why does the first photo (a mother is helping her son do homework) reflect an image in which a teenager is dependent upon his mother's help (the photo catches teenager giving a look)?

ii) What kind of judgment does the second photo (students in a lecture room) present to readers?

3. The teacher listens to everyone's interpretation on the given questions, which are directed at understanding not only form/structure and meanings/ semantics, but these structures and semantics *in use*. As such, structures and semantics are interpreted with the help of pedagogical theories such as the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and Communicative Language

Teaching (CLT), as well as the author herself, who was educated in the West. The same assessment of the education system in *Country Name* might be different, if an author is/was educated in a different country. Thus, the teacher can ask students to find out different authors' assessments regarding the same topic and compare the differences between these texts (as a home assignment).

CONCLUSION

Reading texts is not just interpreting static meanings. Texts also carry within themselves certain (language) ideologies, beliefs, and norms of those who produce such texts. Thus, while reading, students interact not only within the texts themselves, but also with the author, and the author's understanding of the world. Therefore, reading a text implies interpreting authors' discourse, ideologies, and judgments regarding certain concepts.

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CHAPTER FIVE: FROM SYLLABUS DESIGN TO LESSON PLANNING

Svetlana Khan, Klara Nazmutdinova, & David L. Chiesa, Ph.D.

In Chapter 5, we address the classroom lesson plan from a top-down planning approach. First, in Section 5.1, we discuss terms in literature that often get educators confused: curriculum and syllabus. Our lesson plans are situated within a syllabus, which is then a part of a curriculum that is a part of Uzbekistan national standards. Our goal is to provide you with the necessary schemata to understand how each lesson that you do with students is part of a larger picture. Once we understand what kind of syllabus our class entails we then look to Section 5.2 and address the goals and objectives of a lesson. These facets could be the most important concepts for teachers because knowing the goals and objectives of a lesson guide us in our day-to-day teaching and assessment practices. Section 5.3 guides you through lesson phases. No matter what kind or type of lesson plan format you are accustomed to or that your school wants you to compose, we believe firmly in the three-phase development of the lesson plan: into-through-beyond. Finally, section 5.4 provides a general framework to support your colleagues' lesson plan development in a writing workshop. The goal of the lesson is to create an original lesson plan that has clear phases, well-written goals and objectives that connects back to the course syllabus, which connects to the overarching school curriculum that is situated within the national standards.

SECTION 5.1**FROM NATIONAL STANDARDS
TO YOUR CLASSROOM**

“Effective curriculum and syllabus design are based on understanding learner’s needs and purposes for learning and the factors in the context that influence the enactment of the program or course” (Graves, 2014, p. 61).

GOALS

This section focuses on raising teacher’s awareness on how their classes fit into the larger picture (i.e., the educational system). We specifically examine the relationship among the national standards, curriculum, and course syllabi.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) articulate the difference between national standards, curriculum, and syllabus; and,
- B) identify a rationale behind different types of syllabi and relate them to your own institutional syllabus.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Although the majority of teachers do not take part in the creation of their language curriculum and institutional syllabi, we believe all should have a clear vision and/or understanding of how their classes are a part of Uzbekistan’s educational institution. Thus, the goal of this section is to help teachers learn the necessary tools they will need to understand how their class connects to the course syllabus, curriculum content, and national standards.

Think about the following:

- 1) How is a lesson I do with my students connected with the course syllabus, which is connected to the university curriculum, which is connected to Uzbekistan’s national standards for language education?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

Researcher

English language teaching specialists conducted a baseline study to research the teaching of English for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) within higher educational institutions throughout Uzbekistan. One striking finding was the confusion that university language teachers have towards *curriculum* and *syllabus*. For example, most have trouble discussing the differences between these terms, because Uzbekistan language teachers often view each as the same thing. Additionally, a syllabi analysis conducted by English language teaching specialists using content analysis methodology revealed there are many mismatches between the curriculum of the institution and course syllabi. These findings, and the ones listed below, cause great concern.

Findings:

i) Syllabus developers use different terms, such as a *Curriculum*, *Schedule*, and *Calendar Plan* for the same type of document (i.e., a syllabus).

ii) Majority of syllabi were derived from the mandated books (i.e., syllabus developers take the book prescribed by the ministry and copy topics from the book and thus convert the book into syllabus). Therefore, the syllabus reflects the book.

iii) The headings given in syllabi – Grammar Material, Lexical Material – emphasize grammar and vocabulary building, even though many syllabi claim *To develop oral speech*. Thus, major skills such listening, reading, and writing are not mentioned.

iv) The description of grammar and phonetic materials (e.g., *There is/ there are constructions/Imperative mood/sounds [i] [e]... etc.*) illustrate the gap between the aim of *developing communicative competence* and the structural approach to teaching language employed in most institutions.

More than the previous findings, the greatest concern arises when we compare the content of syllabi with the exit exams, which in most cases differ from each other. The exit tests mostly consist of the following: 1) Read and translate the text; and, 2) Make up a story using the words below. These two types of test tasks often do not reflect what is being used during the language course.

REFLECTION/ACTION

Look at a syllabus you or your colleagues used for your students. Can you see similar problems as the English Language Specialists stated above? To what extent are they similar? What changes could you suggest?

KEY CONCEPTS

There are two major key concept areas we would like to address in this section: (1) two views of curriculum (i.e., enactment and implementation); and, (2) syllabus types (i.e., grammatical; notional/functional; task-based; skills-based; lexical; genre; project-based learning; content-based instruction; and negotiated syllabus). We explain them in detail below.

Two views of curriculum. Graves (2014, p. 51) contrasts two views of curriculum: **an enactment view** in which curriculum is viewed as experiences created by learners and teachers in the classroom and **an implementation view** where curriculum is designed by assigned specialists and implemented by the teachers and learners. The implementation view puts curriculum designers at the top and learners and teachers at the end of the chain. According to Graves (2014, p. 51) the chain goes like this:

Policy makers set curriculum policy; a curriculum committee analyses needs, decides on methodology, and produces a curriculum plan; materials writers produce materials according to the plan; teacher trainers train the teachers to use the materials; and the teachers and learners use the materials in the classroom.

If implementation of the curriculum is not successful those who are at the top of the hierarchical chain blame teachers for their incompetence or resistance to new curriculum. Schwarts (2006) notes that implementation view is problematic as "What happens in the learning experience is an outcome of the original, creative, thinking-on-your-feet efforts of the teacher – which often lead the class in directions far, far away from anticipated goals of the curriculum writers" (as cited in Graves, 2014, p. 50).

In contrast, recursive process, consisting of planning, enacting and evaluating, places learning and teaching in the classroom in the center of the dynamic system of enactment. Planning and evaluation are in close relationship, influencing each other. Planning is used as guidance to support enactment and provision of evaluation. Evaluation aiming at evaluation effectiveness learning and teaching affects planning.

Syllabus design: classroom applications. Graves (2014, p. 50) notes that the term syllabus has practical and theoretical meanings. She identifies practical meaning as “an actual plan for a course,” and theoretical as “a specific way to conceptualize what language is and how language is learned so that materials can be selected or prepared for the classroom” (Graves, 2008, p. 161). In contrast to other subjects like history or biology, language is “a tool that humans use to express themselves” (Graves, 2014, p. 50) the complexity of which resulted in emerging various syllabus types.

Table 15. Syllabus Types, based on Graves (2014) pp. 50-51.

Syllabus type	Main features
<i>Grammatical, formal, or structural syllabuses</i>	The grammatical syllabus is organized around the grammatical structures of the language: verb tenses, question formation, types of clauses, and so on. ... The grammatical syllabus has been criticized because learners learn about the language and its system, not to use the language to express themselves, construct knowledge, communicate and so on. (Breen 1875a)
<i>Notional-functional syllabuses</i>	The notional-functional syllabus (Wilkins, 1976) is organized around the communicative purposes, called functions, for which people use language (e.g., to obtain information or apologize) and the notions that are being communicated.
<i>Task-based syllabuses</i>	The task-based syllabus is organized around tasks. By doing tasks together, learners use whatever language they have to negotiate the task, through that negotiation, they acquire the language (Breen, 1987a, 1987b; Nunan, 1989a). Tasks can range from real-world tasks to pedagogical tasks, from open-ended tasks to tasks that have one solution, and from certain language use to those that encourage general language use. (J. R. Willis, 2004)
<i>Skills-based approaches</i>	Skills-based approaches are organized around the four macro skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. A focus on using the skills in context so learners can cope with authentic language is the basis for proficiency-oriented instruction (Omaggio Hadley, 2001)
<i>Lexical syllabus</i>	A lexical syllabus is based on a mini-corpus of common, pragmatically useful language items and language patterns drawn from spoken and written language corpora. The lexical items in the corpus are embedded in authentic language texts, and learners work inductively to understand the patterns of usage.

Syllabus type	Main features
<i>Genre or text-based syllabus</i>	The text-based syllabus is organized around genres. Genres are spoken or written texts, such as recounts, lectures, and critical reviews, structured in particular ways to achieve particular social purposes.
<i>Project based language learning</i>	Project based language learning uses a project or projects as the backbone of the syllabus. Learners engage in individual and cooperative investigative and production-based tasks to complete a project.
<i>Content-based instruction and content and language integrated learning</i>	Content-based instruction (CBI) and content and language integrated learning (CLIL) syllabuses are organized around subject-specific content (e.g., history or science) in addition to or as a means of learning language (Lopriore, 2009; Show & Brinton, 1997; Stoller, 2002b). Approaches vary as to the relative emphasis on content or language.
<i>Negotiated syllabus</i>	The negotiated or process syllabus grew out of the task-based syllabus, in the sense that it is through process of negotiation in interaction with others that one uses and acquires language (Breen, 1987a, 1987b). In contrast with product-based syllabuses, which focus on the knowledge and skills that are the product of learning (Nunan, 1988) and in which decisions about what will be learnt are made prior to meeting the learners. The negotiated syllabus has itself shifted from a thing – a type of syllabus – to an educational process – a negotiation in which teacher and learners share decision making in the classroom.

While designing a syllabus, developers must think of two important things: “a starting point of *what is* and an ending point of *what is desired*” (Graves, 2014, p. 56). The journey from the starting point towards the desired finish demand making decisions on the content and activities. The process is not linear: all sections connect, affect, and complement each other.

Building a bridge between the two points carefully is extremely important because each course has very specific learning context, learners’ needs, goals and objectives. Both curriculum and syllabus design must be based on needs assessment which involves gathering information by different means and sources, including teachers, students, parents, employers and other stakeholders.

ACTION

Look at your syllabus once more. Can you identify which type of syllabus is it? Does it belong to one type of syllabus or is it a combination of various syllabi?

REFLECTION AND ACTION

What view do you think is employed by curriculum developers in Uzbekistan: implementation or enactment? Why do you think so? Which one would you like to see in the Uzbekistan context?

Look at the Uzbekistan National Standards and answer the question: How are the three: the standards, curriculum, and your institutional syllabus, connected?

Uzbekistan National Standards for Higher Education – Non-Linguistic and Specialist (English Majors)

**CONTENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGE
FOR LEVEL B2
Higher Education
Non-Linguistic Undergraduate Programmes**

Competencies		CONTENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING
TOPIC BASED CONTENT		<p>Topics related to the Internet and ICT</p> <p>Sociocultural topics on the specialism (specific comparisons and contrasts between Uzbekistan and target language countries, e.g., UK & USA, France, Germany).</p> <p>Topics of specific/ professional purposes (background specialisation, trends in specialisation)</p> <p>Topics related to social life (social contact with the surrounding world).</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Linguistic competence 	<p>Competence in language skills</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Listening</p>	<p>Learners should be exposed to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lectures, presentations, debates • radio and TV reports, news bulletins, interviews, documentaries, etc. • announcements • recorded native speaker voices (films, documentaries, public speeches, etc.) • social talk between target language speakers <p>Skills to be developed: listening for gist; listening for detailed understanding; listening for specific points or information</p>

		Speaking	<p>Spoken Interaction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • transactions • social talk and informal conversations • formal and informal discussions within and beyond the learner's specialism • chairing or leading a discussion • interviews • negotiations • telephone calls <p>Spoken Production (monologue)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • making reports • developing an argument, e.g., in discussion of a specialist topic • stating and supporting an opinion • making announcements • making a presentation on a specific topic • summarising an article, a discussion, etc.
		Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • correspondence, including emails, notes and messages, as well as letters • authentic texts containing specific material • texts containing specific lexis and terminology, e.g., abstracts, reports, extracts from textbooks • scientific and specialist literature (periodicals, E-literature) <p>Skills to be developed: reading for gist; reading for specific information; reading for detailed understanding; reading for orientation (signs, labels, etc.)</p>
		Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • correspondence (letters, messages, etc.) • specific reports (memos, CVs, etc.) • essays, summaries, abstracts, etc. • research papers (articles, final qualification works, etc.)
		Lexical competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • development of specialist vocabulary and terminology, including common abbreviations • word fields at an intermediate/ upper-intermediate level • ways of word formation (compounds and affixation), international words and cognates/false cognates • antonyms, synonyms and other common lexical relationships
		Grammatical competence	largely accurate application of grammatical material covered at previous levels (verb tenses, modals, comparative degrees of adjectives and adverbs, determiners, prepositions, etc.) in general and academic contexts

Sociolinguistic competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • intercultural awareness raising between Uzbek and other cultures (in both academic and social settings), and the way some of the issues are related to language, e.g., greetings, modes of address in academic and professional settings, basic politeness conventions in lectures, seminars, etc. • further work on non-verbal elements of communication in different cultures: body language, non-verbal signals, etc. • email and messaging conventions in the target language as compared with L1
Pragmatic competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • further development of presentation skills • linking ideas appropriately in spoken and written discourse • awareness of some of the degrees of formality of language needed in different social, academic and professional settings • strategies for interrupting, clarifying, paraphrasing, 'repairing' and compensating etc.

**REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE LEVEL OF GRADUATES IN FL
B2 LEVEL
Higher Education
Non-Linguistic Undergraduate Programmes**

Competencies		Knowing/can do
LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE	COMPETENCE IN LANGUAGE SKILLS	<p data-bbox="450 1011 1012 1039"><i>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>understand and follow an extended talk or complex lines of arguments</i> • <i>can understand the essentials of lectures, talks and reports, detailed instructions and other forms of academic and professional presentations, questions and statements</i> • <i>understand announcements and messages</i> • <i>understand complex authentic speech in familiar and unfamiliar contexts</i> • <i>catch most of a conversation or discussion between target language speakers taking place around them</i> • <i>understand most radio, Internet and TV documentaries, interviews, etc.</i>
	Speaking	<p data-bbox="450 1439 663 1466">Spoken Interaction</p> <p data-bbox="450 1470 1012 1497"><i>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>negotiate with professional partners</i> • <i>make a request on specific area</i> • <i>engage in extended conversation with proficient speakers of English and sustain the interaction, taking the lead if necessary</i>

		<p style="text-align: center;">Speaking</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • take part in unprepared and natural discussions and debates • take part in an interview about their specialisation • express their ideas and opinions clearly within the framework of a formal discussion • clarify, paraphrase and repair their own contributions to discussions • negotiate over a transaction or the resolution of a problem using appropriate levels of politeness and formality • ask and answer questions appropriately in formal settings, e.g., seminars <p>Spoken Production By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • give a well-structured presentation on a specific topic • give clear, detailed descriptions on a range of subjects related to their specialisation • make an oral report on a specific topic • give a clear summary of an article, lecture or discussion • develop and sustain an argument on a familiar topic, supporting it with reasons, examples and evidence
		<p style="text-align: center;">Reading</p> <p>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand the main / specific points in information texts on familiar and unfamiliar topics • understand correspondence related to their interests or specialisation • understand short descriptions of charts, graphs, tables • understand complex messages • understand and follow specific and complex written instructions or directions • locate specific information in longer articles and reports in their specialist field • read abstracts, conference programmes, contents pages, etc., in order to decide whether to read certain sections or chapters for detail <p>Skills to be developed: reading for gist; reading for specific information; reading for detailed understanding; reading for orientation (signs, labels, etc.)</p>
		<p style="text-align: center;">Writing</p> <p>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • write specific messages (business letters, notes, e-mails) • write well-structured professional essays and reports • write coherent scientific and research articles with a reasonable degree of accuracy and in an appropriate style (C1) • write proposals, summaries and abstracts • (if required) write final qualification works in their specialisation (C1)

		Lexical Competence	<p><i>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • use specific <i>lexis</i> and terminology in context • use topic-related vocabulary in communicative settings • recognise and use a wide range of international words
		Grammatical Competence	<p><i>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • use complex grammar and syntactical constructions in communicative settings • use appropriate linking words • analyse a piece of discourse in their own specialisation to understand how it is structured in terms of cohesion and coherence

**CONTENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGE
FOR LEVEL C1
Higher Education
Specialist Language Undergraduate Programmes**

Competencies		CONTENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING
TOPIC BASED CONTENT		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Topics related to everyday life (e.g., diet, bringing up children, etc.) • Topics related to wider society (e.g., ethical issues in medicine, science and technology, social issues, youth crime, community responsibilities, etc.) • Topics of professional interest (e.g., linguistic and sociolinguistic issues, language teaching, language learning, etc.) • Sociocultural topics (acculturation, culture shock and social distance, preserving cultural identity, behaving in intercultural settings, being sensitive about culture while designing materials, etc.)
Linguistic competence	Listening	<p>Learners should be exposed to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • extended speech on abstract and complex topics • a wide range of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms and recorded and broadcast audio (e.g., in a station, sports stadium, etc.) • complex interactions between third parties in group discussion • television programmes and films • samples of authentic spoken language by both native speakers and non-native speakers, in formal, informal and academic settings • lectures, discussions and debates in their specialist field • classroom interaction in the target language

		<p>Speaking</p> <p>Spoken Interaction (dialogue)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • inter-personal dialogues and conversations • public debates and formal discussion • lectures and talks on abstract and complex topics of a specialist nature beyond his/her own field • job interview either as an interviewer or interviewee • language in classroom settings <p>Spoken Production (monologue)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • instructions • presentations • developing and supporting an argument on concrete or abstract topics • expressing an opinion giving reasons • summarising an opinion, a discussion, a professional article, etc.
		<p>Reading</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lengthy, complex texts likely to be encountered in social, professional or academic life • books, fiction and non-fiction, including literary journals • periodicals (magazines, newspapers) • instruction manuals (textbooks, cookbooks, etc.) • advertising material • data including forms, teacher diary, questionnaires • formal letters, emails, etc. • memoranda, reports, critical reviews and papers
		<p>Writing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • report articles • instructions for learning and teaching materials • forms and questionnaires • business and professional letters • essays, reports, reviews • qualification paper • statement of intent • CVs; cover letters
		<p>Lexical competence</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • broad lexical repertoire, idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms • contrasting and comparing specialist terminology (language teaching and applied linguistics) in Uzbek, Russian and the target language
		<p>Grammatical competence</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • complex sentences to convey meaning which is a central aspect of communicative competenc • grammatical semantics including grammatical elements, categories, structures and processes • grammar at discourse level

Sociolinguistic Competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • intercultural awareness raising between Uzbek and other cultures, and the way some of the issues are related to language, e.g., greetings, modes of address, basic politeness conventions, etc. • further work on non-verbal elements of communication in different cultures: body language, non-verbal signals, etc.
Pragmatic Competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • further development of presentation skills • linking ideas appropriately in spoken and written discourse • awareness of some of the degrees of formality of language needed in different social, academic and professional settings • strategies for interrupting, clarifying, paraphrasing, 'repairing' and compensating, etc.

SUMMARY

Although the majority of teachers do not take part in the creation of their language curriculum and institutional syllabi, this section shows teachers that their language classes connects to the course syllabus, curriculum content, and national standards. Thus, we believe the national standards are the guiding framework from which the curriculum is constructed. Then, we show there is a difference between a curriculum and syllabus. The former is a smaller subunit of the latter.

HOMEWORK TASK FIFTEEN

Please explain in one page how the Homework Task One lesson fits into the syllabus of the course, the curriculum, and the national standards.

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SECTION 5.2

Goals and Objectives

"...The work of the educator is to align students' experience with what is to be learnt as a developmental journey ..." (Leung & Scarino, 2016, p. 89).

"...If we use the analogy of a journey, the destination is the goal; the journey is the course [lesson], the objectives are the different points you pass through on the journey to the destination" (Graves, 2000, p. 75).

GOALS

This section addresses the concepts of goals and objectives and how to formulate them.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) differentiate between goals and objectives;
- B) reflect on challenges you face in the development of lesson goals and objectives; and
- C) apply principles of writing goals/objectives to the development of your lesson plan.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

This section illustrates differences between goals and objectives. It starts with a short vignette about challenges Uzbek EFL teachers have had in the formulation of goals/objectives. Then, the key concepts section will explain their operationalizations, in which they are conceptualized from two perspectives: lesson and course. Finally, you will be invited to develop goals and objectives for your own microteaching lesson.

Think about the following:

- 1) What is a goal of a lesson?
- 2) How do you understand objectives of a lesson?
- 3) How many goals and objectives are appropriate for one 80-minute lesson?
- 4) In your opinion, what are the benefits, if any, in developing goals and objectives?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

An EFL university teacher in Tashkent explained that, “As a part of one project I was required to observe lessons of EFL teachers in different universities in Tashkent. After the observations, I asked the same question to each teacher: “What was the goal – or goals – of your lesson?” Teachers respond to the inquiry with a list of activities that they conducted during the lesson.

REFLECTION

What problem is illustrated in the case above?

KEY CONCEPTS

The end goal of language teaching used to be based on a native speaker model (i.e., speaking like a native speaker); however, research in second language acquisition (SLA) studies have shown that this conceptualization is not feasible (or not necessary) for most language learners. Cook (2013) explained that “until the 1990s, it was taken for granted that the purpose of teaching was to get students as near as possible to native speakers since the only valid model of language was the knowledge and behaviour of native speakers” (p. 49). However, with the introduction of the CEFR (as explained in Chapter 1), language teaching professionals have moved away from a focus of supporting students to achieve native-like levels to achieving communicative competence (i.e., being able to communicate). There are two major key concept areas we would like to address in this section: (1) writing goals and objectives; and (2) backwards design. We explain them in detail below.

Writing Goals and Objectives. EFL teachers in Uzbekistan have been taught different ways to write goals and objectives. One way Uzbek language teachers have learned to write is through the Soviet system of education, in which each lesson has four goals: practical, educational, developing, and upbringing. However, we argue for a new way to write goals and objectives based on empirical research from SLA and research on learning: Cognitive (what students will know), performance (what students will do), and affective (how students will feel). The tripartite goals are rooted in learning as a thinking, doing, and feeling activity, because there is an implicit link between cognition and emotion to mediate the interpsychological/ intrapsychological (Johnson & Golombek, 2016), because the choice is not whether to feel or not, since emotions are inevitably present in any teaching

UZBEK VIGNETTE

An EFL university teacher in Tashkent explained that, “As a part of one project I was required to observe lessons of EFL teachers in different universities in Tashkent. After the observations, I asked the same question to each teacher: “What was the goal – or goals – of your lesson?” Teachers respond to the inquiry with a list of activities that they conducted during the lesson.

REFLECTION

What problem is illustrated in the case above?

KEY CONCEPTS

The end goal of language teaching used to be based on a native speaker model (i.e., speaking like a native speaker); however, research in second language acquisition (SLA) studies have shown that this conceptualization is not feasible (or not necessary) for most language learners. Cook (2013) explained that “until the 1990s, it was taken for granted that the purpose of teaching was to get students as near as possible to native speakers since the only valid model of language was the knowledge and behaviour of native speakers” (p. 49). However, with the introduction of the CEFR (as explained in Chapter 1), language teaching professionals have moved away from a focus of supporting students to achieve native-like levels to achieving communicative competence (i.e., being able to communicate). There are two major key concept areas we would like to address in this section: (1) writing goals and objectives; and (2) backwards design. We explain them in detail below.

Writing Goals and Objectives. EFL teachers in Uzbekistan have been taught different ways to write goals and objectives. One way Uzbek language teachers have learned to write is through the Soviet system of education, in which each lesson has four goals: practical, educational, developing, and upbringing. However, we argue for a new way to write goals and objectives based on empirical research from SLA and research on learning: Cognitive (what students will know), performance (what students will do), and affective (how students will feel). The tripartite goals are rooted in learning as a thinking, doing, and feeling activity, because there is an implicit link between cognition and emotion to mediate the interpsychological/intrapsychological (Johnson & Golombek, 2016), because the choice is not whether to feel or not, since emotions are inevitably present in any teaching

and learning event. "It is this affective volitional dimension of thought – especially emotions – that Vygotsky (1986) considered as the last 'why' in the analysis of thinking" (Golombek & Doran, 2014, p. 104).

Here is an example:

By the end of the lesson, students will be able to:

(Cognitive): know 4 vocabulary words: college, university, undergraduate, and graduate

(Performance): write 4 sentences that correctly uses each of these words in context

(Affective): feel confident and motivated to use the four vocabulary words with their peers.

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

The OBJECTIVES of a goal are the steps that a student will need to take to achieve a goal. Objectives are the fine details that you may put into your lesson plan. For instance, let us go back to the cognitive, performance, and affective GOALS above:

By the end of the lesson, students will be able to:

(Cognitive): know 4 vocabulary words: college, university, undergraduate, and graduate

- a) Listen to the teacher explain the denotation and connotation of the four words; and
- b) Explain to a partner the meaning of the words

(Performance): write 4 sentences that *correctly* use each of these words in context

- a) Compose four sentences that use each of the four vocabulary words;
- b) Switch with a partner and the partner checks each sentence;
- c) The original author of the sentences corrects feedback.

(Affective): feel confident and motivated to use the four vocabulary words with their peers.

- a) Student fill out a daily journal about how he/she feels

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

According to Richards (2001), objectives have the following three characteristics: precise, feasible, and descriptive of a learning outcome. Objectives are more specific steps the learners will take to achieve the goal, but they must be realistic and measurable. We have discussed how to develop goals for a lesson and now we will speak about developing goals for a course using backwards design.

Backwards Design. Goals are not the same as standards (as explained in 5.1). Often standards are not appropriate for learners and thus, become unrealistic and unachievable. To solve this problem, we may use another way of setting the goals for our learners – what we want to have at the end of a course. Then, go backwards from that point. This design, or template, is called Backwards Design.

Backwards Design consists of three stages: 1) identifying desired results; 2) determining acceptable evidence; and 3) planning learning experiences and instructions (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Following this procedure, we set achievable goals appropriate for our learners and then plan the lesson (or a course) accordingly, thinking what steps we need to take (objectives) to achieve our goals.

TASK

Imagine you were invited to teach English to twenty teenagers at the Language Center who range from elementary to pre-intermediate level. They need English to apply to international universities. You have six months to prepare them. Write the goals and objectives for this course; or, write the goals and objectives for your class of students that you teach at the university using Backwards Design.

SUMMARY

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

HOMEWORK TASK SIXTEEN

Write clearly (and finalize) the cognitive, performance, and affective goals and the objectives for your lesson for Homework Task One. Make sure each goal is MEASURABLE – you can justify with data that learning has happened.

RESOURCES

1. <https://youtu.be/aOnN1iVGMO4> – SMART goals
2. https://youtu.be/nq0Ou1li_p0 – using Bloom’s Taxonomy to write objectives
3. https://youtu.be/g_Xm5lljYKQ – goals, objectives and learning outcomes for designing a course
4. <https://youtu.be/82Ph6r7Gobk> – writing effective learning outcomes and objectives
5. https://youtu.be/_woMKwBxhwU – creating learning objectives
6. <https://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/understanding-by-design/> – Backwards Design, by Grant Wiggins and Jay McTighe
7. <https://www.edglossary.org/backward-design/> – Backwards Design, Glossary

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SECTION 5.3

Lesson Planning – Into, Through, and Beyond

“A good lesson plan is a living document. It is not set in stone, but rather it is a guide that keeps you – the classroom practitioner – engaged and thinking about what you are teaching” (Kriegel, retrieved from, <https://www.pinterest.com/pin/48202658491339333/> on August 18, 2018).

GOALS

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) discuss your level of comfortability with lesson planning and discern advantages and disadvantages of writing one;
- B) learn about three phases of a successful lesson plan: into, through, and beyond; and,
- C) write a draft lesson plan using your own preferred template, and exemplify and discuss the three phases within it appropriately.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

This section introduces you to the overarching framework of a lesson plan that is beneficial for teaching and learning languages: into, through, and beyond.

Think about the following:

How much autonomy are you comfortable with in terms of lesson planning? Would you prefer a teaching situation in which lesson plans are given to you and you are closely expected to follow them, or would you prefer being handed a textbook and told to write your own daily lesson plans? What are the advantages and disadvantages of each situation?

ACTION

What are the advantages and disadvantages of using a lesson plan that is given to you, and one that you write yourself?

KEY CONCEPTS

There are three key concepts when designing a lesson plan: into, through, and beyond. As there are many lesson plan templates that are

used in Uzbekistan, we argue a successful lesson plan will generally have the following three facets:

Into: The opening or initiatory phase of the lesson. This section usually consists of a warm-up or activation task that is meant to ease students into the lesson so that they are comfortable listening, speaking, reading and/or writing in English. Sometimes, language teachers use icebreakers as the opening or initiatory phase.

Icebreakers are fun activities that lighten up the atmosphere of the classroom and are a great way to build a community of students of all ages. However, we do not recommend just doing them to fill up time. We recommend choosing ice-breakers that can help to (1) establish a place where students can take risks in English; (2) can lead into the topic of the day (see below in II); and/or, (3) can give the teacher insights as an initial needs assessment, into the specific interests of the students, which can help build course content.

Into Example: Spoken English – Debate, Topic: Expressing Opinions: Men vs. Women

INTO ACTIVITY:

This activity gives the students the opportunity to get to know each other better and therefore helps to create a non-threatening environment for speaking and sharing ideas. It also encourages students to think creatively because they must share personal characteristics in an abstract way.

A) The teacher shows the students the example... If I were a _____, I would be (a) _____ because _____.

i) If I were a body of water, I would be an ocean because an ocean can be very calm, deep, and mysterious, but in a moment's notice it can be raging and dangerous.

ii) Students in their respective teams talk about and share what each of them said.

B) The teacher writes in the first subject (food, animal, music, object).

C) The teacher writes in the second subject.

D) *The teacher writes in the third subject (man / woman) – if you are a man you must answer the woman; if you are a woman you must answer the man.*

i) Teacher asks for some responses (2 boys and 2 girls) for the last one and writes the names up on the board.

ii) Positive qualities about each gender are written on the board next to the name.

The icebreaker was adapted from: Klippel, F. (1984).

Through: The middle portion(s) of the lesson. There are three basic precepts to the phase of through. First, move from familiar to new, simple to complex, mechanical to unstructured in order to build schema upon existing knowledge structures. Second, pre-teach necessary metalanguage, lexical items, and forms to reduce anxiety and activate schematic knowledge. Third, explicitly mark transitions between tasks and activities. (Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

Decisions about sequencing of tasks and information: Suggested techniques: a) Present directions carefully and deliberately; b) Model procedures and skills; c) Monitor students' attention and comprehension; d) Provide appropriate feedback; and e) Supply abundant transitional cues.

Role of Pacing: "the extent to which a lesson maintains its momentum and communicates a sense of development" (Richards and Lockhart, 1994). Suggested techniques: a) Efficient delivery of directions; b) Varied tasks and interactive modalities; c) Systematic redundancy (but not excessive repetition); d) Tasks directed toward students' level of proficiency; e) Setting of limits; and f) Ongoing diagnosis of students' cognitive states.

Beyond: The last phase of a lesson plan that considers how the lesson connects in students' minds to the course of study. This section builds coherence among lessons and supports learners to make connections among lessons on their own.

Suggested Techniques: a) Summarize major points emerging from the tasks; b) Explain how the lesson is connected to goals and/or objectives; and c) Explain how the lesson will connect to the next lesson.

ACTION

Take an already existing lesson plan or one you had written for a lesson at your university, and divide up the lesson plan with the three phases of into-through-beyond.

SUMMARY

This section addressed the three sections of the lesson plan: into, through, and beyond. Additionally, we have provided you with suggested techniques to keep in mind as you navigate throughout the lesson.

HOMEWORK TASK SEVENTEEN

Formally write a complete (and revised) lesson plan from Homework Task One [approximately 80 minutes]. Make sure you are able to answer the following questions about it:

Chapter 1: What kind of competence(-ies) are you trying to address in the lesson plan (i.e., linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic, strategic, and/or all the competencies)? The answer to this question will support your lesson plan from a theoretical language perspective.

Chapter 2: Which methodological approach and/or language teaching principles are you trying to achieve? The answer to this question will support your lesson plan from a language teaching methodological perspective.

Chapter 3: How will you assess what you are trying to measure (i.e., Assessment-for-Learning and/or Assessment-of-Learning)? The answer to this question will support the connection you see among teaching-learning-assessing.

Chapter 4: Will you be teaching a competency through speaking, listening, writing, reading (or) all of the above? Will an activity that you had learned from Chapter 4 be included in your lesson plan? This answer can support some techniques you may use in your classroom to support the answers above.

Chapter 5: Please keep in mind how the lesson plan you create will fit into the syllabus of the course and the overarching national standards. More specifically, what are the specific goals (i.e., cognitive, performative, and affective) that you want to achieve; or, are the goals/objectives of your lesson being created from a backwards design perspective?

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SECTION 5.4

Lesson Planning Workshop

"Be meaningful" (Chiesa, personal communication)!

GOALS

By the end of Section 5.4 you will be able to:

- A) discuss your lesson plan with three colleagues: one about the goals/objectives; the second about the content and assessment; the third about grammar/format; and,
- B) change and/or adapt your lesson plan based on the written and oral feedback you have received from your colleagues.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

In Section 5.4, we will guide you through the collaborative learning process on the development of your lesson plan. To effectively take part in this section you should have already written a draft lesson plan for 5.3.

ACTION

There are three different phases of the lesson planning workshop. Each phase will take approximately 15 – 25 minutes.

Workshop Phase 1: Goals/Objectives and Into-through-beyond

With a partner, please exchange lesson plan drafts. You and your partner read each other's lesson plans and then address (1) the goals/objectives and (2) the into-through-beyond sections. Is each section noticeable and can each section be explained/summarized by the reader and not the lesson plan author? Most importantly, is each goal and/or objective addressed in the lesson plan? (In other words, are there clear indications through an activity, task, or directions which address the goals mentioned at the beginning of the plan). After this interaction, each teacher addresses (e.g., fixes) what was discussed if changes have to be made.

SECTION 5.4

Lesson Planning Workshop

"Be meaningful" (Chiesa, personal communication)!

GOALS

By the end of Section 5.4 you will be able to:

- A) discuss your lesson plan with three colleagues: one about the goals/objectives; the second about the content and assessment; the third about grammar/format; and,
- B) change and/or adapt your lesson plan based on the written and oral feedback you have received from your colleagues.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

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ACTION

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Workshop Phase II: Content and Assessment

Exchange lesson plans with a different partner. Does the content of the lesson plan seem appropriate for the student population? Does each phase of the lesson plan blend into each other and is the content at the appropriate age and level of the population? Do you recommend rearranging the order of the activities/tasks or believe new activities should be used? Finally, does the lesson plan have an assessment scheme to make sure that what was being taught is being learned? If not, is there a homework task that should measure what was being learned in the lesson? After all issues are discussed, the teacher will address (e.g., fix) what was discussed with the partner.

Workshop Phase III: Writing and Grammar

This last phase of the workshop is meant to address the written clarity of the lesson plan. Exchange the lesson plan with one other person. This person circles, highlights, and/or marks grammatical infelicities. The editor can also make suggestions on the wording/phrasing of phrases and clauses to be more understandable. After this task the teacher should fix all errors to make his/her writing more clear so that anyone could be able to read the document and understand what the intended meaning is of the lesson plan.

SUMMARY

This section addressed three phases of the lesson plan workshop: (1) Goals/Objectives, Into-Through-Beyond, (2) Content and Assessment, and (3) Writing and Grammar. After you proceed through each phase of the workshop you should have a clearer understanding of where you are in the draft form for the lesson plan.

HOMEWORK TASK EIGHTEEN

There are two parts to Homework Task Eighteen:

First, address the issues in your lesson plan according to the feedback you received from your three colleagues throughout the workshop. Second, choose one section of the lesson plan that you want to use for your microteaching. The one section should be approximately 15-20 minutes long. Explain in one page why you chose this section to use for your microteaching assessment.

CHAPTER SIX: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, FEEDBACK, AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

David L. Chiesa, Ph.D.

In Chapter 6, you will read about familiar topics to all classroom language teachers: classroom observation, feedback, and teaching practice. However, you will read about these topics from a different perspective, which is based on recent literature (and research) in language teaching and teacher education. Section 6.1 addresses the topic of classroom observation. In this section, you will learn how observation is a difficult but very worthwhile task that can support your professional development. We will learn about the differences between observation, inferences, and opinions. Then, we will learn how to write an observation report. Section 6.2 presents the topic of feedback. This topic is about mediational moves a teacher provides to colleagues after a class is observed. The topic of feedback is different than providing feedback to students for language learning. In teacher education, feedback is used to promote intersubjectivity (i.e., shared understanding and mutual engagement). Finally, Sections 6.3 and 6.4 provide you a space to practice your teaching and receive feedback from your colleagues, so you are better prepared to take-part in the final micro-teaching assessment.

SECTION 6.1

Classroom Observation

"There are three principal means of acquiring knowledge... observation of nature, reflection, and experimentation. Observation collects facts; reflection combines them; experimentation verifies the result of that combination" (Diderot, 2018).

GOALS

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) read through an Uzbek language teacher's microteaching lesson plan (for the final exam) and decide what to observe and how to observe the lesson;
- B) explain and identify the differences among observations, inferences, and opinions;
- C) observe an Uzbek language teacher's ten-minute microteaching lesson by taking hand-written notes;
- D) discuss what you observed from the lesson and what you can learn;
- E) identify common problems in conducting a classroom observation of language students; and,
- F) understand how to write-up a classroom observation report.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

This section will introduce you to the basics of classroom observation. Although many teachers feel classroom observation is an easy task, we will show that it is far from it! There are three steps to being a successful observer: first, know what you want to observe before you enter the classroom – observe with a purpose; (2) understand differences between your observations, inferences, and opinions; and (3) reflect on what you learned from the classroom observation.

Think about the following:

- 1) Can classroom observation be a learning tool for teachers? If so, please provide an example?

ACTION

Read through a language teacher's 10-minute microteaching plan from Chapter 5, and decide what to observe and how to observe the lesson. In doing so, please write down three questions you have for the teacher, three aspects you want to observe, and three ways that you plan on observing those aspects.

KEY CONCEPTS

There are three key concepts in classroom observation that many practicing language teachers often get confused with: observation, inferences, and opinions.

- **Observations:** the act or practice of noting and recording facts and events, as for a scientific study; the data so noted and recorded (i.e., the results of the observational act); a comment or remark based on something observed.

For example, you went to a language classroom to observe how a language teacher uses communicative approaches to teach spoken English skills. However, when you observed the class, you noticed the teacher talked most of the time and only a couple of students spoke in English. Your observations notes could look like the following: Within the 45-minute class, the teacher talked for 39 minutes and only 2 students out of 30 spoke in English. Thus, observations are based on facts.

- **Inferences:** decisions or conclusions based on something known; ideas derived by reasoning; decisions arrived at from known facts or evidence; logical conclusions or deductions.

For example, we can infer 'something' from the observation stated above. We can infer that the teacher does not understand the communicative approach to teaching spoken skills. We could also infer the following: because 2 students out of 30 talked in English, many of the students do not know how to speak in English.

- **Opinions:** beliefs not based on absolute certainty or positive knowledge, but on what seems true, valid or probable to one's own mind; evaluations, impressions, or estimates of the value or worth of a person, thing, idea, etc.

For example, we can have opinions based on observations and inferences. My opinion on the above observation and inference is

the following: I believe the quality and quantity of the students' learning how to speak in English was affected negatively. What makes the statement an opinion is the evaluative language of 'I believe' and 'affected negatively.'

The main differences among observations, inferences, and opinions:

- Inferences are based on principles or observations. Opinions include an evaluative attitude, often, and may be made independently of (and sometimes even contrary to!) available data.

ACTION

Decide which item in the examples below illustrates an observation, an inference, or an opinion.

Example 1:

- A. There was a great social climate in this classroom.
- B. The students seemed comfortable raising questions and making comments.
- C. During the first ten minutes of class, each student took at least one self-initiated turn.

Example 2:

- A. The teacher was probably trained in the audio-lingual method.
 - B. The teacher corrected every oral error by immediately modelling the correct form.
- The teacher's treatment of the students' oral errors was very heavy handed.

Example 3:

- A. The man in the black jacket was extremely upset.
- B. The man in the black jacket frowned a lot, never smiled, raised his voice above normal conversational levels several times and at one point burst into tears; I think he was really upset about something.
- C. The man was wearing a black leather jacket, white t-shirt, blue jeans and blue and white Nike sneakers. He leaned over the counter as he talked with the store manager and never smiled. The conversation lasted six minutes and on five occasions he raised his voice above normal conversational levels. At one point, 4 minutes and 30 second into the exchange, he started crying and audibly sobbing.

ACTION

Now, since you can discern the differences among observations, inferences, and opinions, please watch a 10-minute video clip of a microteaching lesson and take appropriate observation field notes. After you have watched the video, please consult one or two teachers with your observation notes.

REFLECTION

What did you learn from observing the 10-minute microteaching lesson? What were some things that you liked; what were some aspects you could improve upon? Please use your observation field notes to make the necessary claims.

TASK

Categories of Problems: How Can You Solve Them?

Directions: The following problems were identified by twenty language teachers who were doing classroom observations for their own professional development. Read the problems and sort them into categories.

1. I was sometimes uncomfortable drawing conclusions about what learning had (or had not) taken place.
2. I wonder how teachers can manage errors in a creative way, as well as turn on students' monitors at an optimal level.
3. Sometimes it's hard to choose a task beforehand. I wanted to look for one particular thing and the lesson turned out to feature some other point entirely.
4. I had problems writing and explaining in detail what was going on in class. How can an observer improve his or her note taking?
5. Letting the data get cold and then trying to recreate them later was a problem.
6. It was difficult to pay attention to so many things going on all at once as well as trying to choose a limited focus.
7. It was difficult trying to capture exact quotes when working off of only written notes.
8. Sometimes as an observer I had trouble making sure that what I thought were inferences were not opinions.
9. I found it difficult to simultaneously write quotes and keep up with the lesson.
10. I need to work on generating good field notes and focusing on specific details of the lesson.

11. Some observations did not come out the way I, as the observer, had planned.
12. It was sometimes difficult to support my inferences with data.
13. I often felt like speaking up when the students made mistakes in class. It seemed like they were worried about the correctness of their answers and I felt like helping them out, but didn't know if I should, as an observer.
14. I sometimes wanted to inject an opinion or provide an explanation during the class for things I was observing.
15. I found taking good notes and avoiding criticizing the teacher to be very challenging.
16. I had difficulty consolidating my ideas in writing.
17. I found it difficult to write up an observation report on a lesson that was rather boring.
18. For me it was hard to observe a class with people I know in it – as both students and teachers.
19. I found it difficult to be a participant observer. It was particularly hard to concentrate on the observation when I, as the observer, knew the target language.

Write up your observations in the following format:

- **Set the scene:** the school or program, name of teacher and class, class size, date, time, main theme or topic
- **Describe the setting:** make a sketch of the classroom and label key details, including the names and seating location of students if possible
- **Describe the events** in the lesson and pay attention to the time when each distinct event begins
- Present your **inferences** about 1 to 3; be sure to support your inferences with details you observed
- **Reflections and applications:** what do you take from this as a language teacher?

Each observation report should be no more than approximately four double-spaced, typed pages in length (a classroom layout plan may be a fifth). The Scene, Setting and Description of the Lesson section (about two pages) provides sufficient chronological detail about the lesson so that readers feel as if they had been present in the classroom. The Observer's Inferences section (about one page in length) provides the observer's supported inferences about the lesson observed. The Reflections and Applications section (also no

more than one page) crosses the bridge between the observed lesson and the observer's (future) life as a language teacher.

Example of an Observation Report:

Classroom Observation

Location of Observation: Monterey Institute of International Studies

Date of Observation: October 11th, XXX **Teacher:** Prof. X

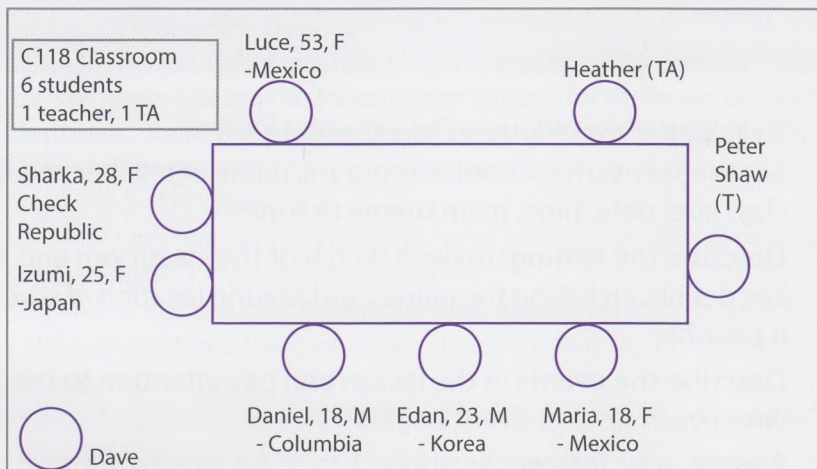
Start Time: 9:00 a.m. **End Time:** 9:57 a.m.

Method of Data Collection: Video

Objective of Lesson:

This one-hour lesson is designed to introduce six ESL students in the Intensive English Program (IEP) to Monterey's history, from the Native Americans to the arrival of the Spanish through different listening, speaking, and drawing activities.

Classroom Setting:



Description of Lesson (Observations):

(0:00) Teacher X walks towards the front of the classroom and initiates the start of class with an announcement, "Bob Cole's baby was born at 2:00 in the morning." Teacher X proceeds to return to each student their picture that they had started drawing from the last class. "Ok, you know what to do." Students reach for the markers, colored pencils, and pens in the center of the table and start drawing pictures of Californian missions.

(4:00) Peter cuts strips of paper for the next activity and works on his own Mission picture. Maria and Edan work together, Daniel and Izumi both draw independently, and Sharka and Luce color their picture.

(20:00) Peter says, "Ok...let's share. I will go first and Heather will go second." Then each student, clockwise from Teacher X shares their picture.

(26:00) Teacher X says, "Ok, get into groups of three, and we'll see how good your memory is." He hands each group a pile of strips of paper with factual information about the history of Monterey. Students organize slips from the earliest to latest date. Teacher X reads out-loud the correct order.

(43:00) Students pair up: Daniel and Luce, Maria and Izumi, Sharka and Edan. Each pair receives from Heather a different fill-in the blank worksheet. Heather reads a three paragraph passage about Native Americans in Monterey and students listen for the blanks and write in their answers.

(50:00) Students move back to their original seats and group together in their historical timeline group. One by one each student, in their respective groups, reads a sentence from their fill-in the blank. Other students listen, comparing and contrasting.

(57:00) Teacher X says, "Ok, stop. Once again we didn't get to show the video. Now, go to classroom CF 434. Ok? We'll see you there."

Inferences

Although the class title is "Oral Communication," the students did not speak until twenty minutes into a fifty-seven minute lesson. From the outset Teacher X did not ask the students questions such as "How are you?" or "What did you do this weekend?" Instead, he reported the birth of Prof. Cole's baby and had them begin their drawings. While drawing pictures, students sat in silence. When Sharka wanted a blue marker she stood up and walked over to Maria, picked it up, and returned back to her seat. However, Daniel did ask Edan to pass him a brown pen. Why would Teacher X not begin an "Oral Communication" class without speaking? What was he trying to achieve? It seems that Teacher X was taking Krashen's silent period into account.

He brought the concept of the silent period, generally perceived on a large scale, to the everyday classroom. The silent period is probably a day by day concept for Teacher X who was looking at the big picture of the students' day. Instead of forcing the students to speak at nine o'clock in the morning, realizing that they will have four more hours of English, he has lowered their affective filters to achieve a relaxed atmosphere through picture drawing. Therefore, after twenty-minutes, students would be able to feel more comfortable to speak English.

Through the use of group work activities: drawing pictures, arranging historical facts in chronological order, and filling in the blanks, it seems that Teacher X is aware of Douglas Brown's (2001) Language Ego principle (p. 61), and he is making every effort to lower inhibitions.

Reflections (Opinions) and Applications

Teacher X's veneration for Stephen Krashen leads me to infer that his teaching principles are a product of Krashen's second language acquisition theory. Whether there is veracity to this statement can only be asked to Teacher X. If he was not following in the footsteps of Krashen, then his content-based lesson under the title "Oral Communication" can be considered a debacle since there were many instances where he could as Kumaravadivelu (2003) describes, maximize learning opportunities (44.) For example, during the initial greeting and drawing sections he could have made small talk with the students. He could have provided them with a large amount of comprehensible input. Also, during the sharing and discussion phase of the pictures, he could have had students ask each other questions about their pictures. Instead he went around to each student and each person said a sentence or two, and then he moved on. Therefore, he missed many opportunities for "oral communication."

What I will use in my language class was the listening activity with fill in the blanks. The activity itself is standard; however, instead of everyone having the same sheet, Teacher X grouped students and sheets according to level. When the students finished listening they went back to their original group and one by one read a sentence. Each student was able to participate, and had to participate, or else all of the fill-ins could not be accomplished. This was a very well-organized and planned activity.

SUMMARY

Section 6.1 presented classroom observation as a learning tool for language teachers. First, we examined what Uzbek language teachers can do before they observe a class – they will need to obtain a lesson plan and figure out what/how to observe. Second, an Uzbek language teacher then takes appropriate classroom observation field notes, which will contain observations, inferences, and opinions. Third, we identified common problems in conducting a classroom observation.

REFERENCES

Brown, D.H. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2nd ed.). New York: Longman.

Kumaravdivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching*. New Haven and London: Yale University Press.

HOMEWORK TASK NINETEEN

With a partner in your in-service teacher education program at the Innovation Centre, please look over each other's lesson plans for the microteaching and discern what you would like to observe and how you think you would observe the lesson. Then, find 5-10 colleagues to participate in the microteaching practice and video record it. Observe each other and take field notes. (Providing feedback will be in the next section below.) Finally, write-up an observation report of your colleague's microteaching class. (See above for more specifics about how to write-up a report.)

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SECTION 6.2

Providing Feedback

"For most every day human purposes, power is exerted through verbal channels: Language is the vehicle for identifying, manipulating, and changing power relations between people" (Corson, 1995, p. 3).

GOALS

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- A) understand the purpose of providing feedback to your colleagues that is both collegiate and pursues professional development;
- B) learn about and identify mediational and reciprocity moves used by English teachers when they provide feedback to colleagues and how colleagues could respond; and,
- C) provide and receive personalized feedback from a colleague on your microteaching class.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Providing feedback in a post-observation conference to colleagues can be a fun, exhilarating, and sometimes scary speech event. Sometimes, the post-observation conference can be seen as a face-threatening speech event, as sometimes we look to teachers who have more experience to provide valid and actionable assistance. In this section, we will address the English language skills you can use while providing feedback to assist in the development of an Uzbek language teachers' professional development. More specifically, this section guides you to provide constructive feedback to your colleague so that he or she can be better prepared for the summative microteaching assessment.

Think about the following:

- 1) How can we use language in our feedback to teachers to promote teacher development?

REFLECTION

Tell us about a time in your life when you were observed by a colleague (not a supervisor). Then, did that colleague provide you feedback? If so, how? Do you feel you learned about your teaching through that process?

KEY CONCEPTS

There are three key concepts in this section: intersubjectivity, mediational moves, and reciprocity. We will go into detail below.

1) Striving for Intersubjectivity – Main goal of feedback

Providing feedback should be a worthwhile (and sometimes fun experience) for both parties – The person who provides feedback and the person who is a receiver of feedback. Walqui and van Lier (2010) explained that the feedback process is about establishing intersubjectivity, which is to “listen attentively to what others have to say...help others...and are comfortable asking for help without feeling embarrassed. They are willing to invest time and energy in understanding each other” (p. 36). This concept of intersubjectivity (shared understanding and mutual engagement) could be identified within peer teacher relationships. On the one hand, an observer should recognize that their teacher-colleagues are people who have a certain degree of autonomy and authority. He or she should listen attentively to his or her questions, comments, and concerns while providing honest, clear, and focused suggestions/advice (based on the mediational moves and reciprocity below), because he/she is inherently interested in helping the teacher and instruction. Providing feedback to colleagues is not meant to be a place where one shows off or tries to devalue someone’s worth. It is about establishing trust and openness so that risks can be identified.

2) Mediational Moves

Mediational moves can range from implicit to explicit (see Figure Eight). These moves are what the observer could provide to the colleague.


<p>Implicit</p>  <p>Explicit</p>	Mediation
	Helping the teacher along (not with supervisory-related issues)
	Request for clarification
	Reminding teacher of specific issues
	Asking the teacher to reflect
	Connect to coursework
	Providing cultural connections
	Telling the teacher there is a problem
	Providing an explanation of the problem
	Providing observation notes – factual data
	Asking the teacher to come up with own solution
	Providing an alternative
	Modelling what to do or say
	Telling the teacher exactly what to do

Figure Eight. Mediation Moves.

3) Reciprocity

Reciprocity is how the teacher responds to the mediational moves above, which can range from low to high.


<p>Low</p>  <p>High</p>	Reciprocity
	Unresponsive
	Repeats mediation
	Back channelling – minimum linguistic response
	Attempts to respond to mediation
	Provides solution (not her own)
	Expresses shock
	Requests additional help
	Offers explanation
	Accepts mediated assistance
	Rejects mediated assistance
	Provides own solution

Figure Nine. Reciprocity Moves.

REFLECTION

Look at the Mediation and Reciprocity Tables above – do you see a relationship between mediational moves and reciprocity? What kind of feedback would you prefer?

TASK

Find a partner in the class who you would like to get to know more. Introduce yourself to each other. After each introduction, please answer the following three questions:

1. Did you find the speaker's self-introduction easy to understand? Explain why or why not.
2. How did the speaker conclude? Was it an appropriate conclusion? Do you have any other suggestions for the speaker?
3. What suggestions for improvement can you give the speaker?

Then, after you have answered the three questions above, please think about how you can offer suggestions and criticisms in an appropriate way that will lead to intersubjectivity. Then please conduct a short feedback session.

SUMMARY

This section addressed how Uzbek language teachers can provide appropriate feedback to colleagues for professional development. Thus, the feedback you will be providing for your colleagues from now on, will better support their teaching practices when they should conduct the microteaching event.

HOMEWORK TASK – NOT REQUIRED, BUT RECOMMENDED

After the classroom observation of your partner in the Homework Task from Section 6.1, please read over your observation notes. Then, decide how you want to have a post-observation conference with this teacher. Conduct a post-observation conference and audio record it with your phone. Write a brief reflection (1 page) about if you feel you 'achieved intersubjectivity' – a balance between mediational moves (by you) and appropriate reciprocity (by the observed teacher).

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1. Corson, D. (1995). Discursive power in educational organizations: An introduction. In David Corson (Ed.), *Discourse and power in educational organizations* (pp. 3-15). Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.
2. Walqui, A., & van Lier, L. (2010). *Scaffolding the academic success of adolescent English language learners: A pedagogy of promise*. San Francisco, CA: WestEd.

SECTIONS 6.3 AND 6.4

Practice Teaching, I and II: Instructor Feedback

"Teaching is the greatest act of optimism"
(Wilcox, C.).

GOALS

By the end of Sections 6.3 and 6.4 you will be able to:

- A) reflect on what your expectations are of the microteaching process;
- B) teach one section (in front of a live class) of your lesson plan you will do for the microteaching assessment;
- C) receive feedback from peers in the written form; and,
- D) reflect on the feedback received and discern how you will move forward.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

This section will better prepare you to take part in the microteaching assessment.

REFLECTION

What are your expectations for the microteaching assessment?

ACTION

Each teacher will present a 10-minute microteaching to his/her class. For the observer/person to provide feedback (Smith, Meyers, & Burkhalter, 2007):

- I. Comments on Language Skills:
 - a) Pronunciation
 - b) Grammar
 - c) Fluency
 - d) Comprehensibility

- II. Comments on Teaching Skills
 - a) Organization of Presentation
 - b) Clarity of Presentation
 - c) Relevance of Content
 - d) Use Blackboard/Whiteboard and/or Visuals
 - e) Manner of Speaking
 - f) Nonverbal Communication
 - g) Audience Awareness
 - h) Interaction
 - i) Teacher Presence
 - j) Aural comprehension
 - k) Method of Handling Questions
 - l) Clarity of Response to Questions

- III. Overall Impression (Both 'Good' and 'Needs Work')

REFLECTION

After you have received feedback from your peers, write a one-page response on what you will do differently for the microteaching assessment.

SUMMARY

This section allowed each teacher to teach one section of their lesson plan and receive immediate feedback.

HOMEWORK TASK TWENTY

Write a one-page reflection about the class you taught. What were some positives and negatives of your experience, and, how will you continue to move forward in your career to pursue professional development?

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1. Smith, J. A., Meyers, C. M., Burkhalter, A. J. (2007). *Communicate: Strategies for international teaching assistants*. Long Grove, IL: Waveland, Press, Inc.
2. Wilcox, C. (2018). Quotes. Retrieved from, <https://www.pinterest.com/pin/129408189270311857/> on August 21, 2018.

FOR NOTES

FOR NOTES



1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. This is particularly crucial for businesses that operate in highly regulated industries, where even a small error can have significant consequences. The text emphasizes the need for a robust system of internal controls to ensure the integrity of the financial data.

2. The second part of the document focuses on the role of technology in modern accounting. It highlights how cloud-based solutions and automation have transformed the way accountants work, allowing for real-time data access and more efficient processes. The author notes that while technology offers many benefits, it also requires a strong emphasis on cybersecurity and data protection.

3. The final part of the document discusses the future of accounting. It predicts that as artificial intelligence and machine learning continue to advance, accountants will need to focus more on strategic advisory roles and less on routine data entry tasks. The text concludes by encouraging professionals to stay current in their skills and embrace the changes ahead.



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