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XORIJIY TIL NAZARIYASI KAFEDRASI

ALLAYAROVA Z.B., RUZMANOV D.U

XORIJIY TILLARNI O‘QITISH METODIKASI

QO‘LLANMA

**O‘quv qo‘llanma 611800 – Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili) ta’lim yo‘nalishi
3-bosqich talabalariga “Xorijiy tillarni o‘qitish metodikasi” fanidan zaruriy
bilimlarni egallashda yaqindan yordam beradi**

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Mas’ul muharrir:

N.A.Sadullayeva – filologiya fanlari doktori (DSc), dotsent (O‘zMU)

Taqrizchilar:

A.A. Muhammadiyev - filologiya fanlari nomzodi, dotsent (ShahDPI)

Z.R. Yaxshiyeva - filologiya fanlari bo‘yicha falsafa doktori (PhD)
dotsent (TATU Qarshi filiali)

Annotatsiya

Mazkur qo‘llanma xorijiy tillarni o‘qitish metodikasi fanining nazariy va amaliy jihatlarini yoritishga mo‘ljallangan. Qo‘llanma xorijiy tillarni o‘qitishda samarali usullarni qo‘llash, talabalarining til ko‘nikmalarini rivojlantirish va dars jarayonini samarali tashkil etish masalalarini o‘z ichiga oladi. Ushbu manba pedagoglar va tadqiqotchilar uchun muhim metodik qo‘llanma sifatida xizmat qiladi. Qo‘llanma xorijiy til o‘qituvchilarining zamonaviy talablarga mos dars o‘tish ko‘nikmalarini shakllantirishga yordam beradi

Аннотация

Настоящее пособие посвящено теоретическим и практическим аспектам методики преподавания иностранных языков. Пособие охватывает вопросы применения эффективных методов обучения иностранным языкам, развития языковых навыков учащихся и организации учебного процесса. Этот источник служит важным методическим руководством для преподавателей и исследователей. Пособие помогает преподавателям иностранных языков развивать навыки проведения уроков в соответствии с современными требованиями.

Annotation

This manual is dedicated to the theoretical and practical aspects of foreign language teaching methodology. It covers issues related to the application of effective methods for teaching foreign languages, the development of students' language skills, and the organization of the teaching process. This resource serves as an important methodological guide for teachers and researchers. The manual helps foreign language instructors develop teaching skills that meet modern educational standards.

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KIRISH

Bugungi globallashuv va axborot texnologiyalari davrida xorijiy tillarni o'rganish zaruriyati tobora ortib bormoqda. Xalqaro aloqalar, fan va texnologiya rivoji, madaniyatlararo muloqot hamda iqtisodiy hamkorlik kabi sohalarda xorijiy tillarni bilish muvaffaqiyatga erishishning muhim omillaridan biriga aylangan. Ayniqsa, ta'lim jarayonida xorijiy tillarni o'qitish metodikasi o'zining dolzarbligi va samaradorligi bilan ajralib turadi.

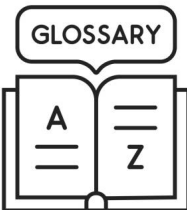
Ushbu qo'llanma xorijiy tillarni o'rgatishning nazariy va amaliy masalalariga bag'ishlanib, nafaqat talabalar, shuningdek, pedagogik faoliyat bilan shug'ullanadigan o'qituvchilar va tadqiqotchilar uchun ham muhim manba sifatida xizmat qiladi. Qo'llanmaning maqsadi xorijiy tillarni o'qitish jarayonida samarali metodikalarni tadbiq etish, ta'lim jarayonini sifatli tashkil qilish hamda talabalarning lingvistik ko'nikmalarini rivojlantirishdir.

Har bir mavzuning kirish qismida xorijiy tillarni o'rgatishning tarixi va metodik yo'nalishlari, zamonaviy o'qitish texnologiyalari, interaktiv usullar va ta'lim jarayonidagi yangiliklar haqida qisqacha ma'lumot beriladi. Shuningdek, mavzuni mustahkamlovchi mashqlar va testlar qo'llanmaning mazmunini yanada boyitishga xizmat qiladi.

THEME №1. INTRODUCTION TO METHODOLOGY. TYPE OF THE METHODS IN TEACHING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

1-mavzu: Metodikaga kirish. Chet tilini o'qitish modullarining Turlari

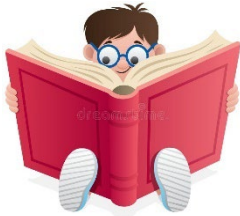
Ushbu mashg'ulot davomida ta'lim sistemasi, ta'lim metodi, ta'lim prinsipi, chet til o'qitishning tarjima metodi, to'g'ri metod, ongli-qiyosiy metod, an'anaviy metod, intensiv metod, audiovizual metod ta'lim vositasi, metodik usul kabi tushunchalar batafsil yoritiladi.

	Ta'lim sistemasi – Education system:	Refers to the structured framework of institutions, policies, and curricula that define the process of formal education in a given country or region.
	Ta'lim metodi – Teaching method:	A strategy or approach used by educators to deliver content and facilitate learning. Various teaching methods cater to different learning styles and educational goals.
	Ta'lim prinsipi – Principle of education:	The fundamental beliefs or guidelines that form the foundation of teaching and learning processes. Examples include student-centered learning, active participation, and continuous assessment.
	Chet til o'qitishning tarjima metodi – Translation method of foreign language teaching	A traditional method where students learn a foreign language by translating texts from their native language to the target language and vice versa. Emphasizes reading and writing skills over speaking and listening

To'g'ri metod – Direct method:	Focuses on immersion in the target language with minimal use of the native language. Grammar is taught inductively, and vocabulary is learned through real-life contexts. The aim is to develop spontaneous communication.
Ongli-qiyosiy metod – Conscious-comparative method:	Learners consciously compare grammatical structures, vocabulary, and linguistic patterns between their native language and the target language to understand the differences and similarities.
An'anaviy metod – Traditional method:	Refers to conventional teaching practices, often characterized by teacher-centered instruction, memorization, repetition, and passive learning on the part of students.
Intensiv metod – Intensive method:	A method involving a concentrated period of study where learners are exposed to the language in an immersive and accelerated environment, aimed at rapid language acquisition.
Audiovizual metod – Audiovisual method:	Uses multimedia resources like videos, audio recordings, and visual aids to support language learning. It emphasizes listening and watching to facilitate understanding and communication.
Ta'lim vositasi – Teaching aid:	Tools or resources used by educators to enhance the teaching process, such as textbooks, digital tools, flashcards, or interactive applications.

Metodik usul Methodological technique:	– Specific, practical strategies or activities within a teaching method designed to achieve learning objectives, such as role-playing, group discussions, or problem-solving tasks.
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Lecture



In its most common use, *methodology* refers to the study of research methods. However, the term can also denote the methods themselves or the philosophical discussion of underlying assumptions. A ****method**** is a structured process designed to achieve a specific goal, such as gaining knowledge or verifying claims. This typically involves various steps, such as selecting a sample, gathering data, and interpreting that data. The study of methods involves providing a detailed description and analysis of these procedures. It also includes an evaluative aspect, comparing different methods to assess their advantages, disadvantages, and suitability for particular research objectives. These evaluations are influenced by philosophical assumptions in the background.

Methodologies in research are generally divided into **quantitative** and **qualitative** approaches. **Quantitative research**, which is primarily utilized in the natural sciences, relies on exact numerical measurements aimed at uncovering universal principles that can forecast future occurrences. The main approach in natural sciences is the **scientific method**, which encompasses steps such as observation, hypothesis formulation, experimental testing of the hypothesis, comparison of results with expectations, and publication of the outcomes.

In contrast, **qualitative research** is more prevalent in the social sciences, where there is less focus on precise numerical data. This type of research aims to achieve a deeper understanding of the meanings associated with the phenomena being studied, rather than establishing universal or predictive laws.

Common methodologies in the social sciences include **surveys**, **interviews**, **focus groups**, and the **nominal group technique**. These methods vary in aspects such as sample size, the nature of questions posed, and the overall context in which they are conducted.

In recent years, many social scientists have adopted ****mixed-methods research****, which integrates both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

A key debate in methodology revolves around whether the ****quantitative approach**** is superior, particularly regarding its suitability for studying social phenomena. Some theorists reject the study of methodology altogether, arguing that methods should be applied rather than studied, or that it stifles the freedom and creativity of researchers. In response, methodologists argue that good methodology leads to more reliable theories and improves research efficiency. The choice of method is important, as the same data can yield different conclusions depending on the approach used. Interest in methodology has grown in the 20th century, partly due to the rise of interdisciplinary research and the challenges of fostering effective collaboration.

The term "methodology" carries several meanings. Most commonly, it can refer to a method, the study of methods, or philosophical discussions surrounding the assumptions behind these processes. Some researchers differentiate between ****methods**** and ****methodologies****, suggesting that methods refer specifically to ways of collecting data, while methodologies are broader research strategies that guide how a project is conducted. In this context, methodologies also involve theoretical perspectives regarding the intended outcomes of the research.

The term **"methodology"** is sometimes used interchangeably with **"method."** A **method** refers to a systematic and organized approach to achieving a particular objective. It involves a structured procedure for addressing theoretical or practical issues, in contrast to more informal or unstructured problem-solving strategies. For example, **descriptive statistics** serves as a method for data analysis, **radiocarbon dating** is used to ascertain the age of organic materials, **sautéing** is a culinary technique,

and **project-based learning** is an educational approach. Additionally, the term "**technique**" is frequently employed as a synonym for method in both academic and everyday discussions.

Methods typically follow a defined sequence of steps and decisions that can be repeated in similar situations, with the goal of achieving a promised result. In research, methods are systems of rules and procedures designed to uncover regularities in nature, society, or thought. In this sense, *methodology* refers to the processes used to generate new knowledge or verify existing knowledge claims. This involves issues related to both *data collection* (e.g., sampling, surveys, interviews, observation) and *data analysis* (e.g., statistical techniques or other interpretation methods to draw meaningful conclusions from the data).

Many theorists emphasize the difference between the terms "method" and "methodology." In this regard, methodology can be defined as the study or description of methods, as well as the analysis of the principles, rules, and assumptions that underlie the methods of a discipline. This involves scrutinizing the assumptions and practices associated with various methods, offering comprehensive descriptions of research designs, and testing hypotheses. Methodology also incorporates an evaluative aspect, comparing data collection techniques, measurement strategies, and data analysis methods to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses for different research objectives and contexts. Thus, **methodology** provides the knowledge, skills, and practical guidance essential for conducting scientific research effectively, acting as a framework for the numerous decisions researchers face throughout the research process.

Additionally, **methodology** can be seen as the intermediary between specific methods and the broader, more abstract themes explored within the **philosophy of science**. In this sense, methodology comes into play after the research question is formulated, guiding researchers in selecting appropriate methods. For example, it helps determine why one sampling technique may be better suited for a given situation or which data analysis method will yield the best results.

Methodology accomplishes this by explaining, evaluating, and justifying the use of particular methods. Since there are various methods, there are also multiple methodologies, each offering different perspectives on how methods should be evaluated and explained, leading to varied suggestions on which method to use in a specific case.

Some theorists advocate for a broader understanding of methodology, one that goes beyond simply describing, comparing, and evaluating methods. This wider perspective includes general philosophical issues as well. One reason for this approach is that decisions about which method to use often rely on underlying assumptions, such as the nature and purpose of research. These assumptions can significantly influence method selection and implementation.

Aleksandr Georgievich Spirkin characterizes methodology as a system of principles and general approaches that organize and structure both theoretical and practical activities, alongside the theory that supports this system. Helen Kara defines methodology as a contextual framework for research that offers a coherent and logical scheme grounded in beliefs, values, and perspectives that inform researchers' decisions. Similarly, Ginny E. Garcia and Dudley L. Poston perceive methodology as either a complex set of rules and principles that govern research or as the analysis of those rules and procedures. As a collection of principles, methodology outlines the subject of analysis, the conceptual tools employed, and the scope of the analysis. Research projects typically adhere to a structured procedure known as the research process, with the research question directing the type of information that needs to be gathered. In this broader sense, methodology overlaps with *philosophy* by making these assumptions explicit and providing arguments for or against them. According to C.S. Herrman, a good methodology helps clarify the structure of the data and enables researchers to view phenomena in a new way, similar to the function of a paradigm. Aleksandr Spirkin also supports this view, emphasizing that every methodology includes a worldview that shapes how research is conducted.

In **quantitative research**, philosophical debates frequently center on the validity of either the **inductive** or **hypothetico-deductive** interpretation of the scientific method. In contrast, **qualitative research** is grounded in foundational assumptions that are associated with philosophical frameworks such as hermeneutics, pragmatism, Marxism, critical theory, and postmodernism. According to **Thomas Kuhn**, a significant concern in these debates is the **incommensurability** of different paradigms, which suggests that there is no universal standard to assess conflicting theoretical and methodological assumptions. This critique challenges some fundamental beliefs of the **quantitative approach**, particularly the notion that scientific progress occurs through a continuous accumulation of data.

Discussions surrounding abstract theoretical issues in the philosophy of science are sometimes integrated into methodology. These discussions may explore questions such as how scientific research differs from fictional writing or whether research is aimed at studying **objective facts** or at constructing the phenomena it seeks to examine. In this context, some methodologists contend that the objective of science extends beyond merely representing a pre-existing reality; it also encompasses the goal of effecting **social change**, particularly in support of marginalized or oppressed groups within society.

Viknesh Andiappan and Yoke Kin Wan distinguish the term "methodology" from related concepts such as "approach," "method," "procedure," and "technique" in the context of process systems engineering. They assert that "approach" is the broadest term, defined as "a way or direction used to address a problem based on a set of assumptions." For example, hierarchical approaches concentrate on one task at a time in a structured manner, whereas concurrent approaches tackle multiple tasks simultaneously.

Methodologies are somewhat more specific; they encompass the general strategies required to implement an approach and act as guidelines for decision-making.

The term "framework" is often used interchangeably with methodology. A **method** represents an even more specific means of applying the approach in practice. Methodologies guide researchers in selecting which method to use. A method can be seen as a series of **techniques**, which are observable and measurable steps that yield immediate results.

Many methodologists approach their work from a normative perspective, expressing clear opinions on the strengths and weaknesses of various methods. In this sense, methodology encompasses not only what researchers currently do but also what they should do and how to conduct effective research.

Learning foreign languages has gained significant importance in our increasingly globalized world. As the demand for international communication rises, many individuals are motivated to learn new languages to enhance their communication skills in various contexts. Consequently, there are multiple approaches and methods for teaching foreign languages, each offering unique features and benefits. This article provides a brief overview of four of these methods, along with the authors' insights to help readers grasp the implications of these approaches in language education.

The Grammar and Translation method is one of the oldest approaches to teaching foreign languages, having been widely used in Europe during the 19th century. Its primary aim is to teach written language, focusing on grammar and vocabulary. This methodology involves several steps, including analyzing texts in a foreign language, translating them into the students' native language, and ultimately producing texts in the foreign language. The first step involves presenting grammar rules in a logical sequence, starting with the simplest concepts and gradually moving to more complex ones. These rules are then applied through exercises in text translation and analysis, allowing students to practice and internalize the knowledge. The next step entails translating authentic texts from the foreign language into the students' native language.

This translation process not only enhances students' ability to understand and interpret texts but also aids in vocabulary acquisition.

Finally, students are encouraged to create texts in the foreign language, which helps enhance their oral and written communication skills while also contributing to their fluency. The Grammar and Translation method has faced criticism from some experts who argue that it places too much emphasis on grammar and translation at the expense of developing communicative skills like fluency and listening, especially when compared to other methods. However, it's worth noting that the method's analytical and structured approach can provide a strong foundation for advancing more complex communicative skills. Additionally, this methodology is still employed in certain schools and universities worldwide. Despite the critiques, some scholars defend the method; for instance, Eliot (1909) regarded the Grammar and Translation method as the most effective approach to foreign language instruction.

Krashen (1989) criticized the Grammar-Translation method, arguing that it fails to foster effective communicative skills. He emphasized that language is best acquired naturally through exposure to real-life communicative situations, and that focusing on grammar and translation can result in mechanical, ineffective learning. In contrast, Henderson (2016) suggested that the Grammar-Translation method can be valuable when used alongside more communicative approaches, particularly for students with a basic grasp of the language. According to him, this method helps reinforce existing knowledge. Overall, opinions on the method vary. While some believe it effectively develops grammar and translation skills, others claim it hinders the growth of communicative abilities. Many agree, however, that it works well as a supplementary tool in language learning.

The direct method is one of the oldest approaches to teaching foreign languages and focuses on developing oral communication by using the target language as the medium of instruction from the outset. It aims to replicate the natural process of first language acquisition, where understanding and speaking precede reading and writing.

The primary goal is for students to communicate in real-life situations using the foreign language, which is seen as key to building their communicative skills. This method emphasizes presenting the language in meaningful, practical contexts through familiar tasks and scenarios. The teacher primarily uses the target language, minimizing the use of the students' native language. This allows learners to absorb grammar and vocabulary naturally and functionally. The direct method also highlights the importance of accurate pronunciation and intonation for effective communication. A major advantage of this approach is that it offers students an immersive and authentic language experience, which can boost their motivation and engagement. It is particularly well-suited for teaching widely spoken languages like English, French, and Spanish.

The audiolingual method was a dominant approach to foreign language teaching in the 1950s and 1960s, focusing on repetition, memorization, and intensive practice. It aimed to develop communicative skills through oral and listening exercises. This method emerged in response to the need for intensive language training in the United States during World War II, particularly for military, diplomatic, and commercial purposes. Drawing from behaviorist linguistics, it was based on the idea that language learning is a habit formed through practice and repetition. The audiolingual method placed a strong emphasis on imitation, repetition, and extensive oral and auditory practice of the target language.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions!

1. What are the key characteristics of the Grammar-Translation Method in teaching a foreign language?
2. How does the Direct Method approach teaching speaking and listening skills?
3. Explain the role of drills and repetition in the Audiolingual Method.

4. What is Total Physical Response (TPR), and how does it support language learning?
5. In the Silent Way, what is the role of the teacher during the lesson?
6. What is the main focus of the Lexical Approach in language teaching?
7. How does Suggestopedia create a positive learning environment for students?
8. What are the main goals of the Natural Approach in language acquisition?
9. Explain how grammar is taught inductively in the Direct Method.
10. How does Content-Based Instruction (CBI) integrate language learning with other subjects?
11. What is the role of comprehensible input in the Natural Approach?
12. Describe the behaviorist principles behind the Audiolingual Method and how they shape language learning.
13. How does the Communicative Approach balance fluency and accuracy in language learning?

Activities



1. Method Comparison Chart

Objective: Students compare and contrast different teaching methods.

Activity: Provide students with a chart that lists various language teaching methods (e.g., Grammar-Translation, Communicative Language Teaching, Audiolingual Method). Have them fill in key aspects such as the role of the teacher, role of the student, focus (grammar, vocabulary, communication), and typical activities. After completing the chart, students discuss which method they believe is most effective and why.

2. Role-Playing Teaching Methods

Objective: Practice applying different teaching methods.

Activity: Assign each student or group a specific language teaching method (e.g., Direct Method, Total Physical Response). Have them prepare a mini-lesson using their assigned method and present it to the class. The class can analyze and provide feedback on how well the method was applied.

3. Task-Based Language Teaching Simulation

Objective: Understand and apply task-based learning principles.

Activity: Design a task-based lesson for students. Give them a real-world task (e.g., planning a trip to a foreign country, solving a problem at a work meeting) and have them use the target language to complete the task. Afterward, discuss how the task facilitated language learning.

4. Lesson Plan Creation

Objective: Develop lesson planning skills using different methods.

Activity: Assign students to create a detailed lesson plan using a specific teaching method (e.g., Audiolingual, Communicative, Silent Way). Afterward, students present their lesson plan, explaining the teaching steps and techniques they will use.

5. Debate: Most Effective Teaching Method

Objective: Develop critical thinking and communication skills.

Activity: Organize a debate where students argue for or against specific teaching methods (e.g., "Is the Communicative Approach more effective than the Grammar-Translation Method?"). Students must present arguments and evidence from their own experiences and methodology theory.

Exercise 1: Advanced Vocabulary in Context

Task: Choose the correct word from the options provided to fill in the blanks.

The professor's arguments were so _____ that even the skeptics were persuaded.

- a) vacuous
- b) cogent
- c) nebulous

The author's use of _____ imagery evokes a sense of nostalgia throughout the novel.

- a) pedantic
- b) visceral
- c) mundane

The scientist presented his findings in a _____ manner, leaving no room for doubt.

- a) convoluted
- b) unequivocal
- c) ambiguous

Exercise 2: Analytical Writing

Task: Write a 300-word essay analyzing the themes of identity and belonging in a work of literature or film you have studied. Be sure to provide specific examples to support your analysis.

Exercise 3: Error Correction

Task: Identify and correct the errors in the following passage.

"The data was analyzed thoroughly, and it indicate that there are significant correlations between the variables. This suggests that further investigation is warranted to determine the causal relationship".

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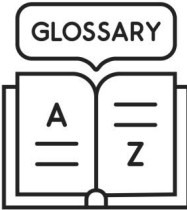
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THEME №2. LINGUA-CULTURAL TEACHING AND LEARNING

2-mavzu: Lingua-madaniy ta'lim va ta'lim

Ushbu mashg'ulot davomida tilning paremiologik fondi, tilning frazeologik fondi, etalonlar, ramzlar, tilning metaforalari va obrazlari, tillarning stilistik qatlamlari, nutqiy muomila, nutq etiketi, ligvomadaniy paradigma, lingvokulterema, konsept, madaniy konsept, madaniy sema kabi tushunchalar batafsil yoritiladi.

	Tilning paremiologik fondi – Paremiological fund of a language:	Refers to the collection of proverbs, sayings, and maxims that are part of a language's cultural heritage and represent common wisdom or traditional values.
	Tilning frazeologik fondi – Phraseological fund of a language:	Consists of idiomatic expressions and fixed phrases in a language, which convey meanings that are often not deducible from the individual words.

Etalonlar – Standards:	Linguistic models or reference points that are regarded as the correct or typical forms of language usage. They represent the accepted norms in speech or writing.
Stereotiplar – Stereotypes:	Preconceived and oversimplified ideas or categories associated with certain groups, behaviors, or concepts, often embedded in language through repeated use.
Ramzlar – Symbols:	Words or expressions that represent ideas or concepts beyond their literal meaning. They often convey deeper cultural, societal, or religious significance.
Tilning metaforalari va obrazlari – Metaphors and images of a language:	Figurative expressions used to describe one thing in terms of another, relying on imagery and associations that evoke mental pictures or emotions.
Tillarning stilistik qatlami – Stylistic layers of languages:	The various registers or styles of a language, including formal, informal, colloquial, and literary levels, used in different contexts depending on the speaker's intent and audience.
Nutqiy muomala – Speech interaction:	The process of verbal communication between individuals, including the rules and patterns that govern effective dialogue, conversation, and discourse.
Nutq etiketi – Speech etiquette:	The set of norms and polite expressions that regulate social

	interactions, ensuring respectful and appropriate communication in different cultural contexts.
Lingvomadaniy paradigma – Linguocultural paradigm:	A framework that combines linguistic and cultural studies to explore how language reflects and shapes cultural norms, values, and identities.
Lingvokulturema – Linguocultureme:	A language unit (word, phrase, or expression) that encapsulates both linguistic and cultural meanings, embodying the intersection of language and cultural concepts.
Konsept – Concept:	A mental construct or idea that is fundamental to understanding cultural, social, or linguistic phenomena. It represents the core meaning behind words or expressions.
Madaniy konsept – Cultural concept:	A specific type of concept tied to cultural experiences and worldviews. These concepts reflect the beliefs, values, and traditions of a culture as expressed through language.
Madaniy sema – Cultural seme:	The smallest semantic unit that carries cultural meaning. It is part of a word or phrase that conveys cultural connotations beyond the basic linguistic meaning.

Lecture



The connection between language and culture has been a longstanding area of interest for second language (L2) teachers and educators. The question of whether the culture of the target language should be integrated into L2 instruction has sparked ongoing debate throughout the history of language teaching.

Over time, opinions have shifted, with educators both supporting and opposing the integration of culture in language teaching. For example, early 20th-century researchers examined the significance of incorporating cultural elements into L2 curricula (Sysoyev & Donelson, 2002). However, with the advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the late 1970s, the focus shifted towards practical communication skills, often at the expense of cultural considerations which emphasized a broader approach beyond language structure, the role of culture was often overlooked (Pulverness, 2003).

Educators are increasingly recognizing that language and culture are deeply intertwined (Pulverness, 2003), with many emphasizing that language instruction is incomplete without the study of culture. For L2 learners, understanding the people and the cultural context behind the target language is crucial for meaningful communication. Today, L2 curricula and textbooks often integrate the culture of the target language as a key component (Sysoyev & Donelson, 2002). McDevitt (2004) also argues that studying an L2 is, in essence, an exploration of another culture, as human nature is inseparable from cultural context.

The conditional phrasing of the previous statement might be considered unnecessary. The interconnection between language and culture, particularly their mutual influence, has been a well-established concept for some time, largely due to the works of renowned philosophers such as Wittgenstein (1980; 1999), Saussure (1966), Foucault (1994), Dilthey (1989), Von Humboldt (1876), Adorno (1993), Davidson (1999), Quine (1980), and Chomsky (1968).

These are the key figures often referenced in discussions on the relationship between language and culture. However, the most notable linguists in this area are Sapir (1962) and Whorf (1956), whose names are closely associated with the theory of "Linguistic Relativity" (Richards et al., 1992). Their theory suggests two main ideas: (a) our perception of the world is shaped by the categories and distinctions present in our native language, and (b) these linguistic features may differ from one language to another due to cultural variations.

It wasn't until the 1980s that the need to explicitly teach culture in language classes was recognized, with this focus peaking in the 1990s, largely thanks to the work of scholars like Byram and Kramsch. For example, in the context of English Language Teaching (ELT), Pulverness (2003) points out that, due to the growing prominence of English as an international language, cultural content began to be integrated into language teaching programs, not just as background information but as a crucial component. By the mid-1980s, the advantages of teaching culture in L2 classrooms were widely acknowledged, and culture became a common part of language instruction.

However, challenges remained regarding what cultural elements should be taught and how they could be most effectively integrated into the language learning process, a topic that gained increasing attention in the 1990s (Kitao, 2000)

When examining the connection between culture and language, several noteworthy observations emerge. Kitao (2000), citing various authors, outlines several benefits of incorporating culture into language instruction, which include the following:.

Studying culture provides students with a meaningful purpose to learn the target language, making language learning more relevant (Stainer, 1971). From the learner's perspective, one significant challenge in language education is recognizing native speakers of the target language as real individuals. While grammar books offer supposedly authentic examples from real life, learners may view these examples as fictional

without the necessary cultural context. Learning about the cultural aspects of a language helps learners connect the abstract sounds and structures of the language to real people and places (Chastain, 1971).

Cultural classes play a significant role in fostering motivation, as learners often enjoy engaging in culturally based activities like singing, dancing, role-playing, and researching countries and their people. Studying culture not only increases learners' curiosity about the target countries but also boosts their motivation. For instance, when professors introduced the cultures of the languages they were teaching, student interest in those classes significantly increased, and culturally focused classes became more popular than traditional ones. In today's era of post-modernism and growing tolerance towards different ideologies, religions, and subcultures, it is important to understand not only other cultures but also our own.

McKay (2003) asserts that culture impacts language teaching in two key ways: linguistically and pedagogically. On the linguistic side, culture influences the semantic, pragmatic, and discourse aspects of the language. Pedagogically, it shapes the selection of teaching materials, as the cultural content within these materials and the cultural framework of the teaching methods must be considered. For instance, while some textbooks incorporate examples from the target culture, others might use materials from the learner's own culture. Previously, it was argued that ethnocentrism limits self-awareness, and to overcome this limitation, individuals must view themselves from a new perspective—making culture classes essential for fostering this shift in perspective.

Pulverness (2004) echoes this by comparing how literature alienates the familiar—citing Russian literary critic Viktor Shklovsky's explanation of how Tolstoy achieved this effect—to how culture classes alienate learners from themselves, allowing them to see themselves from a different vantage point. As discussed, many people are so ethnocentric that when they start learning a new language, their deep-rooted connection to their own culture prevents them from adopting alternative worldviews.

Studying another culture helps break the confines of a monocultural perspective and opens the door to a broader understanding of different perspectives.

In conclusion, culture classes have a humanizing and motivating effect on both language learners and the overall learning process. These classes allow students to observe the similarities and differences between various cultural groups. Today, many L2 learners around the world grow up in monolingual and monocultural environments, which often leads to culture-bound perspectives. This can result in learners making premature and inappropriate judgments about both their own and others' cultural traits. Such views can cause learners to perceive people whose language they are studying as strange or impolite, which may in turn demotivate them in their language studies.

However, some experts approach the teaching of culture with caution. Bada (2000) points out that becoming aware of cultural values and societal characteristics doesn't necessarily mean learners will adopt those values; rather, it helps individuals "refine the self" to become more universal and less self-centered (p.100). Additionally, it is important to note that English is the most widely studied language globally, which has given it the status of a lingua franca (Alptekin, 2002; Smith, 1976).

A pilot study collected data from 86 students who completed a survey, test, and questionnaire on foreign language learning strategies using a Likert scale. Students took these tests both before and after a series of lessons. Results showed that cognitive strategies were the most frequently used in the learning process, followed by social and affective strategies. After the lessons, students demonstrated a notable increase in the use of metacognitive (0.8%), cognitive (1.2%), and social/affective mechanisms (2.6%). These findings highlight the benefits of the linguocultural approach in teaching grammar and phonetics, as it boosts motivation and makes learning more engaging.

This study also examined how the linguocultural approach influences foreign language learning strategies, improving learning effectiveness over a two-month period.

Lingua-cultural teaching and learning is an educational approach that emphasizes the integration of language and culture in the process of second language acquisition. This method recognizes that language is not just a system of grammatical rules and vocabulary but is deeply intertwined with the cultural contexts in which it is used. Here are some key aspects of lingua-cultural teaching and learning:

Cultural Context

Language is a reflection of cultural identity and values. Understanding the cultural nuances behind phrases, idioms, and expressions enhances language comprehension.

Cultural references, customs, traditions, and social norms play a crucial role in effective communication.

Intercultural Competence

Learners develop skills to navigate and respect cultural differences, fostering empathy and global awareness.

This approach prepares students for real-world interactions in diverse cultural settings.

Curriculum Integration

Language instruction includes cultural content, such as literature, art, music, history, and current events from the target culture.

Critical Thinking and Reflection

Students engage in critical analysis of their own cultural biases and assumptions, promoting reflective learning.

This encourages them to consider how their cultural backgrounds influence their perceptions and interactions.

Authentic Materials

Use of authentic texts, videos, and resources from the target culture helps students connect language learning to real-life contexts.

This exposure supports language acquisition while providing insights into cultural practices and perspectives.

Collaborative Learning

Group activities and projects that encourage collaboration among learners from different cultural backgrounds enhance intercultural communication skills.

Sharing personal experiences related to culture promotes a deeper understanding of language in context.

Lingua-cultural teaching and learning creates a holistic educational experience that not only develops language proficiency but also cultivates cultural awareness and sensitivity. By bridging the gap between language and culture, educators can prepare learners to communicate effectively and meaningfully in a globalized world.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions!

1. What is the concept of lingua-cultural teaching, and why is it important in language education?
2. How do cultural differences influence language learning and teaching practices?
3. In what ways can cultural content be integrated into language curricula?
4. How does understanding cultural context enhance language proficiency?
5. What challenges do educators face when incorporating culture into language teaching?
6. How can teachers assess students' understanding of cultural concepts alongside language skills?
7. What role does literature play in teaching culture within a language learning framework?

8. How can technology be utilized to promote lingua-cultural awareness among language learners?

9. In what ways can immersion experiences impact language acquisition and cultural understanding?

10. How can teachers create a classroom environment that respects and celebrates cultural diversity?

Activities



Activity 1: Cultural Presentation

Objective: Explore cultural influences on language.

Instructions: Each student researches a different culture, focusing on cultural practices, common phrases, and etiquette. They present their findings in class, followed by a Q&A session.

Activity 2: Role-Playing Scenarios

Objective: Navigate real-life cultural interactions.

Instructions: Create scenarios involving cross-cultural communication. Students role-play these scenarios in pairs, focusing on language and cultural norms, then discuss their experiences.

Activity 3: Cultural Artifact Show-and-Tell

Objective: Appreciate diverse cultures through artifacts.

Instructions: Students bring a cultural artifact and present its significance and context. Encourage questions and discussions about each artifact.

Activity 4: Language and Culture Journal

Objective: Reflect on language and cultural experiences.

Instructions: Students maintain a journal documenting language learning and cultural encounters over a month. Share insights in a class discussion at the end.

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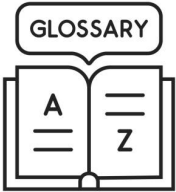
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THEME №3. AGE GROUPS FOR CHOICE OF METHODS IN TEACHING METHODS

3-mavzu. O‘qitish metodlarida metod tanlash uchun yosh guruhlarini

Ushbu mashg‘ulot davomida tarbiyalanuvchilarning yosh xususiyatlarini hisobga olish, jamoaning shakllanganlik darajasi, tarbiyalanuvchilarning individual o‘ziga xosliklari, tarbiyaviy shart-sharoitlar batafsil yoritiladi.

Tarbiyalanuvchilarning yosh xususiyatlarini hisobga olish – Considering the age characteristics of learners 	In education, this refers to the practice of adjusting teaching methods, materials, and activities based on the developmental stage, cognitive abilities, and emotional maturity of students at different ages.
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Jamoaning shakllanganlik darajasi – The level of group formation:	This refers to the degree of cohesion and cooperation within a group of learners. It includes the development of interpersonal relationships, teamwork, and a sense of unity among students.
Tarbiyalanuvchilarning individual o'ziga xosliklari – The individual uniqueness of learners	Recognizing and addressing each student's unique characteristics, including their personal interests, learning styles, strengths, weaknesses, and background, to create a more personalized learning experience.
Tarbiyaviy shart-sharoitlar – Educational conditions:	Refers to the environmental, social, and material factors that affect the teaching and learning process. These include classroom atmosphere, available resources, support systems, and overall infrastructure that can enhance or hinder educational outcomes.

Lecture



English language classes are typically conducted in group settings, whether for children aged 3 to 5 (pre-schoolers) or for students in both lower and higher school grades. In contrast, older students can engage with more advanced and structured learning methods.

For students aged three to five, it's important to introduce basic concepts they already know in their native language while learning English. They will grasp these concepts more effectively through playful activities like games, drawing, and singing.

Lessons should be structured around activities that children naturally enjoy at that age, as these will keep them engaged longer and prevent boredom, unlike monotonous exercises.

Additionally, at this early age, it's crucial not to impose learning through strict rules and definitions, as this approach is unlikely to produce the positive results teachers aim to achieve with young learners.

Teachers should also focus on motivating their young pupils by using rewards such as fun stamps in different shapes and sizes, like stars or hearts, and offering praise when deserved. This approach encourages creativity and teamwork, which can significantly enhance the children's acquisition of English.

Since this is a unique group of younger children who are not yet able to take written tests like older students, assessments should primarily be conducted orally.

When working with young children, teachers should fully adapt the curriculum to the students' age to best support their learning. Since some children in this age group may not have developed writing skills yet, the curriculum and lessons should be tailored to their abilities and knowledge. Similar to teaching 3-5 year-olds, much of the learning for children aged 5-7 should happen through familiar games, as this is the most effective way for them to acquire age-appropriate English skills.

At this stage, it is also important to introduce the sounds of the English language. Through fun and engaging activities, children can begin to recognize these sounds, learn their first English words, and simultaneously develop their curiosity and listening skills.

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For students in first to fourth grade, aged 7 to 10, different methods of acquiring language skills should be planned. The curriculum should focus on topics and areas that are relatable and interesting to students, making them easier to grasp.

At this age, students should not only learn to communicate effectively in the foreign language at their level but also develop team spirit, as interactive teaching methods work best. This approach is expected to have a positive impact on their language acquisition.

Students in this age group are expected to learn spoken communication at a level appropriate to their age. Since lessons are designed to be interactive and ensure equal participation, this will also positively influence their future learning at school.

Students in higher grades of elementary school, aged 11 to 14, should already possess a certain level of proficiency in English. Teachers should assess these skills and enhance them in alignment with the school's curriculum.

The curriculum should also be tailored to students' interests to maintain their engagement during lessons. By practicing all language skills—writing, reading, listening, and speaking—students will gain confidence in their knowledge.

Additionally, incorporating a variety of activities in class will not only facilitate the mastery of these skills but also spark students' interest in learning more, reducing the likelihood of boredom during lessons.

At this level, assessments should be age-appropriate and designed to evaluate each language skill, including writing, speaking, reading, and listening comprehension.

****Cognitive differences:****

Adults are capable of handling more complex and abstract concepts, allowing them to solve problems independently. In contrast, younger learners require detailed, explicit guidance. While adults often prefer to focus on rules and explanations, younger learners benefit from language that is immediately relevant and applicable to their context.

****Sensory differences:****

Children need to engage all five senses to remain attentive. This approach provides a range of learning activities that adult learners might have outgrown, although they can still benefit from such stimulation. Adult learners often have strong preferences regarding their learning methods.

****Motivational differences:****

Younger learners require intrinsic motivation for their engagement, while adults want to understand the value of an activity or course. Adults are generally willing to put in effort if they believe the activity will lead to progress.

****Affective differences:****

Adults may feel constrained and embarrassed by their limited ability to express themselves at a lower proficiency level, experiencing what is often referred to as "reduced personality" or appearing childlike. In contrast, younger learners may be eager to try new things but often lack self-confidence and can be susceptible to peer pressure.

However, merely being aware of these differences is insufficient. I often observe that teachers' established habits can hinder their ability to connect with new students. Therefore, based on the points mentioned and my recent classroom observations, I've created the following checklist to help identify habits that need to be adjusted.

In working with young learners, it's common to find that their linguistic abilities exceed those expected from typical course books designed for their age group. As a result, some adaptations are often necessary. For instance,

I am currently teaching a group of 11 to 15-year-olds in an upper-intermediate First Certificate course, utilizing a textbook intended for older teenagers and adults. Therefore, adapting lesson plans is crucial.

When modifying tasks, the key is to make them more relevant and relatable to the students. Last week, we focused on writing formal letters, an activity none of the students had previously encountered, so they required considerable support. After reviewing several examples of formal letters, we turned to a task in the book that involved writing a letter to complain about service received from a tour operator during a recent holiday. This scenario felt unrealistic for them, as it was unlikely they would do this even in their native language. However, I remembered that some students had recently attended a concert and were disappointed by the performance. We adapted the task together by discussing what aspects of the show had been disappointing and creating a list from their responses. This list became the content of the task, allowing us to use the same functional language for complaints while making the exercise more engaging and relevant to their personal experiences.

Speaking activities often require adjustments as well. For example, a job interview role-play could be modified to simulate an interview for a summer course or a position assisting at a scout camp.

Here are some questions to consider when planning lessons:

- Are the students already familiar with the topic?
- If not, what methods can I use to introduce it?
- Will the students find the topic engaging?
- If not, how can I make it more appealing and relevant?
- What kind of support will the students need to successfully complete the task?

Teenagers, in particular, can feel insulted when presented with material they perceive as childish, especially when they believe they are ready for more mature content. If you can't find suitable material, you can still use what you have as a foundation.

Games and enjoyable activities that are effective with young learners can also be successful with older teenagers and adults.

By explaining the purpose of the game or activity and clarifying what skills the students are practicing, most learners respond positively. Older students can quickly tell if an activity lacks purpose and is merely a way to pass the time. For instance, I recently played word formation bingo with a group of adults, and I was surprised by their excitement and competitiveness as they vied to become the next "Bingo King" or "Bingo Queen." After a long day at work, they seemed to relish the opportunity to tap into their childhood for a brief twenty minutes!

Young children typically lack a strong motivation to learn a new language and may still be mastering their mother tongue. However, their broader interest in learning is often fueled by their natural curiosity and imagination. Teaching language classes to preschoolers can be challenging due to their shorter attention spans; therefore, educators must exercise considerable patience and possess effective classroom management skills to maintain their focus. Additionally, teachers need to bring a high level of energy to make lessons engaging and successful.

It is essential to keep students active, busy, and entertained, which means lessons must be filled with engaging material that keeps them on task. Movement is crucial for both teachers and students. Bringing words, ideas, and stories to life through role-playing helps younger learners build confidence in the classroom and effectively conveys important learning objectives.

Be concise and straightforward in your communication. If your instructions are too lengthy and convoluted, students will lose interest.

Make sure to have fun and create an enjoyable atmosphere for the children as well.

Total Physical Response (TPR) can be very effective. Create activities that allow learners to use language through physical movements—such as standing up, sitting down, or moving to different areas of the room.

Utilize the entire classroom environment to enhance learning—lessons can take place indoors or outdoors, while sitting, standing, or even running around!

Incorporate prompts and engaging elements like puppets, favorite characters, and guest visitors to keep lessons exciting.

While teaching elementary school students shares many similarities with teaching preschoolers—such as being energetic, fun, and fast-paced—there are also significant differences that should be reflected in lesson delivery and content.

Most notably, these learners are now in a formal school setting with structured lessons and teachers. It's essential to quickly establish a routine for each class that is easy for them to understand and follow. At the same time, it's crucial to acknowledge their developing sophistication; students are beginning to think independently and are motivated by imagining themselves in various scenarios. Role-playing becomes particularly effective at this age, and lessons can also incorporate competitive elements.

As elementary language learners mature, they start to cultivate their independent communication skills, allowing them to express their feelings and opinions. They can construct simple sentences and gradually become less reliant on the teacher for guidance. Educators should therefore focus on creating activities that encourage independent communication through group and pair work, utilizing the Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) approach.

Engaging older children and teenagers can be quite challenging. Many of them study a foreign language because it is a requirement in their school curriculum or due to parental expectations, rather than out of genuine interest. Teachers working with this age group must put in considerable effort to spark their curiosity and involve all learners, especially when learning or speaking a second language isn't seen as cool.

It's essential for educators to start by establishing a connection with their students.

Depending on the teaching environment, getting to know students personally and incorporating those insights into lessons can be beneficial. Whatever their interests—be it celebrities, films, music, politics, or

sports—try to integrate these topics into your lessons. Structuring lessons around familiar subjects will help maintain their engagement.

Additionally, take advantage of social media opportunities. For instance, consider having students submit a written assignment as a tweet thread or present a speaking task in a TikTok format. Be open to experimentation and offer students various options for responding. Designing lessons around specific tasks—an approach central to task-based language teaching (TBLT)—is also effective for these students, as it empowers them and fosters motivation by giving them ownership over their language learning and control over how they complete the task.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions!

1. What are the key developmental characteristics of children in the preschool age group (3-5 years) that influence teaching methods?
2. How does cognitive development in early childhood (ages 5-7) affect the choice of teaching methods in language instruction?
3. In what ways do social and emotional factors of young learners (ages 7-12) impact the selection of teaching strategies?
4. What teaching methods are most effective for adolescents (ages 12-18) in language acquisition, and why?
5. How do the attention spans of different age groups influence the choice of activities in language teaching?
6. What role does cultural context play in selecting teaching methods for various age groups?
7. How can teachers adapt their methods to accommodate the individual learning styles of students within the same age group?
8. What are some effective methods for teaching vocabulary to young learners (ages 6-10)?

9. How do motivational factors vary across different age groups, and how should this influence teaching approaches?

10. In what ways can technology be integrated into language teaching for different age groups, and what are the potential benefits?

11. How does the choice of assessment methods differ between early childhood education and secondary education?

12. What challenges do teachers face when implementing age-appropriate methods in a diverse classroom?

13. How can play-based learning be effectively utilized in language teaching for preschool-aged children?

14. What strategies can be employed to engage reluctant learners in language classes for adolescents?

15. How does the incorporation of collaborative learning methods benefit language acquisition in various age groups?

Activities



1. Group Discussion

Objective: Engage students in discussing the characteristics of different age groups and their learning needs.

Instructions: Divide students into small groups and assign each group an age range (e.g., preschool, early childhood, young learners, adolescents). Have them discuss the specific characteristics of their assigned age group and present their findings to the class.

2. Case Study Analysis

Objective: Analyze real-life scenarios to determine appropriate teaching methods.

Instructions: Provide students with case studies of different teaching situations for various age groups. Ask them to identify the most suitable methods for each scenario and justify their choices. Groups can present their analyses to the class.

3. Role-Playing

Objective: Simulate teaching different age groups using appropriate methods.

Instructions: Assign students to role-play as teachers and students in different age categories. Have them prepare a short lesson using methods suitable for their assigned age group. After each role-play, discuss what methods were effective and why.

4. Method Comparison Chart

Objective: Create a visual representation of methods for different age groups.

Instructions: In pairs, have students create a chart comparing various teaching methods (e.g., games, storytelling, direct instruction) and indicate which age groups each method is best suited for. They can present their charts to the class for discussion.

5. Brainstorming Session

Objective: Generate ideas for age-appropriate activities.

Instructions: Conduct a brainstorming session where students suggest activities for teaching English to different age groups. Categorize the suggestions and discuss the rationale behind the chosen activities.

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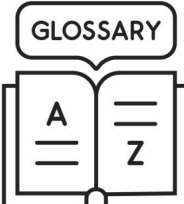
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THEME №4. TEACHING AND LEARNING LANGUAGES BY MEANS OF COMPUTER TECHNOLOGIES. COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING

4-mavzu: Kompyuter texnologiyalari yordamida tillarni o‘qitish va o‘rganish.

Kompyuter yordamida til o‘rganish

Ushbu mashg‘ulot davomida axborot texnologiyalari, innoyatsion texnologiyalar, chet tili, ingliz tili, kompyuter, televizor, multimedia, audio, e-Book, AKT kabi atamalar batafsil yoritiladi.

	Axborot texnologiyalari – Information technologies (IT):	Refers to the use of computers, networks, and other technology to store, retrieve, transmit, and manage information.
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Innovatsion texnologiyalar – Innovative technologies:	These are new, advanced technologies or methods that significantly improve processes, services, or products in various fields, including education and industry.
Chet tili – Foreign language:	Any language that is learned and used in a country different from where it is spoken as a native language.
Ingliz tili – English language:	The global lingua franca and one of the most commonly taught and studied languages worldwide, especially in education and business.
Komputer – Computer:	An electronic device used for processing, storing, and displaying information, widely used in education, communication, and various industries.
Audio – Audio:	Refers to sound recordings or broadcasts that are used as educational tools in language learning, lectures, or other informational formats.
e-Book – e-Book (Electronic book):	A digital version of a book that can be read on devices such as e-readers, tablets, or computers. It often includes interactive features, such as highlighting, note-taking, and searching.

AKT (Axborot-kommunikatsiya texnologiyalari) – ICT (Information and Communication Technologies):	Refers to the broad range of technologies used for communicating, managing, and processing information, including the internet, telecommunications, and digital media tools.
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Lecture



In the latter half of the 20th century, educational technologies advanced significantly, with computers making their first appearance in schools in developed nations in the late 1950s. Over time, these devices have become faster, more powerful, user-friendly, and affordable, boasting increased data processing and storage capabilities. Innovations in hardware, such as hard drives, CD-ROMs, laser discs, and printers, now allow computers to handle audio, images, and video in addition to text.

By the end of the 20th century, the emergence of computer-mediated communication and the Internet revolutionized the role of computers in language learning. They evolved from tools for merely processing and displaying information to instruments for both information handling and communication. Language learners can now interact in real-time with native speakers worldwide. However, as Dhaif (1989) noted, computers cannot fully replace live teachers, especially in language instruction, where personal interaction is vital. Instead, computers should be viewed as supplementary tools that enhance second or foreign language education.

The range of foreign language materials has expanded beyond traditional grammar books and dictionaries to include course books, workbooks, programmed courses, cue cards, charts, newspapers, posters, picture cards, and cut-outs. Various media, such as radio, television, slides, overhead projectors, videotapes, games, toys, realia, and now computers, multimedia, and the Internet, further enrich these materials.

Language laboratories, which gained popularity in the 1970s under the Audiolingual Method, have been succeeded by computer-assisted language learning (CALL) workstations. According to Crystal (1987), microcomputers as word processors complement audio tools, enabling interactive instruction across all four language skills: reading, listening, speaking, and writing. Crystal also highlights that numerous foreign language teaching exercises—such as sentence restructuring, spelling checks, translation checks, dictation tasks, and cloze tests—can be efficiently managed using screen-displayed text.

In recent years, interest in using computers for foreign language teaching has surged. A decade ago, the presence of computers in language classrooms was mainly a concern for a select group of specialists in Western countries. However, the rise of multimedia technology and the Internet has made computers a significant focus for language educators globally.

While many teachers still rely on traditional teaching tools like chalkboards, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has become a regular component of language instruction in developed countries such as the USA, Japan, and Western European nations, including Turkey. CALL provides additional practice in writing, reading, speaking, listening, grammar, and problem-solving. As Chapelle (1990) emphasizes, instructors must understand how to effectively integrate CALL into language instruction for the benefit of learners.

Computers are devices that process information rapidly and accurately, generating, displaying, storing, recognizing, and sharing various data types, including numbers, text, images, videos, and sounds. They have transformed how people work, learn, communicate, and entertain themselves, becoming essential educational tools for students, teachers, and researchers worldwide, while also being popular for personal use at home. According to the Encarta Encyclopedia (2000), the first electronic digital computer was developed by Hungarian-

American mathematician John von Neumann to address problems in fields like mathematics, meteorology, economics, and hydrodynamics.

Subsequently, American physicist John Mauchly proposed the ENIAC, which he built with engineer J. Presper Eckert at the University of Pennsylvania. Completed in 1945, ENIAC is regarded as the first successful general-purpose digital computer, despite being enormous, weighing over 27,000 kg and containing more than 18,000 vacuum tubes that required regular replacement by six technicians, necessitating reprogramming for each new task.

The tangible components of a computer are termed hardware, encompassing all equipment necessary for its operation. Hardware includes components that can be physically handled and is typically divided into three categories: storage, input, and output. Examples of hardware include memory devices like CD-ROMs and floppy disks, accessed via drives, while the central processing unit (CPU) executes instructions. Input devices, such as keyboards and mice, allow user interaction, while output devices like printers, monitors, and speakers display or transmit information. The modem connects computers to the Internet through telephone lines. Memory capacity is measured in kilobytes (K), with a 64K computer capable of storing over 64,000 characters (Ditto, 2000).

Conversely, the programs that operate on a computer are known as software, a set of instructions directing the computer to manipulate data. Examples include word processing software for writing letters or video games. These programs are stored and transferred using hardware to and from the CPU, with the Basic Input Output System (BIOS) managing the interaction between input and output devices. Software is typically stored on disks or CD-ROMs, and numerous language learning software options are available, including programs like WIDA, the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary on CD-ROM, Learn to Speak English, and Encarta Encyclopedia, among others.

A computer is a man-made tool that cannot operate independently, lacking natural intelligence, initiative, or the ability to learn and teach autonomously. It performs tasks rapidly as directed by human users, functioning as a "servant of the user." Its role in education is limited to being a teaching aid, fully reliant on the teacher for many functions, such as creating educational content. Teachers provide all linguistic materials and determine content presentation and computer control in the classroom. As Brierley and Kemble (1991) argue, teachers should not fear losing their jobs to computers.

Computers can be situated in classrooms, specialized labs (like CALL labs), dedicated library spaces, or any suitable location that allows uninterrupted work for students or small groups (Ahmed et al., 1985). They can serve as the primary tool for a course or be utilized for review, reinforcement, or other educational purposes. Computers interact with students by displaying text, images, or videos on screens and can also present audio such as speech or music. Typically, students engage with computers by clicking icons with a mouse or typing commands and responses on a keyboard (Higgins, 1995). The interactive and visual features of computers positively enhance learner motivation.

CALL, or Computer-Assisted Language Learning, is a term used by educators and students to describe the integration of computers into language learning courses (Hardisty & Windeatt, 1989). Traditionally, CALL is viewed as a tool for "presenting, reinforcing, and testing" specific language concepts, where learners first encounter a rule with examples and then answer questions to assess their understanding. The computer provides feedback and scores, which teachers can later review.

Jones & Fortescue (1987) argue that this traditional perspective of CALL is restrictive, suggesting that computers can serve as flexible classroom tools used by both teachers and students in various ways, both inside and outside the classroom. However, like any teaching aid, computer-based lessons must be integrated into regular classroom activities, and CALL lessons, like all lessons, require careful planning.

Students must ensure that the available educational resources are regularly updated and identify any shortcomings in the training materials.

Additionally, the educational content should evolve in line with changes in grammatical and lexical aspects. However, insufficient funding hinders the prompt revision of current foreign language training systems. Consequently, the responsibility for modernizing the educational complex falls on the students. Learning English is a complex and continually evolving process. The integration of computer technology in foreign language education enhances access to information and reduces the time required for language acquisition. Currently, there is a vast array of multimedia products, websites with essential information for language learning, electronic textbooks, and databases containing thematic texts and exercises. The sheer volume of available resources can make it challenging to locate the necessary information.

The approach to foreign language instruction varies across higher education institutions, depending on factors such as the students' future professions, the depth of foreign language study, their proficiency level, and the teachers' goals.

Currently, there are differing opinions on the role of computers in foreign language education. Some advocate for computers to replace teachers, while others argue that computers cannot present material as effectively as a teacher can. In our view, computers should serve as supplementary tools, much like other educational technologies or textbooks. It is important to recognize the advantages of computers, including their ability to integrate video, audio, and text information, as well as the capability for students to record their voices and self-correct their pronunciation. Computers also offer significant opportunities for assessing students' knowledge of a foreign language or specific topics, with or without the teacher's involvement, which can streamline the process of evaluating results. For instance, a prompt like, "Listen carefully to the dialogue and type it exactly as spoken," allows the computer to check answers against a template and log the results in a database.

We identify the primary methodological functions that computers can perform in language education:

- *Informative*: One of the key advantages of computers is their capacity to store and process vast amounts of information, making them valuable tools in language education as information systems.

- *Training*: Computers are utilized for training purposes to help develop skills. Until recently, the primary focus of integrating computer technology into education, particularly in the field of information technology, has been on building strong competencies. Moreover, personal computers offer certain advantages over teachers in the training process and in reinforcing educational content.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What is Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)?
2. How do computer technologies enhance language learning experiences?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of using CALL in language education?
4. How can multimedia tools be integrated into language teaching?
5. What role do interactive language applications play in CALL?
6. How can teachers assess the effectiveness of CALL in their classrooms?
7. What are some best practices for implementing CALL in a language curriculum?
8. How can online forums and communities support language learning?
9. In what ways do adaptive learning technologies personalize language instruction?

10. What are the challenges faced by teachers when integrating computer technologies into language teaching?
11. How does CALL address different learning styles among students?
12. What is the significance of feedback in computer-assisted language learning?
13. How can virtual reality (VR) be utilized in language acquisition?
14. How do online language courses differ from traditional classroom settings?
15. What future trends do you foresee in CALL and language education?

Activities



1. Exploration of CALL Tools:

Objective: Familiarize students with various CALL tools and applications.

Instructions: Assign small groups to explore specific CALL tools (e.g., Duolingo, Quizlet, Rosetta Stone). Each group will present the features and effectiveness of their assigned tool.

2. Design a Lesson Plan:

Objective: Create a lesson plan incorporating CALL.

Instructions: Students will develop a lesson plan that includes the use of computer technology for teaching a specific language topic. They should consider the target age group, learning objectives, and assessment methods.

3. Discussion on Benefits and Challenges:

Objective: Evaluate the effectiveness of CALL.

Instructions: Conduct a class discussion on the pros and cons of using computer technologies in language learning. Have students share personal experiences and observations.

4. Research Project:

Objective: Investigate a specific aspect of CALL.

Instructions: Students will select a research topic related to CALL (e.g., mobile-assisted language learning, online assessment tools) and prepare a short presentation to share their findings with the class.

5. *Peer Teaching:*

Objective: Enhance collaborative learning.

Instructions: Pair students to teach each other language concepts using a CALL application of their choice. Each pair will reflect on their experience and the effectiveness of the application.

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THEME №5. LANGUAGE LEARNING PRINCEPLES

5-mavzu: Til o‘rgatish tamoyillari

Ushbu mashg‘ulot davomida konsentrik xususiyatlari, vazifalari, uslubiy farqlash, bir tizim tushunchasini yaratish, motivatsiya, psixologik xususiyatlari, kommunikativ tamoyi lbatafsil yoritiladi.

GLOSSARY A — Z	Konsentrik xususiyatlari – Concentric characteristics:	Refers to the gradual expansion of learning content or concepts around a central idea, where new information builds on previously learned material in a systematic and layered manner.
	Vazifalari – Functions:	Refers to the roles or tasks that different components of a system, such as teaching methods or learning tools, perform in the educational process.
	Uslubiy farqlash – Methodological differentiation:	In education, this refers to the adaptation of teaching methods and strategies to meet the diverse needs, abilities, and learning styles of students, ensuring personalized instruction.
	Bir tizim tushunchasini yaratish – Creating a system concept:	The process of developing a structured and organized framework for understanding a subject, topic, or educational process, integrating all components into a cohesive system.

Motivatsiya – Motivation:	The internal drive or external factors that inspire students to engage in learning, achieve their goals, and persist in their educational efforts.
Psixologik xususiyatlari – Psychological characteristics:	Refers to the mental and emotional traits of learners, such as cognitive abilities, emotional intelligence, personality, and behavior, that influence how they learn and interact in the educational environment.

Lecture



In a school setting, when teaching a second language, it is common for teachers to focus on the LSRW (Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing) skills. Initially, they adopt an oral approach to emphasize audio-lingual skills, followed by reading and writing instruction. Language is fundamentally a vocal-auditory channel, which underscores the idea that without a solid understanding of language patterns, speech can be incomplete, flawed, and ineffective in interpreting written content.

When students become proficient in spoken language, they are better prepared to engage in reading and writing as subsequent activities. Typically, students who start by learning to write or understand the script do not learn to speak independently. Teachers can use appropriate speaking models, such as audio tapes or recordings, to help students learn the language through imitation.

Principle of Basic Sentences

These practical principles, supported by nearly all linguists, are grounded in psychological reasoning. Students typically find it easier to imitate or repeat longer phrases or sentences in their native language than in a foreign language.

Since a child's memory span is limited, there is a significant risk that they may forget what they hear while learning a second language. As a result, students often struggle to use examples to grasp grammatical concepts or generate new sentences by analogy because they do not retain them. To address this challenge, students can begin by using and memorizing simple conversational sentences.

Principle of Patterns as Habits

The main goal of language learning is to apply it in daily life. In writing, sentences are created by following specific patterns. Mastering a language means being able to use these construction patterns along with suitable vocabulary, at a natural pace, for effective communication. Simply knowing or identifying a pattern is insufficient unless the learner develops the habit of practicing it. Consistent practice helps the learner internalize and apply the language, adapting it to various situations.

Principle of the Sound System:

Language is primarily spoken and verbal. To effectively teach it, students should be introduced to the sound system of language through various methods such as demonstration, imitation, the use of props, comparison, and practice. The sound system should be integrated with vocabulary and sentence structures. However, simply observing is not enough for a child to learn. Through partial attempts, articulatory cues, and minimal contrasts, the child begins to grasp phonemic differences. With practice and exposure to the sound system, the child gains firsthand experience, helping them to speak fluently and develop other language skills.

Principle of Vocabulary Control

When a child begins learning a language, mastering the sound system comes first, followed by grammatical patterns. To construct correct sentences, vocabulary must be taught, but it should be kept minimal, carefully selected, and properly organized. If too many words are introduced too soon, students may struggle to learn efficiently.

By limiting vocabulary at the start, students can more easily grasp basic patterns and key sounds. Once these fundamentals are learned through practice, vocabulary can be gradually expanded.

Principle of Teaching Language Challenges

Children typically learn both their first and second languages in a school setting, and there are often significant structural differences between the two. These differences can be seen as challenges, though they aren't necessarily problems but rather areas requiring conscious attention. Teachers don't need to address these challenges from the outset. Instead, they can introduce language in meaningful contexts, allowing students to naturally absorb language use. Practicing the language in real situations helps students learn without confusion, making the process smoother and more effective.

Principle of Writing as a Representation of Speech

This principle emphasizes that teaching graphic symbols (letters and characters) and associating them with the language units they represent are separate tasks. It also highlights that teaching reading and writing should be distinct from teaching speech. Language learning is based on listening, speaking, reading, and writing (LSRW) skills, and scientific principles support starting with listening. This can be achieved through narration, storytelling, play-based methods, and games, which help students develop speaking skills. Teachers encourage interaction by asking questions and eliciting responses. Once listening and speaking are developed, students engage in intensive and extensive reading through prescribed materials. Writing is introduced last, as a graphic representation of language units and patterns the student has already learned. This approach is psychologically sound, as a strong foundation in spoken language aids better reading and writing skills.

Principle of Graded Patterns

In second language teaching, patterns should be introduced progressively, in a series of cumulative, graded steps.

This principle suggests that it is more effective to teach sentence patterns rather than focusing solely on individual words.

Early lessons should include graded questions, responses, requests, greetings, and statements. These can then be followed by sub-sentence elements such as parts of speech, sentence structures, and word modifications. New elements or patterns can be added gradually as the student progresses, building on what they have already learned.

For example, one can first teach questions using the "do" form (e.g., "Do you understand?") before introducing questions with interrogative words (e.g., "What do you understand?"). Once the "do" pattern is established, it becomes easier to teach and understand questions with words like "what," "when," and "where." Language learning should be gradual, as the entire language cannot be taught all at once.

Principle of Language Practice versus Translation

While all languages are equally valuable, no two languages are identical, making direct word-to-word translations impossible. Translating between languages can lead to incorrect constructions because there are no exact equivalents between them. From a psychological perspective, translation is a complex and unnecessary process when learning the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing (LSRW). Linguists such as P. Gurrey argue that teaching both the mother tongue and a foreign language can complement each other by highlighting differences between the languages, but translation should only be used as a last resort in second-language teaching. Instead, language should be taught through practical use, which provides more concrete knowledge and ample opportunities for students to learn the language effectively.

Principle of Shaping Responses

In language learning, students often struggle to produce or recognize elements and structures that differ from their first language. This principle suggests two strategies to improve student responses. One method is to break down responses into smaller parts, allowing for practice before

attempting a full response. Another approach is to provide hints, such as articulatory cues, to help students approximate the correct response.

For teaching vocabulary and grammar, hints can guide students toward accurate answers. Similarly, when teaching verbs, tenses, or other grammatical elements, visual aids, diagrams, sketches, and substitution tables can be used to encourage correct responses.

Principle of Language in Situations

Language is used to communicate thoughts, feelings, ideas, and emotions, and it functions as a social, cultural, and geographical phenomenon. People acquire language skills by being exposed to real-life situations within their society. Even in a classroom or artificial setting, practicing language in context helps with acquisition. Using motivating aids and creating situational examples in teaching makes the learning process more meaningful and effective for acquiring language skills.

Principle of Learning as the Crucial Outcome

Language can be taught with scientific accuracy, with the primary goal of fostering learning rather than simply entertaining students. For example, language learning can focus on listening, speaking, reading, and writing (LSRW) skills. When a textual passage is read aloud, students listen and try to identify familiar concepts and words. Introducing new vocabulary and structures can motivate them to speak.

Students can also be encouraged to read the same passage aloud and complete writing exercises. In a scientific approach, the emphasis is on the depth of learning rather than merely on engaging interest. Once a technique proves effective, enhancing its entertainment value becomes less important. These principles provide a solid framework for language learning, particularly for acquiring a second language, and stress that teaching should occur as naturally as possible.

Students should be motivated to cultivate a genuine enthusiasm for learning the language. The principles discussed highlight that language acquisition is influenced by various psychological and sociological

factors. Next, we will explore what these factors are and how they affect language learning.

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is a relatively recent branch of applied linguistics. While determining its precise starting point is difficult, many scholars agree that the late 1960s marked a significant surge in both empirical and theoretical interest in how individuals learn second languages. A large portion of this research aims to improve language teaching effectiveness.

For example, Norris and Ortega conducted a meta-analysis in 2000 that examined 79 studies on the influence of instruction on language learning. Various theoretical frameworks have been established to inform L2 instruction, including Krashen's Monitor Model (1981), Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1996), DeKeyser's skill-learning theory (1998), VanPatten's input processing theory (1996, 2002), and my own theory of instructed language learning (1994), all of which investigate the instructional role in L2 acquisition.

However, existing research and theories do not offer a unified perspective on how instruction can most effectively support language learning. As Ellis noted in 2006, significant debates persist in the field. For instance, there is no agreement on whether instruction should follow a traditional focus-on-forms approach, which stresses systematic teaching of grammatical components through a structural syllabus, or a focus-on-form approach that emphasizes linguistic features within communicative tasks based on a task-based syllabus, or even a hybrid of both.

There are also differing opinions on the effectiveness of teaching explicit knowledge, the types of corrective feedback to provide, and the optimal timing for explicit grammar instruction. These discussions highlight the complexities of instructed language acquisition and underscore the emerging nature of SLA as a field of study.

Seminar lesson

Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.



Questions!

1. What are the key principles of language learning?
2. How does motivation impact language acquisition?
3. What role does interaction play in language learning?
4. How do input and output affect language development?
5. What is the significance of cultural context in language learning?
6. How can learners develop their autonomy in language learning?
7. What are the differences between explicit and implicit learning strategies?
8. How do age and cognitive development influence language learning?
9. What is the importance of feedback in the language learning process?
10. How can teachers accommodate different learning styles in their language instruction?
11. In what ways do learner beliefs and attitudes impact language learning?
12. What is the role of practice and repetition in mastering a language?
13. How can language learning principles be applied to curriculum design?
14. What are the implications of error correction in language learning?
15. How can technology enhance the principles of language learning?

Activities

1. Group Discussion on Principles:

Objective: Facilitate understanding of language learning principles.



Instructions: Divide the class into small groups and assign each group a specific principle of language learning.

Each group will discuss its principle and present examples of how it applies in a classroom setting.

2. Role-Playing Scenarios:

Objective: Practice interaction and communication.

Instructions: Create role-playing scenarios where students must use specific language structures or vocabulary in context. Encourage students to focus on applying the principles of interaction and feedback.

3. Learning Style Inventory:

Objective: Identify personal learning styles.

Instructions: Have students complete a learning style inventory and reflect on how their preferred styles impact their language learning process. Discuss strategies to leverage their strengths.

4. Feedback Workshop:

Objective: Understand the role of feedback.

Instructions: Conduct a workshop where students provide peer feedback on language exercises. Discuss the types of feedback given and how it can enhance learning.

5. Reflective Journaling:

Objective: Foster self-awareness in learning.

Instructions: Ask students to maintain a reflective journal throughout the course, documenting their experiences with language learning principles, challenges faced, and strategies used to overcome them.

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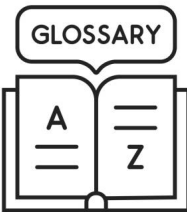
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THEME №6. USING AND EVALUATING TEXTBOOK IN TEACHING METHODS

6-mavzu: Ingliz tilini o‘qitishda darslikdan foydalanish va baholash

Ushbu mashg‘ulot davomida tilni mustaqil o‘rganish, ta’lim texnologiyalari, loyiha, qiziqish, faol lik, interaktiv metodlar kabi tushunchalar batafsil yoritiladi.

	Ingliz tili – English language:	A global language widely used for communication, business, science, and education. It is often a key subject of study, especially as a second or foreign language.
Tilni mustaqil o'rganish – Independent language learning:		The process of learning a language autonomously without direct instruction, relying on self-guided materials, practice, and personal initiative.
Ta'lim texnologiyalari – Educational technologies:		Tools and resources, often digital, used to enhance teaching and

	learning processes. Examples include e-learning platforms, interactive software, and multimedia resources.
Loyiha – Project:	In education, a project involves students working on a specific task or problem over a period of time, typically incorporating research, collaboration, and presentation of results. Project-based learning emphasizes critical thinking and real-world application.
Qiziqish – Interest:	The enthusiasm or curiosity a learner shows toward a particular subject, which plays a significant role in motivation and engagement in the learning process.
Faollik – Activity:	Refers to student participation and engagement in learning tasks. Active learning approaches encourage students to take an active role in their education, often through discussion, hands-on activities, or problem-solving.
Interaktiv metodlar – Interactive methods:	Teaching methods that involve active student participation, often through collaboration, discussion, and the use of technology. Interactive methods aim to make learning more engaging and effective by fostering communication and problem-solving skills.

Lecture



Textbooks play a significant role in English Language Teaching (ELT) and have become a topic of extensive debate among ELT experts. Within this field, experts are divided into two main opposing camps: proponents and opponents. According to Tomlinson (2001:67), proponents argue that textbooks present teaching materials in a convenient manner, ensuring consistency and continuity in material presentation. They also provide learners with a cohesive and progressive learning experience, which helps teachers prepare lessons within their limited time.

McGrath (2002) suggests that textbooks can guide the direction and content of lessons, as well as propose teaching methods. Garinger (2001) notes that textbooks are the most effective resource for alleviating teachers' workload by offering ready-made activities and concrete examples of classroom progress that satisfy external stakeholders.

Opponents of textbook-based teaching argue that textbooks can lead to teacher reliance on pre-prepared materials, preventing them from considering the unique aspects of their teaching contexts. Many textbooks often overlook the diverse circumstances of different teaching environments by providing the same content for students from various backgrounds and conditions. Unfortunately, this is rarely the case. Graves (2000) notes that this oversight includes issues such as irrelevant content for students, the omission of important topics, an imbalanced variety of task types, monotonous activities, and unrealistic proposed timetables.

There is often a conflict between commercial interests and educational needs in how authors or publishers present materials. Frequently, pedagogical elements are minimized to meet commercial demands, which can lead to higher profits for publishers and other stakeholders. In some instances, educational stakeholders overlook the content provided in textbooks to prioritize financial gain.

This approach can negatively affect both teachers and students, resulting in uninspiring and repetitive teaching methods, as educators lack sufficient resources to create engaging classroom experiences.

To avoid falling into the trap of using subpar textbooks, it is recommended that teachers and relevant stakeholders engage in textbook evaluation. This practice is essential for helping teachers select the most appropriate materials for specific subjects, increasing their awareness of a book's actual content, and enabling them to make necessary adaptations.

Experts have proposed various approaches to textbook evaluation. This article aims to provide a comprehensive overview of textbook evaluation by examining four scholarly journals: William (1983), Ellis (1997), Sheldon (1988), and Hutchinson (1987). These articles were chosen because they are frequently cited in research on textbook and teaching material evaluation across diverse contexts, despite being somewhat dated. The discussion will focus on two main aspects of textbook evaluation: methods and criteria.

The Nature of Textbook Evaluation

It is important to differentiate between "evaluation" and "analysis." Analysis refers to the process that yields an objective, verifiable description, while evaluation involves making judgments. When evaluating materials, one must compare the descriptions of a specific context with those found in the textbooks. Therefore, textbook evaluation should be conducted by considering specific required elements or a set of criteria (Kontozi, 2011:1).

Textbook evaluation involves assessing whether specific criteria—often varying depending on the teaching context—align with the solutions provided by the authors in the textbooks. It seeks to determine if the available solutions meet both students' language learning needs and teachers' perspectives on presenting materials. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), textbook evaluation is essentially a simple analytical process of matching needs with available solutions.

This evaluation process is crucial for teachers' professional development. It not only has the potential to influence how teachers approach their instruction but also empowers them to choose textbooks that enhance their understanding of their own teaching and learning environments.

Types of Textbook Evaluation

Recently, experts have proposed various methods of textbook evaluation, which can be categorized into three types: pre-use or predictive evaluation (Ellis, 1997; McGrath, 2002; Tomlinson, 2003), in-use or while-use evaluation (McGrath, 2002; Tomlinson, 2003), and post-use evaluation (McGrath, 2002; Tomlinson, 2003).

Pre-use or predictive evaluation (Ellis, 1997) occurs before teachers use the materials. It aids them in deciding which materials to select by assessing whether the textbooks align with specified teaching objectives. This evaluation involves examining certain features of the textbooks and comparing them to the needs of the students or the specific teaching goals.

In-use evaluation (McGrath, 2002) or *while-use evaluation* (Tomlinson, 2003) assesses the value of materials during their actual use or observation. This type of evaluation is useful for determining whether the materials are appropriate for the students, and the findings can inform future textbook selections.

Lastly, post-use evaluation examines the actual effects of materials on users.

Methods for Evaluating Textbooks

A checklist approach, as suggested by Williams (1983) and Sheldon (1988), is a widely used technique among researchers for assessing existing English Language Teaching (ELT) textbooks. This method involves assigning scores, ratings, or grades to measure how well the materials align with established criteria. The scores obtained indicate the quality of the textbooks and their relevance to the specified standards. Textbook evaluation is characterized as an analytical matching process that aligns needs with the available contexts (Hutchinson, 1987).

This matching process serves as one of the evaluation methods, aiming to compare the characteristics and foundational principles of specific teaching/learning situations with the materials presented in the textbooks. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses can be employed to draw conclusions from the research findings.

Quantitative analysis is typically conducted when the collected data consists of test scores (Ellis, 1997), and it is usually displayed in table format. In contrast, when the data is derived from journals, qualitative analysis is employed, which is presented in a narrative format and often enhanced with quotations and protocols for illustration.

The textbook evaluation methods outlined in these four papers include checklists, matching processes, and both qualitative and quantitative data analysis. Researchers intending to evaluate textbooks or materials can choose one of these methods based on the specific type of evaluation they are undertaking.

Criteria for Textbook Evaluation

There is no definitive standard for textbook evaluation criteria; rather, it varies depending on the teaching contexts for which the textbooks are designed. In some countries where structural-based teaching remains popular, criteria based on communicative approaches may not be appropriate. Hutchinson (1987) argues that materials evaluation is inherently relative, as each textbook reflects implicit assumptions about language use and learning, with every teaching situation embodying specific beliefs about language and learning. Therefore, a comprehensive analysis of the teaching context for which the materials are intended is essential.

Experts, however, suggest flexible, principled guidelines for developing textbook evaluation criteria. The term "principled" refers to contemporary theories of language use and learning, while "flexible" indicates that the criteria can be adapted to consider local factors that may be relevant in specific teaching contexts.

For example, Hutchinson (1987) asserts that any principles for evaluating textbooks should be grounded in the underlying assumptions about language use and language learning.

Researchers need to clarify the nature and foundational assumptions of language use and teaching to align them with the principles of the available materials. This matching process will help assess the suitability of textbooks for a specific teaching context.

Williams (1983) argues that when developing criteria for textbook evaluation, it is important to consider assumptions about second language teaching, which should include current methodologies, support for non-native teachers, the needs of second language learners, and relevance to the socio-cultural context. These assumptions will help assess various criteria, such as general, speech, grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, and technical aspects. "General" refers to broad considerations of methodology, learner needs, teacher requirements, and community factors, while "technical" pertains to the quality of editing and publishing, availability of supplementary materials, cost and durability of the text, as well as the authenticity of the language and the writer's style. Combining these assumptions with the criteria will generate numerous principles that should be tailored to the local teaching context.

Ellis (1997) presents a different set of criteria for evaluating ELT textbooks, which includes objectives, input, conditions, procedures, and outcomes. The objectives outline the teaching goals that the tasks aim to achieve, while input specifies what the tasks will focus on. Conditions describe how the tasks should be performed, and procedures explain what students need to do to complete the tasks. Finally, outcomes refer to the specific results that should be attained from the tasks.

Lastly, Sheldon (1983) offers a more comprehensive framework for textbook evaluation, comprising seventeen elements:

1. Rationale: A statement outlining the objectives behind writing the textbooks, aligned with a needs analysis.

2. Availability: Access to contact representatives from the publishing companies.

3. User Definition: A profile of the target audience for the textbooks, including age and proficiency levels.

4. Layout/Graphics: The use of illustrations and design elements in presenting the material.

5. Accessibility: Features that facilitate ease of use, such as a table of contents, indexes, or guidance on how to use the textbooks.

6. Linkage: The coherence and connection among different parts of the book, including the relevance of the topics, themes, and content.

7. Selection/Grading: The choices made regarding the selection and grading of materials in the textbooks.

8. Physical Characteristics: The overall appearance and physical attributes of the textbook.

9. Appropriacy: The suitability of the content for the learners' levels, needs analysis, teaching context, and so on.

10. Authenticity: The incorporation of authentic materials and tasks within the textbook.

11. Sufficiency: The adequacy of the textbook in aiding teachers with lesson preparation and supporting effective teaching.

12. Cultural Bias: The exclusion of content that could lead to cultural misunderstandings and misinterpretations.

13. Educational Validity: The relevance of the textbook to current educational issues.

14. Stimulus/Practice/Revision: The textbook's ability to provide adequate stimulation or feedback to learners.

15. Flexibility: The adaptability of the textbook to be modified based on local contexts.

16. Guidance: Comprehensive instructions for teachers and students on how to use the textbook.

17. Overall Value for Money: The relationship between the quality provided and the cost that consumers are required to pay.

These elements may be fully applicable in certain teaching contexts while not in others.

For example, a structural syllabus might not emphasize authenticity in its evaluation since it does not focus on authentic communicative content.

The criteria proposed in the four papers can be categorized into four main features: pedagogy, language use, technical aspects, and culture. Pedagogy involves the application of pedagogical theories in designing textbooks, including methodology, stimulation, practice, and procedures. Language use pertains to specific language elements, such as objectives, selection/grading, and authenticity. Technical aspects refer to the presentation of the textbooks outside of pedagogical and language considerations, including layout/graphics, accessibility, and sufficiency. Lastly, culture encompasses the inclusion of cultural elements in the textbooks, such as cultural bias and the socio-cultural environment.

Experts are divided into two primary camps concerning textbook-based teaching. Supporters argue that textbooks organize material in a user-friendly manner and assist teachers in lesson preparation. Conversely, critics believe that textbooks relieve teachers of the responsibility to adapt teaching materials to specific contexts. This debate highlights the need for evaluating textbooks to identify the most suitable options for particular teaching environments. The four papers reviewed in this article present various approaches to textbook evaluation. At least three methods are suggested: a checklist of criteria, a matching process, and the analysis of quantitative or qualitative data. These methods can be applied depending on the type of evaluation conducted. While numerous criteria are proposed, they can be grouped into four main categories: pedagogy, language use, technical aspects, and culture.

Using and Evaluating Textbooks in Teaching Methods

Textbooks play a crucial role in education, providing structured content and resources for both teachers and students. However, their effectiveness can vary significantly based on how they are used and evaluated. Below are key considerations regarding the use and evaluation of textbooks in teaching methods.

Using Textbooks in Teaching Methods

1. **Structured Learning:** Textbooks offer a clear framework for lesson planning and delivery. They can guide teachers on pacing, objectives, and assessments.

2. **Resource for Students:** Textbooks serve as a primary resource for students, offering explanations, examples, and exercises that can reinforce learning.

3. **Supplementary Materials:** Teachers can use textbooks in conjunction with other resources, such as digital content, videos, and hands-on activities, to enhance understanding and engagement.

Evaluating Textbooks

1. Criteria for Evaluation:

- **Pedagogical Appropriateness:** Assess whether the textbook aligns with educational goals and teaching strategies. Does it support various learning styles?

- **Language Use:** Evaluate the clarity and accessibility of the language. Is it appropriate for the target audience's reading level?

- **Technical Quality:** Consider the design, layout, and visual elements. Are they engaging and conducive to learning?

- **Cultural Relevance:** Ensure the content reflects diverse perspectives and is inclusive of different cultures and viewpoints.

2. Evaluation Methods:

- **Checklists:** Develop a checklist of essential criteria to systematically evaluate textbooks. This can help in making objective assessments.

- **Focus Groups:** Involve teachers and students in discussions about the textbooks to gather qualitative insights into their effectiveness and relevance.

- **Comparative Analysis:** Compare multiple textbooks to identify strengths and weaknesses, helping to determine the best fit for a specific teaching context.

3. **Continuous Review:** Textbook evaluation should be an ongoing process. Regularly reassessing textbooks ensures they remain relevant and

effective as educational needs evolve.

Effectively using and evaluating textbooks in teaching methods requires a thoughtful approach that considers pedagogical goals, the needs of students, and the evolving landscape of education. By carefully selecting and assessing textbooks, educators can enhance the learning experience and better support student achievement.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What are the key criteria for evaluating language textbooks?
2. How can teachers determine the suitability of a textbook for their specific learner group?
3. What role do textbooks play in the language learning process?
4. How can textbooks be adapted to meet the diverse needs of learners?
5. What are the advantages and disadvantages of using textbooks in language instruction?
6. How can teachers supplement textbooks to enhance learning outcomes?

Activities



1. Textbook Evaluation Project:

Objective: Analyze and evaluate a chosen language textbook.

Instructions: Students will select a language textbook and assess it based on specific criteria (e.g., content relevance, cultural representation, engagement). They will present their findings in a report or presentation.

2. Lesson Planning with Textbooks:

Objective: Develop skills in lesson planning using textbooks.

Instructions: In pairs, students will design a lesson plan utilizing a specific chapter or unit from a textbook. They should consider learner objectives, activities, and assessments.

3. Comparative Analysis:

Objective: Compare different textbooks.

Instructions: Students will select two or more textbooks for the same language level and compare their approaches, content, and methodologies. They will present their comparisons to the class.

4. Supplementing Textbook Content:

Objective: Develop creative teaching strategies.

Instructions: Ask students to identify gaps in their selected textbooks and create supplementary materials or activities that enhance learning for those topics.

5. Group Discussion on Textbook Use:

Objective: Reflect on personal experiences with textbooks.

Instructions: Facilitate a discussion where students share their experiences using different textbooks, focusing on what worked well and what could be improved.

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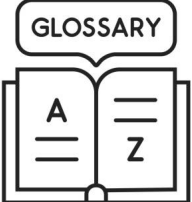
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THEME №7. USING AUTHENTIC MATERIALS IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

7-mavzu: EFL sinfda tarqatma materiallardan foydalanish

Ushbu mashg'ulot davomida tarqatma materiallar, og'zaki nazorat, test, ma'ruza, munozara, muammoli topshiriqlar, loyihaviy topshiriqlar, rolli o'yinlar tavsiflanadi.

	Og'zaki nazorat – Oral assessment: A method of evaluating students' knowledge and understanding through spoken responses, typically involving discussions, presentations, or question-and-answer sessions.
Test – Test:	A standardized assessment tool used to measure students' knowledge, skills, or understanding of specific subjects or topics, often in the form of multiple-choice, true/false, or open-ended questions.

Ma'ruza – Lecture:	A formal presentation given by an instructor to convey information, concepts, and ideas to students. Lectures are often structured and may include visual aids, discussions, or interactive elements.
Munozara – Debate:	A structured discussion where students present arguments for or against a specific topic, encouraging critical thinking, public speaking skills, and the ability to articulate and defend positions.
Muammoli topshiriqlar – Problem-based tasks:	Assignments designed to engage students in solving real-world problems or challenges, promoting critical thinking, collaboration, and practical application of knowledge.
Loyihaviy topshiriqlar – Project-based assignments:	Tasks that require students to work on a specific project over a period of time, integrating various skills and knowledge areas to create a final product, presentation, or report.
Rolli o'yinlar – Role-playing games:	Interactive activities where students assume specific roles and act out scenarios to explore concepts, practice language skills, or develop social and interpersonal skills. Role-playing encourages engagement and deeper understanding of subject matter through experiential learning.

Lecture



Teachers need to provide authentic materials and interactive activities to capture learners' attention and foster a communicative classroom environment. Additionally, they must balance managing time and covering the curriculum's required content. This dilemma poses a significant challenge for English teachers during the teaching and learning process.

Kilickaya (2004) defines authentic materials as "exposure to real language used within its native community." Today, preparing students for real-world situations is a top priority for English language teachers, particularly in EFL classrooms. Exposing students to such language forms equips them to handle genuine interactions both inside and outside the classroom. When authentic materials are used for learning, students gain the sense that they are acquiring real communication skills, rather than just classroom-based language.

Unlike textbook content, authentic materials are naturally more engaging, dynamic, and stimulating (Lee, 1995; Little, Devitt & Singleton, 1988; Peacock, 1997; Shei, 2001). Freeman (2000) emphasizes that a key feature of the communicative language teaching approach is the use of authentic materials. This approach shifts the perspective of syllabus designers, seeing English not just as another subject to be learned, but as a vital communication tool both within and beyond the classroom. Therefore, syllabus designers are encouraged to consider students' needs and offer opportunities for them to use the learned language in real-life situations. In summary, authentic materials are designed to address students' needs and adapt to real-world contexts.

To enhance language learning and teaching practices in real-life situations and meet the social needs of the community, using an authentic textbook is crucial. Rogers and Medley describe authentic materials as "language samples that exhibit a natural form and are appropriate to the

cultural and situational context as they would be found in native speakers' usage."

According to Ur, students often struggle to understand texts outside the classroom because classroom reading materials don't reflect real-world language. She emphasizes, "We want our learners to be able to handle the same types of reading encountered by native speakers of the target language" (Ur, 1996). Berardo identifies three criteria for selecting authentic texts: content suitability, exploitability, and readability (Berardo, 2006). Content suitability means the text should engage students and align with their needs and abilities. Bacon and Finneman add that texts should also be culturally relevant to the students' experiences (Bacon & Finneman, 1990). Similarly, Lee stresses that "a careful and thoughtful selection of learner-focused materials is essential if we want a positive response from students" (Lee, 1995). Exploitability refers to how a text can be used to enhance students' competence and serve teaching objectives.

Types of Authentic Materials: Teaching materials play a crucial role in learning and teaching a foreign language. Nowadays, resources for teaching materials are widely accessible to everyone, with the internet being a key and abundant source for authentic materials. Genhard (1996) categorized authentic materials into three types:

1. *Authentic listening materials*, such as radio news, cartoons, and songs.
2. *Authentic visual materials*, including street signs, magazines, newspaper images, and postcards.
3. *Authentic printed materials*, such as sports reports, newspapers, restaurant menus, and train tickets.

The Use of Authentic Materials in the EFL Classroom: Using inappropriate teaching materials can lead to difficulties for learners in acquiring a foreign language. Learners need motivation to succeed in language learning, so teaching materials must be engaging and stimulating.

If materials fail to capture interest and motivate students, little learning will occur. Many researchers advocate for the use of authentic materials (AM) to enhance learning. Richards (2001) outlines several reasons for incorporating authentic materials in the classroom: (1) they prepare learners for real-life situations, (2) they address learners' needs, (3) they positively impact learners' motivation, (4) they encourage teachers to adopt effective teaching methods, and (5) they provide authentic cultural information.

Authentic materials help learners understand the connection between classroom language and real-world usage. Genhard (1996) adds that authentic materials "contextualize" language learning, bridging the gap between the language taught in the classroom and the language used by real people in everyday situations.

At its most basic level, this approach involves asking questions during lectures that encourage students to apply the concepts and principles being taught. While many instructors believe their students ask questions during class, some college professors allocate only a limited amount of class time to asking students questions. Typically, these questions tend to focus on lower cognitive levels, seeking only summaries, clarifications, or factual answers. As a result, only a small number of students often participate in responding.

To increase the variety of students engaging in a given class period, instructors can try several strategies. One effective method is to alter the way questions are posed. Regularly calling on students is a traditional technique used to assess who understands the material and who is paying attention. However, this can intimidate some students, leading to "freezing" when faced with unexpected questions. To ease this, instructors can encourage students to quickly jot down their responses in their notes when a question is asked. Allowing a pause of 15 to 30 seconds before calling on someone to answer can also be beneficial, with the pause duration adjusted according to the complexity of the expected response.

Another effective strategy is to pose “thinking” questions or problems at the end of a class, informing students that the next class will begin with calls for responses to those items. Lastly, narrowing the focus to a specific area of the classroom and waiting for a volunteer to respond can create a sense of “pressure” for someone in that area to engage.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions!

1. What are authentic materials, and how do they differ from traditional teaching materials?
2. What are the advantages of using authentic materials in EFL teaching?
3. How can authentic materials enhance students' listening and speaking skills?
4. What types of authentic materials can be used in the EFL classroom?
5. How can teachers select appropriate authentic materials for their students' proficiency levels?
6. What role do cultural contexts play when using authentic materials?
7. How can authentic materials help bridge the gap between classroom learning and real-world language use?
8. What strategies can teachers use to incorporate authentic materials into their lesson plans?
9. How can authentic materials be adapted for students with varying language abilities?
10. What challenges might teachers face when using authentic materials in the classroom?
11. How can students' motivation be affected by the use of authentic materials?

12. In what ways can authentic materials be integrated with technology?

13. What assessment methods can be employed to evaluate the effectiveness of authentic materials?

14. How can feedback from students inform the selection and use of authentic materials?

Activities



1. Material Collection:

Objective: Create a diverse collection of authentic materials.

Instructions: Students will gather various authentic materials (e.g., articles, videos, songs, advertisements) relevant to a specific topic or theme. They will present their findings and explain how each material can be used in a lesson.

2. Role-Play Activity:

Objective: Practice real-life communication using authentic materials.

Instructions: Students will work in pairs or small groups to create role-play scenarios based on authentic materials (e.g., dialogues from movies, customer service interactions). They will perform their scenarios for the class.

3. Listening Comprehension Exercise:

Objective: Develop listening skills using authentic audio materials.

Instructions: Select an authentic podcast or news segment for students to listen to. Afterward, conduct a comprehension check with questions and discussions related to the content.

4. Cultural Exploration Project:

Objective: Understand cultural contexts through authentic materials.

Instructions: Assign students different countries or cultures to research. They will find authentic materials related to those cultures (e.g., recipes, festivals, news articles) and present their findings to the class.

5. Creating Learning Activities:

Objective: Design engaging activities based on authentic materials.

Instructions: Students will choose an authentic material and create a set of learning activities (e.g., vocabulary exercises, discussion prompts) that can be used in a lesson. They will share their activities with classmates for feedback.

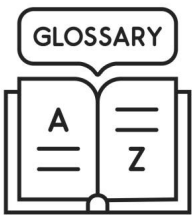
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THEME №8. NEEDS ANALYSIS.TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPESIFIC PURPOSE

8-mavzu: Tahlillar zaruriyati. Maqsadga yo‘naltirilgan ingliz tilini o‘rgatish

Ushbu mashg‘ulot davomida o‘quv rejasi, materiallar ishlanmasi, baholash, murabbiylarni tayyorlash, har bir yo‘nalish uchun asosiy tamoyil hisoblanuvchi standartlari haqida ma’lumot beriladi.

 O‘qitish rejasi – Teaching plan:	A structured outline that details the objectives, content, teaching methods, and assessment strategies for a specific course or lesson. It serves as a roadmap for educators to effectively deliver instruction and achieve learning outcomes.
Materiallar ishlanmasi – Development of materials:	The process of creating, designing, or adapting educational resources and materials for use in teaching and learning. This can include textbooks, worksheets, multimedia resources, and other instructional aids.
Baholash – Assessment:	The systematic process of evaluating students' knowledge, skills, and understanding through various methods, including tests, assignments, and projects. Assessment informs both educators and students about progress and areas for improvement.

Har bir yo'nalish uchun asosiy tamoyil hisoblanuvchi standartlar –	Key principles considered as standards for each field/area: Refers to the essential guidelines and criteria that define quality and expectations in various educational disciplines. These standards serve as benchmarks for curriculum development, teaching practices, and student assessment within specific fields.
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Lecture



Needs analysis is a process employed by organizations to identify deficiencies or issues within the organization and determine their root causes in order to implement the most suitable solutions. This approach offers various advantages, including enhancing employee performance, uncovering new opportunities, increasing revenue, and better meeting the needs of the target audience. Initially, needs analysis was specifically applied to enhance English teaching methods in schools. Today, businesses in various sectors consistently utilize and benefit from this analysis.

All companies encounter obstacles in their processes that hinder their progress toward achieving goals. The distinction between successful businesses and unproductive ones lies in how they identify underlying issues and formulate effective strategies for success. Here are some key reasons why conducting a needs assessment is essential:

1. ****Enhances decision-making**** – This process involves outlining all factors contributing to deficiencies or failures within the organization. Utilizing insightful analytics enables you to draw clear and rational conclusions that inform improved decision-making.

2. ****Prioritizes issues**** – Organizations face numerous challenges, and attempting to address all of them simultaneously can be both time-

consuming and costly. A business needs analysis helps managers prioritize these challenges, allowing them to tackle the most urgent ones first.

3. ****Improves performance**** – Organizational challenges often stem from a lack of knowledge and skills. This assessment highlights team members who may be struggling and identifies the specific training or further education required for them to become more effective in their roles.

4. ****Improves workflows**** – An organizational needs analysis can identify areas of operational deficiency or outdated equipment. By implementing targeted interventions, work efficiency can be restored or enhanced.

5 ****Promotes a proactive culture**** – When conducted regularly, this practice encourages a forward-thinking mindset. Employees are empowered to take initiative rather than merely reacting to problems, benefiting the entire organization.

6****Boosts customer satisfaction and revenue**** – Understanding your target audience better allows you to serve them more effectively, leading to increased customer satisfaction and higher revenues.

Regardless of whether you operate a small start-up or a large corporation, assessing and understanding the needs of your organization and its stakeholders is essential. Recognizing these requirements enables businesses to maximize their benefits. Below are the types of needs analysis that companies should take into account:

1. ****Training or Learning**** – This is perhaps the most prevalent type of needs analysis, focusing on employees. By comparing job descriptions with performance data, managers can identify the skills and knowledge their staff need to perform their jobs effectively.

2. ****Performance**** – This analysis measures the gap between current performance levels and expected outcomes in service delivery, product creation, or task execution within the organization.

3****Compliance**** – Commonly applied in heavily regulated sectors such as healthcare and finance, this analysis assesses the organization's

adherence to industry standards and government regulations. It includes reviewing policies, standard operating procedures, and conducting audits.

4. ****Organizational**** – This form of needs analysis assesses the organization in its entirety, focusing on enhancing resource management and daily operations. It considers aspects such as the structure, culture, assets, and existing workflows.

5. ****Financial**** – In this type of analysis, businesses aim to identify ways to cut costs, boost revenues, and find investment opportunities. Managers evaluate financial statements, analyze market trends, and conduct customer surveys to inform their needs analysis.

Different organizations employ unique methodologies to identify and assess their needs. Below are key questions for needs analysis that should be considered during this process, along with best practices for each step to ensure effective outcomes.

This step defines the purpose and scope of the evaluation, allowing company managers to establish improvement goals.

Best Practice: Attention to detail is crucial; therefore, company leaders should clearly articulate the purpose and outline the activity's scope. Additionally, objectives should be well-defined and attainable to ensure that stakeholders feel valued when they achieve them.

Conducting a needs analysis is crucial because it enables organizations to proactively address urgent issues before they escalate into significant problems. Although it can be a labor-intensive process that requires substantial time and effort from the company, securing adequate support is essential. SafetyCulture (formerly iAuditor) is a reliable partner in this endeavor.

- Digitize data and automate workflows to pinpoint gaps in training or processes.

- Collect relevant data during meetings and inspections to identify deficiencies.

- Analyze and characterize issues, using analytics for informed decision-making and assigning preventive or corrective measures.

- Offer training or courses as needed.
- Document the entire process with media attachments and generate appropriate reports.
- Monitor employee progress and continuously oversee operations to ensure that the implemented solutions are effective.

The primary distinction is found in the learners themselves and their reasons for studying English. ESP (English for Specific Purposes) students are typically adults with some prior knowledge of English who are learning the language to communicate specific professional skills and carry out job-related tasks. Consequently, an ESP program is designed based on an evaluation of the learners' objectives and needs, as well as the specific functions for which English is necessary.

ESP (English for Specific Purposes) emphasizes language in context rather than focusing solely on grammar and language structures. It encompasses a wide range of topics, including accounting, computer science, tourism, and business management. The key aspect of ESP is that English is not taught as an isolated subject; instead, it is integrated into relevant subject areas that are significant to the learners and their aspirations.

ESL and ESP differ not only in the characteristics of the learners but also in their instructional objectives. Generally, ESL emphasizes all four language skills—listening, reading, speaking, and writing—equally. In contrast, ESP relies on a needs analysis to identify which language skills are most relevant for the students, and the syllabus is tailored accordingly. For instance, an ESP program may focus on enhancing reading skills for students preparing for graduate studies in business administration or prioritize speaking skills for those studying English to become tourist guides.

ESP effectively integrates subject matter with English language instruction. This combination is highly motivating for students, as they can directly apply what they learn in English classes to their primary fields of study, such as accounting, business management, economics, computer science, or tourism.

Utilizing vocabulary and structures in a meaningful context not only reinforces the material taught but also boosts their motivation.

Students' expertise in their subject areas enhances their ability to learn English. Knowledge of the subject provides the necessary context for them to comprehend classroom English. In ESP classes, students learn how the content of their field is communicated in English. This allows teachers to leverage the students' existing knowledge, facilitating a quicker acquisition of the language.

The term "specific" in ESP highlights the particular purpose behind learning English. Students engage with English through familiar fields that are relevant to them, enabling immediate application of what they learn in their work and studies. This approach increases the relevance of their learning and allows them to use their existing English skills to further enhance their language abilities, driven by their interest in their field, which encourages interaction with speakers and texts.

ESP focuses on assessing needs while combining motivation, subject matter, and content to teach essential skills.

An educator with experience in teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) can leverage her background in language instruction. She should identify how her teaching abilities can be modified for English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Additionally, she will need to collaborate with content specialists to create suitable lessons tailored to the subject matter she is teaching.

As an ESP instructor, you will need to take on various responsibilities. This may include organizing courses, setting learning objectives, fostering a positive classroom environment, and assessing students' progress.

Individuals learn languages when they have the chance to engage with and understand the language within a context that is meaningful and interesting to them. From this perspective, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) offers significant opportunities for such engagement.

Students will learn English by working with materials that they find relevant and can apply to their professional roles or further studies. The more learners concentrate on the meaning of the language they hear or

read, the more successful they will be; conversely, if they focus excessively on isolated language structures or linguistic input, their motivation to participate in class diminishes.

ESP students are particularly inclined to focus on meaning within their specific subject areas. In ESP, English should not be taught as a separate subject, nor as a mechanical skill to be developed in isolation. Instead, it should be presented in authentic contexts that familiarize learners with the specific ways the language is used in functions relevant to their fields of expertise or professions.

Adults generally need to exert more effort than children to learn a new language, but the skills they possess enable them to learn more quickly and effectively. Their existing abilities in their native languages can facilitate the process of learning English. Even though you may be working with students who have limited proficiency in English, the language learning potential of adults in an ESP classroom is significant. Educated adults are continually acquiring new language skills in their native tongues, as language learning is a lifelong process. They consistently broaden their vocabulary, enhance their fluency in specific fields, and adapt their linguistic behavior to various situations or roles. ESP students can leverage these inherent skills to learn English more effectively.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What is needs analysis, and why is it important in ESP?
2. How can needs analysis inform curriculum design for ESP courses?
3. What methods can be used to conduct a needs analysis?
4. How do learners' professional backgrounds influence their language learning needs?
5. What role does learner autonomy play in needs analysis for ESP?

6. How can stakeholders (e.g., employers, industry experts) contribute to the needs analysis process?

7. What are the differences between target needs and learning needs in ESP?

8. How can teachers assess the language proficiency of learners in relation to their specific purposes?

9. What challenges might arise during the needs analysis process in ESP?

10. How can authentic materials be utilized in the needs analysis phase?

11. What is the significance of continuous needs assessment in ESP?

12. How can technology facilitate the needs analysis process?

13. In what ways can feedback from learners impact the ongoing needs analysis?

14. How does cultural context affect the needs analysis in ESP?

15. What are the ethical considerations when conducting a needs analysis?

Activities



1. Conducting a Survey:

Objective: Gather data on learners' specific language needs.

Instructions: Create a survey for learners to identify their professional language requirements and preferences. Analyze the results as a class to discuss common themes and specific needs.

2. Focus Group Discussion:

Objective: Gather qualitative data on learner needs.

Instructions: Organize a focus group with a small group of learners from various professional backgrounds. Discuss their expectations and needs regarding English language use in their fields.

3. Case Study Analysis:

Objective: Understand real-world applications of needs analysis.

Instructions: Review case studies of successful ESP programs. Identify how needs analysis was conducted and its impact on the course design. Present findings to the class.

4. Role-Playing Activity:

Objective: Simulate professional situations where specific language skills are required.

Instructions: In pairs, students role-play scenarios relevant to their fields (e.g., business meetings, technical presentations). Reflect on the language skills needed and discuss how those needs can be addressed in an ESP course.

5. Creating a Needs Analysis Plan:

Objective: Design a comprehensive needs analysis for an ESP course.

Instructions: In groups, students will outline a plan for conducting a needs analysis for a specific field (e.g., medical, engineering, business). Include methods, potential stakeholders, and objectives.

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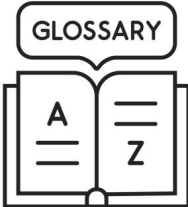
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THEME №9. SYLLABUS AND CURRICULUM DESIGN FOR SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

9-mavzu: Ikkinchi tilni o'qitish uchun o'quv rejasi va o'quv rejasi

Ushbu mashg'ulot davomida mavzuga asoslangan dizayn, o'quvchilar uchun mo'ljallangan dizayn, muammolarga asoslanuvchi dizayn haqida ma'lumot beriladi.

 Mavzuga asoslangan dizayn – Theme-based design:	An instructional design approach that organizes the curriculum around a central theme or topic. This method integrates various subjects and activities, allowing students to explore a theme from multiple perspectives, fostering deeper understanding and engagement.
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O'quchilar uchun mo'ljallangan dizayn – Learner-centered design:	A pedagogical approach that prioritizes the needs, interests, and learning styles of students in the educational process. This design emphasizes active participation, collaboration, and personalized learning experiences tailored to the unique characteristics of each learner.
Muammolarga asoslangan dizayn – Problem-based design:	An educational framework that focuses on engaging students in solving real-world problems or challenges. This approach encourages critical thinking, inquiry, and collaboration, allowing students to apply their knowledge and skills in meaningful contexts while developing problem-solving abilities.
Mavzuga asoslangan dizayn – Theme-based design:	An instructional design approach that organizes the curriculum around a central theme or topic. This method integrates various subjects and activities, allowing students to explore a theme from multiple perspectives, fostering deeper understanding and engagement.

Lecture



Curriculum design approaches in Second Language Acquisition have evolved in response to changes in theoretical perspectives regarding language, language teaching, and learning. In his influential 2013 paper, Jack C. Richards introduced three key terms: Forward, Central, and Backward, along with their theoretical foundations. These concepts stem from the traditional approach to curriculum development, with the theoretical basis rooted in Wiggins and McTighe's definition of curriculum. The choice of the most suitable approach depends on how the boundaries of a specific teaching and learning context are defined. According to Richards (2013), each of these three designs carries "different implications" (p. 5) for the curriculum design process. In this essay, I will explore the fundamental characteristics of these three designs and their effects on a second language program.

To grasp the three designs, it is important to clarify the terms input, process, and output (Richards, 2013). Input refers to the linguistic material included in a course, process pertains to the methods used for teaching, and output denotes the learning outcomes—what learners are capable of doing after a period of instruction.

In Forward design, the underlying assumption is that a language can be effectively taught by focusing on the specific linguistic elements relevant to the teaching context. Consequently, content is chosen and presented in "teachable and learnable units" (Richards, 2013).

In this approach, the designer can also determine which level of language (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics) should be prioritized. For instance, in vocational programs focused on English for specific purposes, emphasis may be placed on morphological, semantic, or pragmatic aspects. Conversely, in a program aimed at developing oral proficiency, language functions or semantics and pragmatics may take precedence in the selection of input. According to Richards (2013), this design follows a linear progression from input to process to output.

When deciding on methodology, the designer must consider their stance on language theory and learning theory, which will inform the pedagogical approach. For example, a linguistic syllabus could be taught using either the Audiolingual method or the Grammar Translation method. Learning outcomes are influenced by the choices made in the pedagogical process. For instance, the choice between summative and formative assessments depends on norm referencing. This includes selecting a lesson topic, choosing resources, determining instructional methods, and creating essay questions to evaluate students' understanding of the material. Two examples of forward design approaches in language teaching are Communicative Language Teaching and Content-Based Instruction.

Implementing the forward approach necessitates the expertise of syllabus designers, language teaching pedagogues, and assessment creators. Misalignment during various stages is more significant because these professionals come from different discourse traditions, educational backgrounds, and philosophical perspectives. The Central Design approach emerged from research findings regarding teacher practices, indicating that teachers typically begin by considering the activities and teaching methods they will utilize (Richards, 2013:14). This design posits that the exercises and activities within classroom pedagogical processes will effectively support the development of successful learning outcomes. Consequently, the teaching process must include specific tasks, linguistic input, and types of activities that correspond to the different stages of the lesson, through which the desired outcomes are defined.

This design embraces the concept of teachers as reflective practitioners who respond to the various contextual demands of learning and teaching. According to Richards (2013), this approach is described as "learner-focused and learning-oriented" (Leung, 2012). He further explains that central design aligns with the principles of progressivism, emphasizing methodological principles and procedures, the learning process, and their importance in teaching. In this model, learners are viewed as active participants in their education (2013:15).

Additionally, the teacher's autonomy and role as a curriculum creator are acknowledged within central design, making it a pedagogy-driven approach.

For example, when teaching a specific grammar point, the approach is selected from various grammar methodologies—such as Focus-on-Form, Three-Dimensional, Corpus-Based, or Consciousness-Raising—and activities are designed accordingly, often without a clear specification of outcomes. According to Richards (2013), central design reflects features of Clark's description of progressivism. He elaborates that it begins with “process” and cites methods like the Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrel, 1983), Silent Way (Gattegno, 1972), Counseling Learning (Curran, 1980s), Task-Based Language Teaching (Willis, 1996), Dogme (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009), Post-Method Teaching (Kumaravadivelu, 1994), and the Ecological Classroom (Van Lier, 2007) as examples. In implementing central design, learning is viewed as a dynamic process that emphasizes interaction and participation within the context, considering the constant interaction among elements of the teaching process—content, outcomes, and assessment—as essential.

The term Backward Design refers to the approach of creating instructional processes and materials by first defining the desired learning outcomes (Richards, 2013). He notes that this concept is supported by curriculum definitions from Taba (1962) and Tyler (1949), which describe it as an "end-means" approach to curriculum design (pg. 20). Furthermore, Richards argues that in language teaching, defining the desired outcomes before determining the content can facilitate a more effective pathway for developing the necessary means.

In this approach, the choice of methodology is based on determining the most suitable method for instruction, with assessments being criterion-referenced. Recently developed approaches to language teaching, such as Task-Based and Competency-Based Language Teaching, utilize this method in their curriculum design.

Consequently, learning outcome standards are established by international organizations like the CEFR, which can be incorporated into

the decision-making process from the outset. The assessment targets and qualifications are then defined in terms of the outcome framework.

A syllabus can be described as a structured plan aimed at achieving the objectives of a specific learning program through the careful selection and organization of content with academic input. In the process of designing a language teaching syllabus, it is important to acknowledge the socio-political and individual learner-related boundaries that differ based on contextual factors. Since the syllabus addresses the "what" and "how" of the teaching program, choosing the right syllabus approach is essential.

Language syllabus approaches generally differ based on their philosophical and theoretical foundations concerning the theory of language, language acquisition, and teaching. Traditionally, product-based approaches (such as structural and functional models) were the standard for language syllabuses. However, recent research in language teaching, along with the post-method era, has led to the emergence of cognitive theories and social constructivist perspectives, resulting in a shift toward process models in modern approaches.

Upon close examination, these models can be seen as "polarized versions" (my interpretation) of a single activity. O'Neil, referencing Neary (2003), describes these models as one that emphasizes "plans and intentions" (the product model) and another that highlights "activities and effects" (the process model). The product approach centers on learning through predefined outcomes based on content, where the final learning result is viewed as an accumulation of systematically organized knowledge transmitted from the teacher to the learner. This approach does not take into account the learning processes or pedagogical methods, leading to its characterization as strict, rigid, and linear. It is more focused on knowledge acquisition, with the goal being the reconstruction of knowledge. In contrast, findings from psychological learning theories and research on language acquisition recognize learning as a process and emphasize the cognitive and social dimensions of language learning. Thus, the two designs can be illustrated as follows.

The preceding discussion indicates that both types of syllabi can be applied in language teaching syllabus design (Annexure 1). However, the choice between them largely relies on the contextual factors associated with the learning environment.

First, the socio-political context of language teaching influences the choice of syllabus type. Skill priorities vary based on this context, affecting the selection process. For instance, when developing writing skills, a product-oriented syllabus may be suitable since the final output relies on acquired structural knowledge of morphology and syntax. While speaking can be seen as a behavioral outcome, it can be cultivated using a process-oriented approach. Similarly, reading and listening skills can also be developed through a process model. Given that learner levels differ, the process model should accommodate these variations in application. Ideally, both models could be integrated in a teaching situation, but whether teachers can achieve this balance in a formal syllabus remains a debated issue. The modern humanistic and constructivist paradigms allow for such procedural aspects in syllabus design, at least at the pedagogical level. Ultimately, the rationale for selection should stem from eclectic or reflective practices rather than being limited to one syllabus type. Finally, the effectiveness of the teacher and their understanding of language and pedagogy are crucial factors in this decision.

Curriculum encompasses all the activities children participate in within the school environment. It includes not only what students learn but also how they learn it, the ways teachers assist them in the learning process, the supporting materials used, the teaching styles and assessment methods applied, and the facilities in which learning takes place. Additionally, the curriculum serves as a theoretical framework that outlines the program of studies within an educational system or institution.

The origins of language curriculum development can be traced back to syllabus development, commonly referred to as syllabus design.

The language curriculum used today has evolved from a long quest for more effective language teaching methods. These methods are always grounded in specific theories of language and language learning, which in

turn influence syllabus design by determining what content to teach and how to teach it. When a language teaching method is implemented, it prompts changes in syllabus design. Over time, there has been a transition from syllabus design to a curriculum approach in language curriculum development. In Indonesia, the language curricula, such as the English curriculum in Curriculum 2013, the International Baccalaureate (IB Curriculum), and the Cambridge IGCSE Curriculum, reflect this evolution.

Furthermore, these methods necessitate specific syllabus designs, resulting in changes to the content specifications and the roles of teachers, students, and materials. The module also examines the various syllabus designs that have emerged throughout the history of language teaching, discussing the context of their development and their contributions to curriculum advancement. Finally, it outlines the shift from syllabus design to a curriculum approach in the evolution of language curriculum.

By the end of this module, students should be able to explain the origins of language curriculum and syllabus development (Basic Competence-1). With this knowledge, students will gain a greater appreciation for the evolution of syllabi, which will boost their confidence when implementing a specific syllabus in their classrooms. They will develop a deep understanding of how the current language curriculum they are using has come to be.

To attain this competence, students should thoroughly study the module to grasp its main ideas. They can also enhance their understanding by exploring the references provided in the module. Additionally, the module includes links to language teaching methods discussed within it. Engaging with these links will further enrich their knowledge and provide a clearer understanding of how each syllabus design is applied in practice.

To initiate a discussion on these two concepts, we should consider guiding questions such as: 1) What is curriculum? 2) What is syllabus? 3) Is curriculum development the same as syllabus design?

In response to question 1, we can refer to the definition provided by Richards,

Platt, and Platt (1993), who describe curriculum as an educational program that outlines “the educational purpose of the program (the ends); the content of teaching procedures and learning experiences necessary to achieve this purpose (the means); and methods for assessing whether the educational ends have been achieved” (p. 94).

Question 2 can be addressed by examining the definition of a syllabus. According to Ur (1998), a syllabus is a document that essentially consists of a list, specifying everything that will be taught in the course. Similarly, Richards (2001) describes a syllabus as “a specification of the content of a course of instruction that outlines what will be taught and assessed”.

It is now evident that curriculum and syllabus are distinct concepts. A syllabus is a component of the curriculum, meaning that the curriculum encompasses the syllabus, rather than the other way around. One curriculum may contain multiple syllabuses. For instance, a program such as a Bachelor's degree in the English Department might encompass the full 144 credits a student is required to complete. Within that program, certain parts could represent the syllabus for a language program. Another example is a language program offered at institutions like LBPP LIA, EF, or TBI, each of which has its own comprehensive language curriculum.

Grasping the definitions of curriculum and syllabus can serve as a foundation for understanding the evolution of syllabus design in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and how it has contributed to the development of language curriculum, as seen in contemporary practices.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What is the difference between a syllabus and a curriculum in second language teaching?
2. How can cultural considerations be integrated into syllabus design?
3. What role does assessment play in curriculum design for language teaching?

4. How can technology enhance syllabus and curriculum design in second language teaching?
5. What are the challenges faced by educators when designing a syllabus for diverse learner groups?
6. How can a needs analysis inform the curriculum design process?
7. What are the principles of effective lesson planning within a language curriculum?
8. How do pedagogical theories influence curriculum design in second language teaching?
9. What strategies can be employed to ensure that a syllabus remains flexible and adaptable?
10. How can stakeholders (e.g., teachers, learners, administrators) be involved in the syllabus design process?
11. What is the importance of continuity and progression in curriculum design for second language learners?
12. How can feedback from learners and teachers be used to improve syllabus and curriculum effectiveness?

Activities



1. Syllabus Comparison Exercise:

Objective: Analyze different types of syllabi.

Instructions: Provide students with examples of various syllabi (e.g., grammatical, functional, task-based). In groups, have them compare and contrast the strengths and weaknesses of each type. Present findings to the class.

2. Curriculum Design Workshop:

Objective: Create a basic curriculum outline for a specific language course.

Instructions: In small groups, choose a target language and audience. Design a curriculum outline that includes goals, content areas, teaching methods, and assessment strategies.

3. Needs Analysis Discussion:

Objective: Understand the role of needs analysis in curriculum design.

Instructions: Conduct a class discussion on the importance of conducting a needs analysis before designing a syllabus. Have students share experiences or insights about learner needs in their contexts.

4. Stakeholder Engagement Role-Play:

Objective: Simulate the involvement of different stakeholders in syllabus design.

Instructions: Assign roles to students (e.g., teachers, learners, administrators) and have them participate in a mock meeting to discuss the development of a new syllabus. Encourage them to present their perspectives and needs.

5. Feedback and Revision Activity:

Objective: Emphasize the importance of continuous improvement in curriculum design.

Instructions: Have students draft a short syllabus based on a given context. Then, conduct peer reviews where they provide constructive feedback. Finally, ask them to revise their syllabus based on the feedback received.

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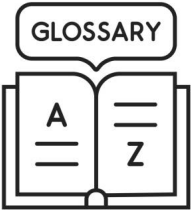
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THEME №10. ASSESSMENT CONCEPT AND ISSUES

10-mavzu: Baholash tushunchalari va masalalari

Ushbu mashg'ulot davomida joriy nazorat; oraliq nazorat, yakuniy nazorat, joriy nazorat, mavzularni o'zlashtirilish bo'yicha bilim, ko'nikma va malakalar darajasini aniqlash, baholash shakli haqida ma'lumot beriladi.

 Joriy nazorat – Current assessment:	A continuous evaluation method used throughout the learning process to monitor students' understanding, knowledge, and skills on an ongoing basis. This can include quizzes, class participation, and informal observations, allowing teachers to adjust instruction as needed.
Oraliq nazorat – Intermediate assessment:	A type of evaluation conducted at specific intervals during a course or program to measure students' progress and understanding of the material covered up to that point. It often serves as a checkpoint to identify areas for improvement before the final assessment.

Yakuniy nazorat – Final assessment:	The evaluation that takes place at the end of a course or program to measure the overall knowledge, skills, and competencies that students have acquired. This may include final exams, projects, or presentations that demonstrate their learning outcomes.
Mavzularni o'zlashtirish bo'yicha bilim, ko'nikma va malakalari darajasini aniqlash – Determining the level of knowledge, skills, and competencies acquired in relation to topics:	This refers to assessing how well students have grasped specific subject matter, including their theoretical knowledge, practical skills, and competencies related to the curriculum.
Baholash shakli – Form of assessment:	The method or approach used to evaluate students' learning and performance. This can include various types of assessments such as written tests, oral examinations, projects, peer evaluations, and self-assessments, each serving different purposes in the educational process.

Lecture



Assessment is the process of evaluating or estimating the degree or level of a specific attribute in an individual. In educational contexts, assessment is a continuous process that incorporates a variety of methodological approaches.

A *test* is a specific subset of assessment, representing a category of assessment techniques. Scientifically, a test is a way to gauge a person's knowledge, ability, or performance in a particular area.

A test functions primarily as a method; it is an instrument composed of techniques, procedures, or items that necessitate an active response from the test-taker. A test serves as a measurement, which can be defined as the process of quantifying a test-taker's performance based on clearly defined procedures or criteria.

In practice activities, teachers actively monitor students' performance, which may involve taking measurements, providing qualitative feedback, and offering strategic recommendations.

Such tests should feature fixed, predetermined responses that allow for quick scoring at minimal cost.

****Formative assessment**** evaluates students as they develop their competencies and skills, aiming to support their continued growth. Various informal assessments fall under this category.

****Summative assessment****, on the other hand, measures and summarizes what a student has learned, typically occurring at the conclusion of a course or instructional unit, such as final exams.

****Achievement tests**** are commonly used by classroom teachers to assess learners' abilities within a specific lesson, unit, or overall curriculum. These tests are focused on particular material covered in the curriculum during a set time frame and are administered after the course has addressed the relevant objectives.

****Informal assessments**** can take many forms, including spontaneous comments, unplanned responses, and impromptu feedback.

****Formal assessments**** are structured exercises or procedures intentionally created and systematically planned to provide both teachers and students with an evaluation of student achievement.

****Criterion-referenced tests**** aim to offer feedback to test-takers. These tests often require significant time and effort from teachers to provide valuable and appropriate feedback to students.

Assessment tools, whether they are formal tests or informal assessments, fulfill various purposes.

Classroom-based teacher-made tests can be utilized to identify difficulties or assess achievement in a specific unit of a course.

Students who need special attention or educational services are first identified through assessment procedures. These procedures can include informal methods like observation or error analysis, as well as formal methods such as achievement or intelligence tests. In essence, assessment helps identify children who need further evaluation.

Additionally, assessment is utilized to screen children deemed “high risk” for potential problems. While these children may not yet show deficiencies that require special education, their behaviors may indicate future issues. Early identification of these children allows for ongoing monitoring of problematic areas and the development of intervention programs if necessary to prevent issues from arising.

Thus, assessment for initial identification is aimed at recognizing individuals who may need more detailed evaluations or who might face future challenges. It also identifies individuals who could benefit from immediate remedial programs to help them manage any difficulties.

Evaluation of Teaching Programs and Strategies (Pre-Referral)

One key role of assessment is to identify suitable programs and strategies. This information can be utilized in four main ways.

First, before referring a student to a special education program, assessment helps regular teachers determine what to teach and the most effective teaching methods.

Second, it acts as a means of evaluating the effectiveness of specific teaching programs or strategies. Often, a formal referral for special education can be circumvented if assessment data is applied in this manner. For instance, assessment information can guide the development and evaluation of pre-referral intervention programs.

For example, if Student X is struggling academically due to numerous spelling errors, the regular teacher may first assess and analyze the student's work instead of immediately referring them to special education services, assuming a learning disability.

By implementing a remediation program based on the assessment findings, if the student demonstrates improvement, the need for further referral to special education can be eliminated.

Third, assessment can supply pre-referral information to substantiate the necessity for a formal referral when determining suitable programs and strategies. As mentioned earlier, if the pre-referral interventions do not resolve the spelling issue, a referral to special education programs becomes necessary.

Fourth, the information gathered during pre-referral interventions can be integrated into the Individual Education Program (IEP) for students who qualify for and eventually receive special education services.

Determining Current Performance Level and Educational Needs

Assessing a student's current performance level in various subjects or skills is crucial for identifying the need for a special education program. This information is beneficial for the teacher or evaluator.

- To determine the subject(s) or skill(s) requiring special support.
- To assess students' strengths and weaknesses.
- To choose suitable strategies and procedures.

Decision on Classification and Program Placement

Assessment data is utilized for classifying and placing students with special needs into suitable educational programs. Theoretically, individuals are categorized to highlight similarities and connections among their educational challenges and to create a common terminology for effective communication within the field (Taylor, 1993). Based on the assessment information, students are classified, and appropriate placement decisions are made. For instance, a 6-year-old child diagnosed with mental retardation would need to be placed in a special education program designed for children with that condition.

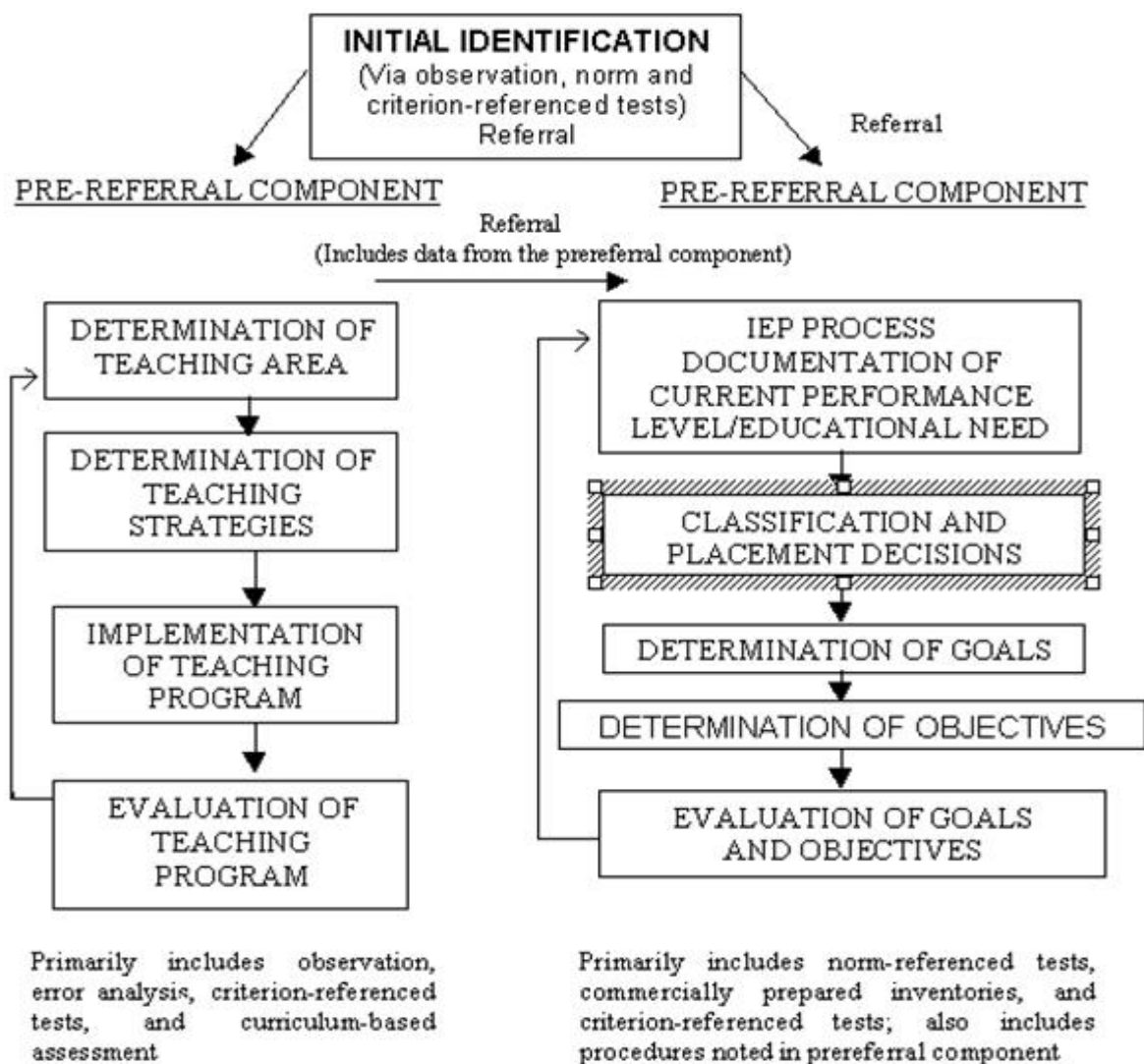
Development of the Individualized Educational Program

The primary application of assessment information is to establish the goals, objectives, and strategies for teaching children identified as having special educational needs.

Since each child's requirements are unique, it is essential to design an educational program tailored to those needs. A systematically organized individualized educational program serves as a blueprint for teachers to follow.

Evaluation of the Effectiveness of the Individualized Educational Program

The Individualized Educational Program (IEP) includes specified evaluation procedures alongside its goals, objectives, methods, and materials. These procedures require the teacher to regularly monitor the student's progress. This monitoring provides feedback—whether positive or negative—to both the teacher and the student. Depending on the nature of the feedback, the teacher may either maintain the current plan, continue with the same strategy, or opt for a new activity. For instance, if periodic evaluations indicate that the child is improving, the teacher will stick with the existing plan; however, if there is no progress, adjustments to the IEP may be necessary.



Assessment is a process through which information is gathered in relation to specific objectives or goals. It is a broad term that encompasses testing, with a test being a particular type of assessment conducted under controlled conditions for the purpose of administration. In essence, while all tests qualify as assessments, not all assessments are tests. Testing typically occurs at the conclusion of a lesson or unit.

The term "assessment" was first introduced in 1956 and is commonly used in educational contexts to signify the "determination of value." We evaluate progress at the end of the school year through tests and measure verbal and quantitative skills using tools like the SAT and GRE. Whether implied or explicit, assessment is most effective when linked to a specific goal or objective for which it is designed. A test or assessment provides information about the achievement of that goal. In this regard, we conduct assessments to determine if an objective has been met. Evaluating skill attainment is relatively straightforward; a skill either exists at an acceptable level or it does not, as skills can be easily demonstrated. Conversely, assessing understanding is more challenging and intricate.

Skills can be practiced, while understandings cannot. We can evaluate a person's knowledge through various methods, but there is always an element of inference regarding what their actions indicate about their understanding. In the section of this site dedicated to behavioral verbs, assessment is defined as the process of specifying the conditions under which the behavior described in an objective can be determined. These specifications are typically presented as written descriptions.

Evaluation

Evaluation is arguably the most complex and least clearly defined of these terms. Central to the concept of evaluation is the notion of "value." When we engage in evaluation, we are participating in a process aimed at providing information that will assist us in making a judgment about a particular situation.

Assessment is the process of gathering data to inform decision-making. It provides essential baseline information for interventions, while

evaluation focuses on assessing the outcomes of those interventions. In clinical practice, both assessment and evaluation methods are necessary.

The purposes of assessment include:

a. Identifying the condition based on specific criteria and determining if it constitutes a clinical entity that requires suitable mental health services and placement decisions.

b. Recognizing and addressing etiological and risk factors associated with intellectual disabilities (ID).

c. Identifying the needs related to the condition and developing a program plan to mitigate the impact of the disability.

d. Effectively aligning the nature and needs of the condition with the most appropriate available intervention methods.

e. Evaluating the effectiveness of the interventions.

Psychological assessments, or psychological tests, are verbal or written evaluations designed to assess a person's behavior. Various types of psychological tests aid in understanding different aspects of human nature, explaining why one person excels in a particular area while another thrives in a different one. However, humans are complex and cannot be easily categorized into specific groups. The subjective nature of human beings and individual differences have frequently led to criticism of psychological testing.

Intellectual assessment has undergone significant changes throughout the twentieth century. It has evolved from evaluations focused on language and speech patterns to those based on sensory discrimination, with early assessments primarily targeting individuals with mental deficiencies. Over time, assessment tools developed into the foundational instruments for the standardized tests used in the 1990s, which assess more complex cognitive tasks across various cognitive ability levels. The most widely used tests, the Wechsler scales, were not originally created based on theory but were instead influenced by clinical experience. In contrast, alternative assessments to the Wechsler scales have generally been more theory-driven.

The trend in the 1990s appears to be a shift toward a theoretical foundation for intelligence tests, moving away from a purely clinical approach. Psychometric and neurological theories are increasingly informing the development of new instruments. However, despite the emergence of many new theory-driven tests, there remains a strong adherence to the established Wechsler tests, which continue to dominate the field. This reluctance to embrace alternatives is partly due to extensive research supporting the Wechsler scales, providing clinicians with a robust empirical foundation for interpreting specific Wechsler profiles. Additionally, psychologists are generally more comfortable and familiar with the Wechsler scales, further entrenching their use in practice.

Seminar lesson

Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.



Questions

1. What is the definition of assessment in the context of language education?
2. What are the main types of assessment used in language teaching (e.g., formative, summative, diagnostic)?
3. How do assessment methods impact student learning and motivation?
4. What role does feedback play in the assessment process?
5. How can teachers ensure that assessments are fair and reliable?
6. What are some challenges teachers face in assessing language skills?
7. How can technology be integrated into language assessment practices?
8. What is the difference between objective and subjective assessment methods?
9. How does a teacher's assessment philosophy influence their teaching practice?

10. What are the principles of developing effective assessment criteria and rubrics?

11. How can peer and self-assessment be incorporated into language learning?

12. What ethical considerations should be taken into account during the assessment process?

13. How can cultural factors influence language assessment?

14. What strategies can be employed to align assessments with curriculum goals and learning outcomes?

15. How can assessment results be used to inform future teaching practices?

Activities



1. Assessment Method Comparison:

Objective: Understand different assessment types.

Instructions: In groups, have students research and present on different types of assessment (formative, summative, diagnostic, etc.), including their advantages and disadvantages.

2. Creating Assessment Criteria:

Objective: Develop effective assessment tools.

Instructions: Ask students to create a rubric for assessing a specific language skill (e.g., writing, speaking). Provide guidelines on what to include, and then share with the class for feedback.

3. Feedback Role-Play:

Objective: Practice giving constructive feedback.

Instructions: Pair students and have them role-play a scenario where one student provides feedback on a piece of writing. Discuss the importance of positive reinforcement and specific suggestions.

4. Ethics in Assessment Discussion:

Objective: Explore ethical considerations in assessment.

Instructions: Conduct a class discussion on the ethical issues related to assessment practices, such as bias, confidentiality, and fairness. Have students share their perspectives.

5. Technology Integration Brainstorm:

Objective: Explore innovative assessment tools.

Instructions: In small groups, have students brainstorm how they can incorporate technology into their assessment practices. Encourage them to consider various tools (e.g., online quizzes, digital portfolios) and share their ideas with the class.

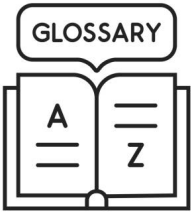
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THEME №11. PRINCIPLE OF LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT

11-mavzu: Tilni baholash tamoyillari

Ushbu mashg'ulot davomida baholashda kompyuter texnologiyalaridan foydalanish usullari haqida ma'lumot beriladi. Jahon ta'lim axborot makonidagi zamonaviy davr, ushbu jarayon zamonaviy texnik imkoniyatlarga mos bo'lishi va bolaning axborot jamiyatiga barkamol kirishiga hissa qo'shishi kerak bo'lgan o'quv texnologiyalarining tarkibiga uzluksizligi kiritilishi bilan bog'liq bo'lgan pedagogik nazariya va o'quv jarayonidagi sezilarli o'zgarishlar bilan birga kelishi kabilar mashqlar orqali ochib beriladi.

 Baholashda kompyuter texnologiyalaridan foydalanish usullari – Methods of using computer technologies in assessment:	Refers to the various techniques and approaches that leverage computer technologies to evaluate students' knowledge and skills. These methods can include online testing, interactive assessments, digital portfolios, and automated grading systems, allowing for efficient and objective evaluation.
Texnik imkoniyatlar – Technical capabilities:	This term refers to the various technological resources and tools available to enhance educational processes. This can include hardware (like computers and smartboards), software (educational applications, learning management systems), and internet connectivity that facilitate teaching and learning activities.

Pedagogik nazariya va o'quv jarayonidagi o'zgarishlar – Pedagogical theory and changes in the educational process:	This phrase encompasses the foundational principles and theories that inform teaching methods, as well as the evolution and adaptation of educational practices in response to new insights, technologies, and societal needs. It highlights the dynamic nature of education and the necessity for continuous improvement in teaching strategies to meet learners' needs effectively.
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Lecture



Creating an effective language assessment involves more than simply administering a test; it requires careful consideration of the specific needs that will facilitate student success. After reading Brown's book, I recalled my experiences as an undergraduate student. I couldn't help but wonder whether the lecturers applied the principles of language assessment when evaluating us. Ultimately, whether they did or didn't is a subjective interpretation that can only be clarified by the assessors themselves.

The primary aim of assessment is to ensure that it is appropriate, meaningful, and useful. According to Brown (2004), there are five essential criteria for evaluating a test: practicality, reliability, validity, authenticity, and washback. Let's highlight these criteria:

Practicality

This criterion includes:

- ****Cost Efficiency****: The test should not be overly expensive. It is considered impractical if a test requires significant financial and time investments while being relatively inexpensive to conduct.

- ****Appropriate Duration****: The test duration should be reasonable for students. For instance, requiring test-takers to spend six hours on a test is impractical.

- ****Ease of Administration****: The test should be simple to administer. It is practical for a placement test to be overseen by 2 or 3 proctors in a classroom with one hundred test takers.

The scoring and evaluation process should be efficient and precise. The examiner must provide clear instructions for scoring and allocate sufficient time for evaluation and to announce the results.

Student-related reliability

This pertains to factors affecting students, whether psychological or physical, such as illness, mental readiness, anxiety, and so on. Motivation and clear instructions can help students mitigate these challenges.

Rater reliability

This issue has two aspects. Inter-rater reliability refers to inconsistent scores for the same test among different students, which may result from a lack of attention to scoring criteria, lack of responsibility, or potential biases. Intra-rater reliability arises when students do not understand the scoring criteria set by the teacher, leading the teacher's judgments to be influenced by subjective assessments of students as good or bad.

Test administration reliability

Unreliability can arise when administering a test due to environmental factors, classroom conditions, and the format of the test. For example, issues like street noise, uncomfortable chairs, inadequate desk space, and poor lighting can all impact test reliability.

Test Reliability

Measurement errors can occur during the test administration. It's important to consider time constraints, as lengthy tests may lead to student fatigue, especially with challenging items. This fatigue can result in hurried responses that may be incorrect as the test time runs out.

Validity

We have already discussed two essential principles that assessors cannot overlook.

The next principle is validity, which many researchers and assessors consider fundamental. As Fulcher and Davidson (2007) state, the question of validity influences our daily interactions and how we engage with the world; it relates to our observations of behavior and conversations, leading us to make inferences that shape our actions or beliefs. Brown outlines various types of evidence that can support the validity of a test, one of which is content-related evidence.

Content-Related Evidence

This aspect examines how well the test content represents the issues at hand. It's essential to identify the specific achievements you want to measure and to consider both direct testing methods—where students engage with the teacher's questions in the target language—and indirect testing methods, which involve students responding to questions in written form using the target language.

Criterion-Related Evidence

There are two approaches to assess criteria: Concurrent validity, which evaluates how students' scores align with their language proficiency, and predictive validity, which is particularly important for tests like placement or language aptitude tests. Predictive validity assesses a test taker's potential for future success.

Construct-Related Evidence

A construct refers to any hypothesis, theory, or framework that seeks to explain observable phenomena within our perceptions. Although it isn't directly used to measure a test, inferential data is required to verify and align these constructs with relevant issues.

Consequential Validity

As a teacher or assessor, you hope that the outcomes of a test will positively influence students, both in their preparation for the test and in their social interactions.

Face Validity

Face validity pertains to the subjective perceptions of the examinees regarding how the test appears. If students find the test's format or design accessible and easy to understand, then it can be deemed valid.

Authenticity

The next principle is authenticity, which focuses on designing tests that incorporate specific features, appropriate language, and meaningful implications. This principle aims to ensure that students can recognize language in relation to real-world contexts rather than merely as abstract concepts. Authenticity can be reflected in several ways:

- Use of natural language
- Contextualized items
- Meaningful topics that are relevant and engaging
- Thematic organization of items, such as through a storyline or episode
- Representation of real-world tasks

Washback

The fifth key principle of language testing is washback, which refers to the impact of testing on teaching and learning. However, achieving effective washback can be challenging for teachers. Many educators, due to distractions or fatigue, may resort to simply assigning a letter grade or score. To enhance washback, teachers can provide generous and specific feedback on test performance. This could include compliments for strengths, constructive criticism for areas needing improvement, and highlighting specific elements that could enhance students' performance on future tests.

Authenticity

The next principle is authenticity, which emphasizes creating tests that include specific features, suitable language, and meaningful implications. This principle seeks to enable students to connect language to real-world contexts instead of viewing it as an abstract concept. Authenticity can be demonstrated in various ways:

- Use of natural language
- Contextualized items
- Relevant and engaging topics

- Thematic organization of items, such as through a narrative or episode

- Representation of tasks from real-life scenarios

Washback

The fifth essential principle of language testing is washback, which refers to how testing influences teaching and learning. Washback is particularly noticeable in classroom assessments, where feedback can help students recognize their strengths and weaknesses. However, implementing effective washback can be difficult for teachers. Many educators, due to distractions or fatigue, may opt to simply assign letter grades or scores. To improve washback, teachers can offer detailed and constructive feedback on test performance.

Principles of Language Assessment

Practicality:

- Encompasses the administrative components of assessment, including test design, administration, and scoring.

- Considers factors such as cost, time, scores, and outcomes.

- Impracticality is defined as the failure to meet test objectives.

- Examples of impractical tests are provided.

Key characteristics of a practical test include:

- Adherence to budget constraints

- Completion within the allocated time

- Clear instructions for test-takers

- Appropriate utilization of human and material resources

Overall Emphasis:

- Practicality, as one of the principles, is vital in determining the effectiveness of a test.

- All principles—Practicality, Reliability, Validity, Authenticity, and Washback Effect—are equally significant.

There are five key principles of language assessment: practicality, reliability, validity, authenticity, and washback.

1. PRACTICALITY

An effective test must be practical, which means it should:

- Not be prohibitively expensive; tests that are too costly are impractical.
- Be completed within a reasonable time frame; for instance, a language proficiency test that takes 10 hours to finish is impractical.
- Be relatively easy to administer; a test that takes only a few minutes for a student to complete but requires several hours for the examiner to evaluate is impractical.

2. RELIABILITY

A reliable test is consistent and trustworthy. Several sources of unreliability may affect test results:

- Student-related Reliability: A test may yield inconsistent results due to factors beyond the student's control, such as illness, fatigue, experiencing a "bad day," or lack of sleep the night before.



Seminar lesson

Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.



Questions

1. What are the key principles of effective language assessment?
2. How does the principle of validity apply to language assessment?
3. What is the significance of reliability in language assessment?

4. How can assessments be designed to ensure authenticity?
5. What role does washback play in the assessment process?
6. How can assessments be aligned with learning objectives and outcomes?
7. In what ways can assessments be both formative and summative?
8. What considerations should be made regarding practicality in language assessment?
9. How do cultural and contextual factors influence language assessment?
10. What is the importance of transparency in assessment criteria and processes?
11. How can assessments promote learner autonomy and self-regulation?
12. What strategies can be employed to ensure fairness in language assessments?
13. How do different assessment methods address diverse learner needs?
14. How can ongoing professional development help teachers understand language assessment principles?
15. What is the role of technology in enhancing language assessment practices?

Activities



1. Principles of Assessment Workshop:

Objective: Understand and apply assessment principles.

Instructions: In small groups, students will select one principle of language assessment (validity, reliability, authenticity, etc.) and create a presentation illustrating its importance and how it can be applied in classroom assessments.

2. Validity and Reliability Case Study:

Objective: Analyze assessment scenarios.

Instructions: Provide students with case studies of different assessment scenarios. They must identify potential issues related to validity and reliability and propose solutions to enhance these aspects.

3. Assessment Criteria Development:

Objective: Develop clear and transparent criteria.

Instructions: Have students create assessment rubrics for a language task (e.g., speaking, writing). Emphasize the importance of clear, transparent criteria and the role of feedback.

4. Mock Assessment Role-Play:

Objective: Practice assessment delivery and feedback.

Instructions: In pairs, students will conduct a mock assessment (e.g., a speaking task) and provide constructive feedback based on established principles of language assessment.

5. Reflection on Cultural Context:

Objective: Explore cultural influences on assessment.

Instructions: Students will reflect on how their cultural background impacts their perceptions of language assessment. They can share their thoughts in a group discussion.

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THEME №12. TEACHING GRAMMAR

12-mavzu: Grammatikani o'rgatish

Ushbu mashg'ulot davomida talabaga quyidagi masalalarda nazariy va amaliy bilimlar taqdim etiladi: Grammatika o'qitishning umumiy masalalari. Morfologiya o'qitishning ahamiyati va vazifalari, so'z tarkibini o'qitish yo'llari, mustaqil so'z turkumlarini o'rganish, so'z turkumlarini o'rgatishda sathlararo bog'lanishni yo'lga qo'yish.

 Grammatika o'qitishning umumiy masalalari General Issues in Teaching Grammar:	This term refers to the fundamental challenges and considerations faced by educators in grammar instruction. It encompasses various factors such as curriculum design, teaching methodologies, student engagement, and assessment strategies that affect how effectively grammar is taught and learned.
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Morfologiya o'qitishning ahamiyati va vazifalari Importance and Objectives of Teaching Morphology:	Morphology is the branch of linguistics concerned with the structure of words. This term highlights the significance of teaching morphology in language education. The objectives include helping students understand how words are formed, the role of prefixes, suffixes, and roots, and enhancing their vocabulary and grammatical awareness, which are essential for effective communication.
So'z tarkibini o'qitish yo'llari Methods for Teaching Word Formation:	This refers to the instructional strategies and approaches used to teach students about the structure and composition of words. These methods may include explicit teaching of morphological rules, hands-on activities that involve word analysis, and exercises that promote understanding of how different morphemes combine to create new meanings. Engaging students through interactive methods can also enhance their learning experience.
Mustaqil so'z turkumlarini o'rganish – Studying Independent Parts of Speech:	This phrase describes the process of examining individual parts of speech (such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) in isolation. Understanding each part of speech allows students to grasp their specific functions within sentences, which is crucial for

	constructing grammatically correct expressions and enhancing overall language proficiency.
So'z turkumlarini o'rganishda sathlaro bog'lanishni yo'lga qo'yish Establishing Interlevel Connections in Studying Parts of Speech:	This concept involves creating relationships and connections between different levels of understanding when studying parts of speech. It emphasizes the importance of recognizing how various parts of speech interact within sentences. By promoting interlevel connections, educators help students develop a more comprehensive understanding of grammar, leading to improved writing and speaking skills.

Lecture



Every language has its unique grammar rules that dictate how to use various types of words and their arrangement. In English, grammar includes aspects such as word order (syntax), verb tenses (like past, present, and future), and different categories of words (such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives). Mastering English grammar is essential for effective communication, reading comprehension, writing, and storytelling. This highlights the importance of teaching grammar to young children.

To become successful writers, children must learn proper grammar, which is closely related to correct punctuation. Both grammar and punctuation are crucial for effective communication.

By the end of Key Stage 2 (KS2), students are expected to understand all the spelling, punctuation, and grammar outlined in the national

curriculum, including concepts like fronted adverbials, appropriate paragraphing, and complex punctuation such as semicolons.

At the end of Year 6, children are assessed on their SPaG knowledge through the national SATs.

Explore these comprehensive collections of grammar resources designed for KS1 and KS2, which can assist you in planning, preparing, and delivering engaging and informative grammar lessons. You'll find a variety of interactive PowerPoints, useful worksheets, fun games, and more to support your teaching on this subject. These valuable resources can provide you with effective techniques for teaching English grammar and are suitable for beginners, making them useful for both teachers and parents.

There are numerous creative ways to teach English grammar to beginners. Some educators prefer a communicative approach, which emphasizes mastering spoken rules before progressing to writing. Another method is the play way approach, which encourages learning through play. Check out this excellent selection of grammar games that can be used in the classroom or at home.

The communicative approach to teaching grammar differs from explicit grammar instruction in that it emphasizes a natural progression of learning. This method is often employed with ESL (English as a Second Language) students because it helps them develop an instinct for grammatical rules similar to their first language.

For instance, under the communicative approach, the present tense is typically taught first. Students learn how to use the present tense effectively before moving on to the past tense. In contrast, explicit grammar lessons might introduce the past tense earlier in the learning process. The communicative approach encourages children to become comfortable with fundamental concepts before expanding their knowledge.

This method can reduce children's anxiety about grammar and allows for a more organic learning experience, which can significantly boost their

motivation and understanding over time. When children learn grammar through practical application, they are more likely to retain it.

Lessons tend to be less structured, prioritizing language usage over rote learning of grammatical rules. This approach emphasizes the function of language along with the actual words.

The play way method of teaching English grammar aims to make grammar more enjoyable and easier for students to remember. This approach is particularly beneficial for ESL (English as a Second Language) learners and is commonly implemented in these classrooms.

The play way method posits that grammar instruction is more effective when it incorporates games. Language games are employed in the classroom to help students grasp how to use grammar correctly.

This approach challenges the notion that rote memorization is the best way for students to learn grammar rules. Making the learning process fun and engaging is more likely to resonate with children and enhance their retention of the material. By using games, students can practice their grammar skills in a lively manner that energizes their lessons. This method can foster cooperative learning among students or introduce a competitive element that motivates them to excel. However, the play way method should be implemented thoughtfully; it must be appropriate for the age group and genuinely enjoyable rather than just filling time.

Learning English grammar can be challenging, but native speakers will benefit from language games, and ESL students will find these activities particularly helpful for understanding grammar. Overall, it's a fun and supportive way to learn a new language.

The Advantages of Teaching Grammar

As previously mentioned, a strong grasp of grammar provides children with a solid foundation for effective communication, both in writing and speaking. This is the primary advantage of teaching grammar in schools and at home. There are four key areas that emphasize the benefits of grammar instruction, two of which have already been discussed.

Teaching grammar benefits children in the following ways:

Listening: A good understanding of grammar enables children to listen to and interpret speech through the use of syntax, tense, and word choice. Without grammatical knowledge, children would struggle to grasp the additional layers of meaning that grammar adds to spoken language.

Speaking: Similar to listening, children need a solid understanding of grammar to express themselves fully in English. For instance, without knowing how to use tense correctly, they may alter the intended meaning of their statements.

Writing: Although listening and speaking are used more frequently in daily life, accurate writing depends on a solid understanding of grammar. This knowledge is particularly beneficial for academic achievement, as proficiency in writing is necessary for success in all subjects.

Reading: Just like writing, a solid grasp of grammar enhances reading skills. Without this understanding, readers may miss grammatical cues that shape meaning and reveal the author's intent.

There are two main approaches to teaching grammar: deductive and inductive. Each has its own strengths and weaknesses, so using a combination of both is the most effective strategy.

Given this, it's crucial to understand the differences between the deductive and inductive methods of teaching grammar.

Deductive reasoning takes a top-down approach, starting with a general theory and narrowing it down to specific hypotheses that are then tested.

For example: "All men are mortal. Alex is a man. Therefore, Alex is mortal."

For deductive reasoning to be effective, the initial hypothesis must be accurate. This approach starts with a rule, followed by examples that illustrate how the rule is applied.

How to teach grammar deductively: In grammar instruction, this involves explaining a grammatical rule or concept to students before they practice it through answering questions or creating their own examples.

In contrast, inductive reasoning starts with specific observations and leads to broad generalizations. It involves making conclusions based on existing data.

For example: “The first book I pulled from my bag was a non-fiction book. The second and third were also non-fiction. Therefore, all the books in the bag are non-fiction.”

Even if all the premises are true, the overarching hypothesis may still be incorrect. An inductive approach begins with examples, from which the general rule is inferred.

How to teach grammar inductively: In this method, students are encouraged to identify patterns and concepts, allowing them to deduce the rule themselves before practicing the language.

The goal of teaching grammar goes beyond merely feeling confident in correcting children's errors or imparting techniques to be mechanically applied. Such an approach does not cultivate true writing skills or lead to quality writing.

Effective grammar instruction aims to empower children to use grammar as a tool for expressing more complex ideas. When taught properly, grammar can significantly enhance children's literacy development.

Here are seven essential principles to consider when teaching grammar:

1. ****Enhance Your Subject Knowledge****: To effectively teach grammar, you need both explicit and implicit understanding. You should feel confident using the correct terminology and explaining it. It's crucial not only to learn the next term you plan to teach but also to connect new concepts to other elements of the text as a whole.

2. ****Prioritize Classroom Discussions****: Encourage children to choose from a variety of voices, including Standard English.

3. ****Remember the Purpose of Teaching Grammar****: Grammar should not be reduced to merely identifying parts of speech or memorizing English rules. It must be integrated into classroom discussions, as well as reading and writing activities.

4. Teach Grammar in Context

Introducing children to grammatical features and language within context helps them internalize these principles. Instead of relying on ready-made worksheets from a book, which have minimal impact on children's language use and can be meaningless for those who cannot yet think abstractly, focus on contextual learning.

5. Read Aloud and Discuss Authorial Choices

Children who engage in extensive reading and are read to will develop a “toolbox” filled with structures, patterns, and rhythms they can utilize in their own writing.

6. *Be Systematic*

Ensure that you understand what the class has previously learned and what they need to learn next. Connect new concepts with their existing knowledge.

7. *Make Learning Grammar Enjoyable*

Teaching grammar can include investigations, problem-solving, and playful language activities to enhance children's awareness of and interest in how language functions.

Seminar lesson

Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.



Questions

1. What are the primary approaches to teaching grammar in the classroom?

2. How does the communicative approach to grammar teaching differ from traditional methods?

3. What role does context play in the effective teaching of grammar?

4. How can teachers effectively assess students' understanding of grammatical structures?

5. What are the advantages and disadvantages of explicit versus implicit grammar instruction?
6. How can technology be integrated into grammar teaching?
7. What strategies can be used to teach complex grammatical structures to young learners?
8. How does error correction impact students' language development?
9. What is the significance of teaching grammar in context rather than in isolation?
10. How can teachers cater to different learning styles when teaching grammar?
11. What are some effective ways to provide feedback on grammar in written work?
12. How does the use of authentic materials enhance grammar teaching?
13. What are the common challenges teachers face when teaching grammar?
14. How can collaborative learning be applied in grammar instruction?
15. What role does students' first language play in their understanding of English grammar?

Activities

1. Grammar in Context:

Objective: Teach grammar through contextualized examples.

Instructions: Students choose a short text (e.g., an article, poem, or dialogue) and identify specific grammatical structures. They then discuss how the grammar is used in context and present their findings to the class.

2. Grammar Games:

Objective: Make grammar learning engaging and fun.

Instructions: Create a series of games (e.g., grammar bingo, board games) focusing on different grammatical points. Students play in small groups and discuss the rules as they play.

3. Peer Teaching:

Objective: Reinforce grammar knowledge through teaching.

Instructions: In pairs, students prepare a mini-lesson on a specific grammar point. They teach each other, providing examples and practice exercises.

4. Error Correction Role-Play:

Objective: Practice error correction techniques.

Instructions: Students write a short paragraph using deliberate grammatical errors. They then exchange papers with a partner and practice providing constructive feedback on the errors.

5. Grammar Reflection Journal:

Objective: Encourage self-assessment and reflection.

Instructions: Students maintain a journal where they reflect on their grammar learning experiences, challenges, and progress throughout the course. They can share selected entries with the class.

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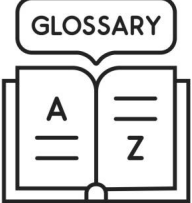
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THEME №13. ASSESSING GRAMMAR

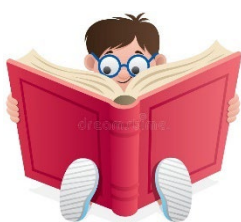
13-mavzu: Grammatikani o'rgatish

Ushbu mashg'ulot davomida talabaga quyidagi masalalarda nazariy va amaliy bilimlar taqdim etiladi: Grammatika o'qitishning umumiy masalalari. Morfologiya o'qitishning ahamiyati va vazifalari, so'z tarkibini o'qitish yo'llari, mustaqil so'z turkumlarini o'rganish, so'z turkumlarini o'rgatishda sathlararo bog'lanishni yo'lga qo'yish.

 Receptive Skills	Skills related to understanding and processing language input, primarily listening and reading.
Read-Aloud	An instructional technique where the teacher reads a text aloud to the class, modeling fluent reading and comprehension strategies.
Listening Comprehension	The ability to understand spoken language, including grasping main ideas, details, and inferences.
Guided Reading	A small group reading instruction method where the teacher provides support tailored to each student's reading level.

Phonics Instruction	A method of teaching reading that focuses on the relationship between letters and their corresponding sounds.
Interactive Listening Games	Engaging activities that promote focused listening through games, such as “Simon Says” or “Follow the Leader.”

Lecture



Assessing Grammar

- When it comes to assessment, grammar plays a crucial role in language description and the performance of test takers. Nowadays, knowledge of grammar is evaluated based on its correct application in communication across listening, speaking, reading, and writing in a second language.

- Communicative competence comprises four components: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. Grammatical knowledge is made up of three elements:

a) ****Grammatical Forms****: This refers to the structures of a language, including morphology (how words are formed) and syntax (how words are arranged). Both aspects are concerned with the linguistic accuracy of the language.

b) ****Grammatical Meaning****: This encompasses both the literal and intended messages conveyed by the forms used, focusing on the meaningfulness of the language.

c) ****Pragmatic Meaning****: This involves the use of language in specific contexts. The pragmatic meaning emerges from the appropriate language choices a learner makes during a communicative interaction.

- ****Multiple-choice tasks****: This commonly used type of response task presents a blank or underlined word in a sentence, requiring the test taker to select the correct option from the provided choices (including

grammatical form, grammatical meaning, and the relationship between form and meaning).

- ****Discrimination tasks****: These tasks require test takers to focus on input that may be language-related or non-language-related and to respond by choosing between contrasts or opposites, such as true/false options (related to grammatical form and meaning).

- ****Noticing tasks or consciousness-raising tasks****: In these tasks, test takers are instructed to mark (by underlining or circling) a specific feature they have identified within a language sample.

The Nature of Vocabulary

Vocabulary can be classified into two categories: tokens and types. Tokens refer to all the words present in a paragraph, while types only account for unique words, ignoring any repetitions.

Additionally, there is a distinction between function words and content words. Function words—such as prepositions, articles, conjunctions, and other small words—are more related to the grammar of the language rather than its vocabulary. In contrast, content words encompass nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

Some vocabulary assessments may focus more on lexical items like phrasal verbs (e.g., "put up with," "run into"), compound words (e.g., "personal computer"), or idioms (e.g., "a pretty penny"), which convey meaning only when considered as complete units.

****Four Types of Lexical Phrases:****

- ****Polywords**** are short, fixed expressions that serve various functions, such as qualifying statements, indicating fluency, or expressing disagreement. Examples include "for the most part," "so to speak," and "wait a minute."

- ****Institutionalized expressions**** are longer, fixed phrases often used in social interactions or as proverbs. Examples include "nice to meet you" and "how's it going."

- ****Phrasal constraints**** are medium-length phrases with a basic structure that includes one or two slots that can be filled with different

words or phrases. Examples are "yours truly/sincerely" and "as far as I know/can tell."

- ****Sentence builders**** are phrases that provide a framework for constructing complete sentences, with one or two slots for expressing whole ideas. Examples include "on the other hand, X" and "not only X but also X."

Defining Lexical Knowledge

Chapelle's definition of vocabulary consists of three components:

- The context in which vocabulary is used
- The understanding of vocabulary and its fundamental processes
- Metacognitive strategies that aid in vocabulary usage

Designing Assessment Tasks: Receptive Vocabulary

When designing assessment tasks, it's crucial to consider the role of context in each item. Context serves two main functions: it helps convey a specific meaning of a high-frequency word, and it enables the learner to identify the word based on the provided context. Read (2000, p. 163) provides examples of tasks that demonstrate this:

- Vocabulary used in a one-sentence context with high-frequency words
- Vocabulary used in a one-sentence context with low-frequency words
- Vocabulary matching exercises
- Word association tasks

While it is widely accepted that a significant portion of second language acquisition (SLA) occurs incidentally as learners engage with meaningful input and interaction, the explicit instruction of a second or foreign language (L2) and the evaluation of a learner's grammatical development remain critical concerns for L2 educators. Research in SLA indicates that, although not all instruction yields positive outcomes, learners who receive explicit, form-focused instruction are more likely to enhance their natural learning processes, accelerate their grammatical

development, and attain higher levels of L2 proficiency (Ellis, 2008) compared to those who do not receive such instruction.

This effect is particularly pronounced when L2 input is rich, plentiful, and meaningful; grammar explanations and corrective feedback raise awareness of previously unnoticed patterns; and instruction is organized to facilitate processing and skill acquisition.

Moreover, L2 assessors recognize the significance of grammar in evaluating communicative language ability (Purpura, 2004). The interest in grammar assessment arises from its crucial role in predicting effective and precise communication in the L2 and its potential to provide learners and teachers with varying levels of information about the grammatical skills necessary for improvement. Several researchers (e.g., Hulstijn, Schoonen, de Jong, Steinel, & Florijn, 2012) also explore grammar assessment for its ability to help characterize L2 knowledge across different contexts or proficiency levels, as referenced by various external standards, frameworks, or proficiency scales.

Grammar, as a concept, has been understood in various ways based on different linguistic frameworks (such as structural linguistics). However, L2 educators generally define "grammar" as a collection of structural rules, patterns, norms, or conventions that dictate how to create well-formed and meaningful utterances within specific contexts of language use. Most L2 educators agree that the capacity to produce well-formed and meaningful utterances, whether in context-rich environments or more limited situations (like a traditional discrete-point grammar test), relies on a variety of linguistic resources, including phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, discourse, and pragmatics.

By utilizing diverse yet principled descriptions of grammar for educational aims, several L2 assessors have developed conceptual frameworks of L2 proficiency where grammatical knowledge consistently plays a significant role. These frameworks have served as foundations for creating grammar assessments, detailing how grammatical knowledge is represented in a learner's mind, defined at different proficiency levels,

framed according to specific assessment purposes, and importantly, situated within a comprehensive model of L2 proficiency. I will explore the theoretical definitions of grammatical knowledge in three such conceptualizations before outlining four approaches to grammar assessment.

A notable and insightful framework for L2 proficiency that emphasizes the importance of grammatical knowledge was introduced by Bachman and Palmer (1996). They conceptualized language use as a dynamic interaction between the personal characteristics of the language user and the context in which the language is utilized. The characteristics of the user encompass the interplay between an individual's language ability (which includes language knowledge and strategic competence), topical knowledge (such as understanding how to book a flight online), and affective schemata (like motivation).

Language knowledge is divided into two categories: organizational knowledge (which includes grammatical and textual knowledge) and pragmatic knowledge (encompassing functional and sociolinguistic knowledge). Within this framework, grammatical knowledge pertains to how individual utterances or sentences are structured, considering aspects of phonology or graphology, vocabulary, and syntax. Textual knowledge concerns how these utterances or sentences are arranged to create coherent texts, involving concepts like cohesion and rhetorical or conversational organization.

Their model has been utilized as a guiding heuristic in the development of various L2 assessments worldwide, including the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and the Cambridge exams.

A more recent model of L2 proficiency was put forth by Purpura (2004), drawing on L2 assessment theory, research on second language acquisition (SLA), and extensive experience in L2 teaching and testing. Purpura's framework is rooted in the theoretical models of proficiency established by Lado (1961), Canale and Swain (1980), Bachman and Palmer (1996), among others discussed earlier.

These models have been instrumental in defining the components of L2 proficiency. Additionally, Purpura's model takes cues from Larsen-Freeman (1991) and Rea-Dickins (1991), who conceptualized L2 proficiency in terms of form, meaning, and use within the context of teaching and assessing communicative grammar.

From an SLA standpoint, Purpura's view of L2 proficiency acknowledges research highlighting the connections between grammatical forms and their corresponding semantic meanings (e.g., VanPatten, Williams, Rott, & Overstreet, 2004). Instead of questioning the relationship between these two aspects, SLA research focuses on the behavioral and cognitive processes that facilitate and sustain form-meaning connections. Research findings indicate that lower-proficiency learners often grasp simple forms or parts of forms primarily to communicate lexical meanings (e.g., using "going to" vs. "will" to express future intentions), which makes them less likely to understand how more complex forms (like "going to") convey morphosyntactic meanings such as modality or aspect. Conversely, advanced learners appear more adept at leveraging linguistic and situational contexts to link forms with semantic or pragmatic meanings (Bardovi-Harlig, 2000).

In summary, as Larsen-Freeman (1991) consistently reminds us, learners differ in the aspects of grammatical knowledge they acquire during their learning journey. This variation has significant implications for L2 assessment, particularly in the realm of grammar assessment.

Purpura (2004, 2012) characterizes language knowledge as the interplay between grammatical knowledge and pragmatic knowledge. Grammatical knowledge is further elaborated in terms of various linguistic forms (e.g., the -s affix, word order) and the semantic meanings linked to these forms, whether individually (e.g., indicating plurality with a noun or time reference with a verb) or collectively (e.g., the overall literal meaning of a statement). These forms and meanings exist at different levels: subsentential, sentential, and suprasentential (or discourse).

Specifically, they can be categorized according to (1) phonology or graphology, (2) lexis, (3) morphosyntax, (4) cohesion, (5) information management (e.g., topic or comment), and (6) interaction (e.g., metadiscourse markers like "uh-huh"). In this framework, the mappings between form and meaning are seen as essential for the ability to convey and comprehend both the literal and intended meanings of utterances in L2 contexts. They also serve as crucial resources for expressing and interpreting pragmatic meanings in L2 use, where context significantly influences implicit meaning interpretation.

For instance, consider the form and meaning aspects of L2 proficiency. The plural -s affix added to a noun in English is a grammatical form that signifies plurality—its semantic meaning. Learners whose first languages (L1) use different forms to indicate plurality (e.g., Italian employs -i or -e) or who have distinct concepts of plurality (e.g., in Arabic, two entities are treated differently than more than two) may find these two dimensions of the -s affix challenging. Consequently, English-speaking students learning Italian are typically thought to grasp the concept of plurality in Italian easily but may struggle to use plural forms correctly.

Given the learning challenges associated with these two dimensions, it is crucial for testers to approach the content of grammar assessments in a systematic and principled manner. This enables the design of specific assessments tailored for various testing purposes. As previously mentioned, grammar test content can be categorized in terms of grammatical forms and meanings at both the sub(sentential) level (i.e., phonology, lexis, morphosyntax) and the suprasentential level (i.e., cohesion, information management, interaction). This perspective incorporates both sentence-level and discourse-level grammar in spoken and written contexts.

By utilizing a comprehensive framework of grammatical knowledge, testers may opt to assess only the form dimension, recognizing that without considering the meaning dimension, their conclusions can only pertain to knowledge of grammatical form, rather than grammatical

knowledge as a whole. For instance, a learner's ability to add the -ed suffix to verbs does not necessarily indicate that they understand the meanings of past tense verbs or their appropriate usage.

In developing the Oxford Online Placement Test, Purpura and his team employed the six categories mentioned above as an organizational framework to create a taxonomy of test content. They then conducted a survey of English as a Second Language (ESL) textbooks and pedagogical grammars.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What are the key objectives of assessing grammar in language learning?
2. How can formative assessments be effectively used to evaluate students' grammatical understanding?
3. What types of assessment tools can be employed to assess grammar skills?
4. How do standardized tests differ from classroom assessments in evaluating grammar?
5. What role does feedback play in the grammar assessment process?
6. How can teachers differentiate between grammatical accuracy and fluency in assessments?
7. What are the challenges of assessing grammar in spoken language compared to written language?
8. How can peer assessment be utilized in evaluating grammar proficiency?
9. What strategies can teachers use to create effective grammar assessment rubrics?
10. How does technology facilitate the assessment of grammar in language learning?

11. What are the implications of assessing grammar for overall language proficiency?
12. How can teachers assess students' progress in grammar over time?
13. What are the ethical considerations in grammar assessment?
14. How can self-assessment encourage students to take responsibility for their grammar learning?
15. What impact does cultural background have on students' grammatical performance in assessments?

Activities

1. Grammar Assessment Portfolio:



Objective: Track and reflect on grammar learning over time.

Instructions: Students create a portfolio that includes samples of their writing, grammar tests, feedback from peers and teachers, and reflections on their progress in grammar.

2. Grammar Assessment Rubric Development:

Objective: Enhance understanding of assessment criteria.

Instructions: In groups, students develop a rubric for assessing a specific grammar point (e.g., verb tenses). They then use the rubric to assess sample sentences provided by the teacher.

3. Peer Review Sessions:

Objective: Encourage collaborative assessment of grammar.

Instructions: Students exchange written work and use a checklist to provide constructive feedback on grammar usage. They can discuss their feedback in pairs before revising their work.

4. Grammar Test Creation:

Objective: Understand assessment design.

Instructions: Students design a short grammar test focusing on a specific area (e.g., articles, prepositions). They then swap tests with classmates and provide answers and explanations.

5. Role-Playing Assessment:

Objective: Assess grammar in spoken language.

Instructions: Students engage in role-play activities where they must use specific grammatical structures in conversation. Teachers assess their grammatical accuracy and fluency during the interactions.

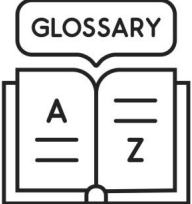
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THEME №14. TEACHING VOCABULARY, ASSESSING VOCABULARY

14-mavzu: Grammatikani baholash

Har bir fan bo'yicha amaliy mashg'ulotlar multimedia vositalari bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada o'tkazilishi zarur. Mashg'ulotlar faol va interaktiv usullar yordamida o'tilishi, mos ravishda munosib pedagogik va axborot texnologiyalar qo'llanilishi maqsadga muvofiq.

	Vocabulary Assessment	The process of evaluating a learner's knowledge and usage of words and their meanings. This can include various forms of testing, quizzes, or informal assessments to determine vocabulary proficiency.
Formative Assessment	Vocabulary	Ongoing assessments conducted throughout the learning process to monitor student progress in vocabulary acquisition. These assessments provide feedback to both students and teachers and can inform instructional adjustments.
Summative Assessment	Vocabulary	Assessments given at the end of a learning period (such as a unit or semester) to evaluate students' overall vocabulary knowledge and usage. These assessments often include tests or projects that measure cumulative vocabulary understanding.

Diagnostic Vocabulary Assessment	Initial evaluations used to determine students' existing vocabulary knowledge and skills. These assessments help identify strengths and weaknesses, guiding subsequent instruction and support.
Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS)	A tool used to assess learners' vocabulary knowledge by asking them to rate their familiarity with words on a scale (e.g., from "I don't know" to "I know the meaning and can use it in a sentence"). This scale helps gauge depth of knowledge.
Lexical Density	A measure of the proportion of content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) to function words (prepositions, conjunctions, etc.) in a text. Higher lexical density typically indicates richer vocabulary use.
Word Recognition Test	An assessment tool that measures a learner's ability to recognize and understand vocabulary words in isolation or within sentences. This can include multiple-choice questions, matching exercises, or oral reading tasks.
Portfolio Assessment	A collection of student work that demonstrates vocabulary learning and usage over time. Portfolios can include various artifacts such as writing samples, vocabulary lists, and reflections, allowing for a

	comprehensive evaluation of vocabulary development.
Vocabulary Acquisition Strategies	Techniques and methods used to enhance vocabulary learning and retention. These strategies can include mnemonic devices, word maps, flashcards, and contextual learning.

Lecture



Vocabulary refers to understanding words and their meanings. Steven Stahl (2005) states that "Vocabulary knowledge is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world." Mastery of vocabulary is never complete; it continuously grows and deepens throughout one's life. Teaching vocabulary encompasses much more than simply consulting a dictionary or using words in sentences. Vocabulary is learned both incidentally through indirect exposure to words and intentionally through explicit instruction on particular words and strategies for learning them. Michael Graves (2000) identifies four key components of a successful vocabulary program:

- Engaging in extensive independent reading to broaden vocabulary.
- Teaching specific words to improve understanding of texts that include those words.
- Providing instruction in strategies for independent word learning.
- Incorporating activities focused on word awareness and word play to encourage and enhance learning.

Elements of Vocabulary Instruction

The National Reading Panel (2000) determined that no single research-supported approach exists for teaching vocabulary. Based on its findings, the panel suggested employing a mix of direct and indirect vocabulary instruction methods.

Purposeful Vocabulary Teaching

- ****Focused Word Instruction****
- ****Choosing Words for Instruction****
- ****Comprehensive and Engaging Teaching****
- ****Strategies for Learning Words****
- ****Using Dictionaries****
- ****Analyzing Morphemes****
- ****Understanding Cognates (for ELLs)****
- ****Analyzing Context****

The National Reading Panel (2000) found that explicit vocabulary instruction is highly effective. To intentionally enhance vocabulary, students should receive direct teaching of both specific words and word-learning strategies. For a deeper understanding of word meanings, instruction should be substantial (Beck et al., 2002). Exposure to vocabulary within rich contexts from authentic texts—rather than through isolated drills—leads to more effective vocabulary acquisition (National Reading Panel, 2000). This type of instruction typically does not start with definitions, as being able to define a word often stems from already understanding its meaning. Comprehensive vocabulary instruction goes beyond mere definitions; it actively engages students in using and thinking about word meanings and forming connections between words.

Research indicates that the number of words to learn exceeds what can be directly taught in even the most ambitious vocabulary programs. Explicit instruction in word-learning strategies equips students with tools to independently figure out the meanings of unfamiliar words that may not have been covered in class. Given the many unfamiliar words students encounter while reading, these strategies can be very beneficial.

Word-learning strategies encompass dictionary usage, morphemic analysis, and contextual analysis. For English Language Learners (ELLs), cognate awareness—recognizing words that share roots with English—also serves as a valuable strategy. Using dictionaries helps students

understand multiple meanings of words and highlights the importance of selecting the right definition for the context.

Morphemic analysis involves understanding a word's meaning by examining its meaningful components, including root words, prefixes, and suffixes. Contextual analysis requires inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words by analyzing the surrounding text, often teaching students to use both general and specific context clues.

Promoting Word Consciousness

One effective method for helping students enhance their vocabulary is by promoting word consciousness, which is an awareness and interest in words. Word consciousness should not be treated as a separate aspect of vocabulary instruction; it should be integrated into daily activities (Scott and Nagy, 2004). This awareness can be cultivated continuously and in various ways, such as encouraging precise word choice, engaging in word play, and exploring the origins or histories of words. Graves (2000) notes that "If we can get students interested in playing with words and language, then we are at least halfway to the goal of creating the sort of word-conscious students who will make words a lifetime interest."

Repeated Exposure in Various Contexts

A key principle for effective vocabulary learning is providing multiple exposures to the meanings of words. Students show significant improvement in vocabulary when they frequently encounter new words (National Reading Panel, 2000). Stahl (2005) emphasizes that students likely need to see a word several times for it to be firmly established in their long-term memory. This involves not just simple repetition or drills but rather encountering the word in various and different contexts. Therefore, vocabulary instruction should create opportunities for students to repeatedly meet words in multiple contexts.

Restructuring Vocabulary Tasks

Findings from the National Reading Panel

- Intentional instruction in vocabulary is essential for specific texts.
- Repetition and repeated exposure to vocabulary items are crucial.

- Learning vocabulary in rich contexts is beneficial.
- Vocabulary tasks should be modified as needed.
- Active engagement in vocabulary learning tasks is important.
- Computer technology can be effectively utilized to teach vocabulary.
- Vocabulary can also be learned incidentally.
- The methods used to assess and evaluate vocabulary can significantly impact instruction.
- Relying on a single method for vocabulary instruction is unlikely to yield optimal learning outcomes.

It is commonly believed that when students struggle to learn new vocabulary, they simply need more practice with the words. However, research indicates that students often do not fully grasp the instructional tasks (National Reading Panel, 2000). Therefore, teachers should ensure that students understand the tasks at hand, rather than focusing solely on the vocabulary words themselves (Schwartz and Raphael, 1985). Restructuring learning materials or strategies in various ways can enhance vocabulary acquisition, particularly for low-achieving or at-risk students (National Reading Panel, 2000). Kamil (2004) states, “Once students know what is expected of them in a vocabulary task, they often learn rapidly.”

Scientific research on vocabulary instruction shows that most vocabulary is acquired incidentally through indirect exposure to words. Students can gain vocabulary by participating in rich oral language experiences both at home and at school, listening to books being read aloud, and engaging in extensive independent reading. The amount of reading done is crucial for long-term vocabulary development (Cunningham and Stanovich, 1998). Kamil and Hiebert (2005) argue that extensive reading offers students repeated exposure to words and allows them to encounter vocabulary in rich contexts. Cunningham (2005) suggests implementing structured read-aloud sessions and discussions, as well as encouraging independent reading beyond school hours, to promote vocabulary growth in students.

An increasing number of students come from households where English is not the primary language. From 1979 to 2003, the percentage of students who struggled with English rose by 124% (National Center for Education Statistics, 2005). By 2003, students facing challenges with English comprised about 5% of the school population, up from 3% in 1979.

Given this context, vocabulary development is particularly crucial for English-language learners (ELLs). Limited vocabulary poses a significant challenge for these students (Calderon et al., 2005). ELLs with vocabulary deficits often struggle to comprehend grade-level texts compared to their English-only (EO) peers (August et al., 2005). Research indicates that strategies effective for EO students can also work for ELLs, provided they are tailored to meet the specific strengths and needs of ELLs (Calderon et al., 2005).

Diane August and her colleagues (2005) recommend several strategies that are especially beneficial for enhancing the vocabularies of ELLs. One effective approach is leveraging the students' first language if it shares cognates with English. Teaching the meanings of essential words and providing ample review and reinforcement are also key strategies. Since English and Spanish have numerous cognate pairs, the first strategy is particularly advantageous for Spanish-speaking ELLs, enabling them to use their cognate knowledge to decipher unfamiliar English words. A second strategy involves helping ELLs learn the meanings of basic words—terms that most EO students already understand—often found on lists like the Dale-Chall List (Chall and Dale, 1995). The third strategy focuses on review and reinforcement through methods such as read-aloud sessions, teacher-led activities, listening to audiotapes, extending word use beyond the classroom, and involving parents.

General Measures of Vocabulary

Measures of general vocabulary knowledge typically consist of standardized assessments that yield an overall score, allowing for comparison with normative data to determine how a student is performing

relative to their peers of the same age. These assessments can be valuable for evaluating broader reading skills and identifying whether limited general vocabulary knowledge might hinder reading comprehension. Most standardized vocabulary assessments are restricted to individuals with specialized qualifications, such as speech-language pathologists and educational psychologists. However, two standardized assessments that qualified teachers can use are:

1. ****Renfrew Expressive Vocabulary Test**** (Renfrew, 2023)
2. ****CUBED Narrative Language Measures****

Standardized vocabulary measures are intended to evaluate general vocabulary knowledge, making them less effective at assessing knowledge of specific words. For measuring the vocabulary learned in the classroom, a curriculum-based assessment is more appropriate.

Curriculum-Based Assessment of Vocabulary

Informal observation of students' vocabulary usage during interactions with the teacher, conversations with peers, and in their writing can provide a general indication of how well they are acquiring the vocabulary being taught. However, to gain a more accurate understanding of an individual student's skills or to validate informal observations, Beck et al. (2013) suggest several testing formats that can be applied to the words that have been taught.

Assessment Formats

- ****Multiple Choice****: Questions may ask students to select the correct definition or usage of a word and may include distractors.
- ****True or False****: Questions can be simplified by incorporating more concrete information or made more challenging by using more abstract concepts.
- ****Examples and Non-Examples****: Students must identify the correct usage of a word by distinguishing between an example and a non-example.
- ****Writing Task with Target Words****: For instance, a prompt could be, "Describe a 'dilapidated' house."

- ****Similarities and Differences****: Students describe the similarities and differences between pairs of words.

- ****Responding to Target Words in Context****: For example, “Zoe was happy that she had ‘reconciled’ with her friend after a long time apart.”

These types of assessments do not provide norms or standard scores, so to measure growth, teachers should administer them both before and after instruction.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What are the key principles of effective vocabulary teaching?
2. How can context be used to enhance vocabulary acquisition?
3. What strategies can be employed to assess vocabulary knowledge?
4. How does vocabulary knowledge impact reading comprehension?
5. What role does collocation play in vocabulary learning?
6. How can visual aids support vocabulary instruction?
7. What are the differences between receptive and productive vocabulary?
8. How can technology be integrated into vocabulary teaching and assessment?
9. What methods can be used to teach vocabulary in a second language?
10. How can teachers assess students' ability to use vocabulary in context?
11. What are some challenges faced when teaching vocabulary to young learners?
12. How can vocabulary assessment be differentiated for various proficiency levels?

13. What techniques can be used to encourage independent vocabulary learning?

14. How can formative assessment be used to gauge vocabulary retention?

15. What are the implications of vocabulary size for language proficiency?

Activities



1. Vocabulary Journal:

Objective: Encourage independent vocabulary learning.

Instructions: Students maintain a vocabulary journal where they record new words, their meanings, example sentences, and personal associations. Periodically, students can share their favorite entries with the class.

2. Word Mapping:

Objective: Deepen understanding of new vocabulary.

Instructions: Students create word maps for new vocabulary words, including definitions, synonyms, antonyms, and visual representations. This can be done individually or in small groups.

3. Vocabulary Games:

Objective: Make vocabulary learning interactive and fun.

Instructions: Implement games such as “Vocabulary Bingo,” “Pictionary,” or “Word Association” to reinforce vocabulary knowledge. This encourages participation and retention.

4. Vocabulary Assessment through Context:

Objective: Assess vocabulary in context.

Instructions: Provide students with sentences that have missing words (cloze tests). Students fill in the blanks with appropriate vocabulary words, demonstrating their understanding of word meanings in context.

5. Role-Playing Scenarios:

Objective: Practice vocabulary usage in real-life contexts.

Instructions: Students engage in role-playing activities where they must use specific vocabulary related to a theme (e.g., travel, shopping). Teachers assess their ability to use vocabulary appropriately in conversation.

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THEME №15. LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AT EARLY AGE. SENSITIVE PERIODS OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

15-mavzu: Erta yoshda tilni o‘zlashtirish. Tilni o‘zlashtirishda qiyin davrlar

Ushbu mashg‘ulot bo‘yicha quyidagi xulosaga kelish mumki: har bir fan bo‘yicha amaliy mashg‘ulotlar multimedia vositalari bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada o‘tkazilishi zarur. Mashg‘ulotlar faol va interaktiv usullar yordamida o‘tilishi, mos ravishda munosib pedagogik va axborot texnologiyalar qo‘llanilishi maqsadga muvofiq.

	Language Acquisition Definition:	The process by which individuals, particularly children, learn and develop the ability to understand and produce language. This includes the acquisition of vocabulary, grammar, phonetics, and pragmatics, typically occurring naturally through interaction and exposure.
First Language Acquisition Definition:	Language Acquisition Definition:	The process by which infants and young children learn their native language. This process typically occurs effortlessly and intuitively during the critical early years of development, often before formal education begins.
Sensitive Period Definition:		A specific timeframe during development when the brain is particularly receptive to learning certain skills, including language. Research suggests that there are optimal windows for acquiring

	language features, and exposure during these periods can lead to more proficient language skills.
Critical Period Hypothesis Definition:	The theory that there is a biologically determined window during which language acquisition occurs most easily and effectively. After this critical period, typically ending around puberty, language acquisition becomes more challenging, and proficiency may be limited.
Nativism Definition:	A linguistic theory that suggests humans are born with an innate ability to acquire language. Nativists argue that children have a built-in capacity, often referred to as the "language faculty," which facilitates language learning during sensitive periods.
Phonemic Awareness Definition:	The ability to recognize and manipulate the sounds (phonemes) in spoken language. This skill is crucial for language acquisition, especially in early childhood, as it helps children understand the relationship between sounds and letters, aiding literacy development.
Language Exposure Definition:	The amount and quality of language input that a child receives from their environment, including conversations, reading, and media. Early and rich language exposure is critical for optimal language acquisition and cognitive development.

Social Interaction Definition:	The engagement between individuals that fosters communication and language development. Social interaction, especially with caregivers and peers, is vital for young children's language acquisition, as it provides context and motivation for learning.
Expressive Language Development Definition:	The process by which children learn to communicate their thoughts, needs, and emotions through spoken, signed, or written language. This includes vocabulary development, sentence structure, and the ability to convey meaning effectively.
Receptive Language Development Definition:	The ability to understand language input, including vocabulary, grammar, and overall meaning. Receptive language skills typically develop before expressive language skills, allowing children to comprehend language even before they can articulate it.

Lecture



The early years of life are crucial for brain development. While genes outline the paths for development, early experiences with the environment and interactions with those around us shape brain structure and function, influencing how genes are expressed. Relationships with adult caregivers, the supportiveness and responsiveness of early environments are affected by policies, healthcare, education programs, and structural inequities impacting families.

Early childhood features critical or sensitive periods for learning. A critical period is defined as follows: “Certain environmental events must occur at specific times during an organism's development for normal development to take place.” This term refers to a peak period of plasticity, which is generally followed by decreased plasticity later in life (Newport, Bavelier, & Neville, 2001). For instance, certain visual and auditory functions develop early, and a lack of environmental stimulation in these areas can result in dysfunction. However, while childhood is vital for developing socioemotional and executive control skills, these abilities continue to mature throughout adolescence and beyond (Blakemore, 2008). This indicates that critical periods represent optimal times for development, but the human brain continues to evolve throughout life. Overall, a critical period is viewed as a gradual decline in learning capacity, with some ability to learn still present in mature organisms, albeit at a reduced level.

Early childhood is categorized into five stages: newborn, infant, toddler, preschool, and school-age. This paper specifically examines early childhood language acquisition in infants, toddlers, and preschool-aged children, focusing on the environmental factors that contribute to language development. Infancy is defined as the developmental period from birth to 1.5-2 years, toddlerhood spans from 1.5 to 3 years, and preschool age ranges from 3 to 6 years.

Research indicates that there are critical or sensitive periods for language acquisition, meaning that the age at which a person is exposed to a language affects their proficiency in that language. This is particularly relevant for phoneme perception and grammatical knowledge (Newport et al., 2001). Grammatical proficiency tends to decline after the age of eight, while the critical period for phonetic learning begins to decrease before the end of the first year of life. Vocabulary development usually accelerates between 18 to 24 months; however, learning new vocabulary is not as limited by age compared to other language learning aspects.

The next chapter will review the fundamental milestones in early language development.

Responsive relationships and a language-rich environment in early childhood lay the groundwork for language acquisition and cognitive development. Language development actually begins in the womb, where the fetus can perceive aspects of linguistic information, such as prosody or the melody of language. By the time of birth, newborns are primed to learn any language. Interestingly, infants who are exposed to two languages from early on maintain sensitivity to non-native contrasts longer than their monolingual counterparts (Höhle, Bijeljac-Babic, & Nazzi, 2019). As a result, monolingual infants become attuned to the regularities of their native language by the end of their first year, which aids them in becoming efficient word learners. Research shows that the ability to discriminate speech sounds predicts later vocabulary development; higher sensitivity to native speech sounds correlates with greater productive vocabulary scores at 18 and 24 months, while sensitivity to non-native speech sounds is linked to lower vocabulary scores (Kuhl et al., 2008).

In the first year of life, infants also become attuned to the phonotactic features specific to their native language, meaning they recognize permissible combinations of phonemes. They develop the ability to identify word boundaries using statistical and prosodic cues (Jusczyk et al., 1993). Evidence suggests that perceptual narrowing—where infants show reduced sensitivity to non-native sounds—also hinders word learning in the second year of life (Graf Estes et al., 2011). As a result, infants become less likely to learn words that contain unfamiliar sounds. Interestingly, bilingual infants exhibit a longer period of flexibility, allowing them to accept non-native words as potential word forms (Graf Estes & Hay, 2015).

During the second year, both receptive and productive vocabulary typically expand, although there is considerable variation in vocabulary knowledge and growth. Vocabulary development generally begins with nouns, while verbs are acquired later, as children's ability to understand

actions and relationships between objects and concepts matures. Various factors influence vocabulary growth, including the quantity and quality of language input, the family's socioeconomic status, and environmental conditions. Additionally, multilingual experiences during early childhood affect vocabulary acquisition. For example, bilingual children often have a smaller number of words in each of their languages (Hoff et al., 2012; Poulin-Dubois et al., 2013). However, it is important to note that the total vocabulary across both languages—referring to the combined words a child knows in both languages—is comparable to that of monolingual children (Pearson, Fernandez, & Oller, 1993).

Early language development relies heavily on responsive interactions with caregivers. Both the quantity and quality of language input play significant roles in this process. A child's language acquisition is closely associated with the amount of linguistic input they receive during early childhood through everyday experiences. The volume of speech input is crucial for various aspects of language acquisition, including statistical learning (Saffran, 2020) and the enhancement of word processing speed (Hurtado et al., 2008). Statistical learning is a key mechanism through which infants acquire knowledge about the frequencies and probabilities of linguistic items in their environment. Infants excel at using statistical regularities in their linguistic surroundings to identify and learn linguistic structures, such as native-language phonetic categories, word boundaries, and grammatical categories (Kuhl, 2004; Saffran, 2020). The amount of language input during infancy is also linked to lexical processing efficiency and vocabulary growth: the more speech a child hears in their early years, the better and faster their linguistic processing skills develop. Therefore, high-quality, frequent speech is crucial for infants to establish the fundamental functions of language.

In addition to quantity, the quality of language input is vital to the language acquisition process. Quality encompasses various linguistic and conversational practices, including the use of infant-directed speech, conversational contingency, responsive interactions, and engaging

learning contexts. Infants are drawn to infant-directed speech, characterized by repetitive intonational structures, clearer articulation, greater pitch variation, and a slower tempo (Cooper & Aslin, 1990). This type of speech has been shown to facilitate word learning (Ma et al., 2011). Additionally, research indicates that caregiver contingent talk—where caregivers discuss what is currently capturing the infant's attention—enhances word learning in infants (McGillion et al., 2017). Quality of language input also includes the richness of nonverbal and verbal interactions, such as joint engagement, routines, rituals, and smooth, connected communication (Hirsh-Pasek et al., 2015).

Although there are variations in the overall talkativeness of mothers and infants across different countries and communities, the contingent vocal responsiveness between mothers and infants is a consistent phenomenon across cultures. This consistency underscores its significance in child socialization and language development (Bornstein et al., 2015). Language development and social development are closely interconnected.

Influence of Family Socioeconomic Status

Vocabulary growth and development show considerable individual differences among infants and toddlers. By around two years of age, when children typically experience a "vocabulary spurt"—a rapid increase in word production—some children can express hundreds of words, while others may only have a few words in their vocabulary. Research indicates that variations in socioeconomic status (SES) are linked to differences in language development during infancy (e.g., Fernald et al., 2013) and in preschool years (e.g., Hoff, 2013; Levine et al., 2020). Unfortunately, there is also evidence that family SES is a predictor of academic outcomes throughout high school.

Although children from low socioeconomic status (SES) backgrounds often have parents with lower levels of education, income, and occupational prestige, research indicates that maternal education is the most significant predictor of children's language development

(Hoff, 2013). The impact of SES extends beyond vocabulary development; it also affects grammatical development, narrative skills, phonological awareness, and language processing speed (Hoff, 2013; Levine et al., 2020). Studies have shown that by age five, children from low-SES backgrounds tend to be 1 to 2 years behind their mid-SES peers in language skills (Levine et al., 2020).

These SES-related differences in children's language abilities are believed to stem from disparities in early language experiences. Such experiences encompass the amount of language input, conversational style (e.g., directing a child's behavior versus fostering conversation), fluency and connectedness in communication (both verbal and nonverbal), and the richness of vocabulary and syntactic structures in the speech to which children are exposed (Hoff, 2013; Masek et al., 2021). While these linguistic behaviors are often less prevalent in low-SES families, evidence suggests that some children from high-SES families may also experience inadequate parental talk, while certain lower-SES parents engage in above-average conversation with their children. This suggests significant variation within SES groups and indicates that all groups could benefit from interventions aimed at enriching their language environment (Gilkerson et al., 2017).

Maternal depression during pregnancy, the postpartum period, or in a more chronic form, can increase the likelihood of later cognitive and language development difficulties. Studies have shown that postpartum depression is linked to delays in language development (Lubotzky-Gete et al., 2021). Infants of depressed mothers are less likely to explore new situations, which may result in fewer learning opportunities (Sohr-Preston & Scaramella, 2006). Additionally, mothers who experience chronic depression may not respond sensitively to their infants' needs, leading to less engaging interactions.

Depression also affects how mothers read to their children, meaning that children of depressed mothers may enter preschool with less exposure to books and reading routines compared to their peers.

Moreover, the establishment and maturation of sleep-wake patterns in early childhood are crucial for language development. Research indicates that poor sleep consolidation during early infancy is a risk factor for language acquisition, and interventions targeting sleep routines in early childhood can be beneficial (Dionne et al., 2011).

In addition to the significance of family microsystems, the interaction between home and childcare settings is also vital. Children from lower-quality home environments, in particular, have been shown to benefit from the positive effects of high-quality childcare (Watanabe et al., 2011). Furthermore, the neighborhood where a family resides can impact child development. Kohen et al. (2008) noted that neighborhood disadvantage often manifests through reduced neighborhood cohesion, which is linked to maternal depression and family dysfunction.

Pre-primary education is a formal educational setting designed for children aged 3 to 5 years. During these preschool years, children's oral language skills are strengthened; vocabulary expands, abstract language use develops, and sentence structures become more complex. Oral language development is a crucial pre-literacy skill. Access to high-quality pre-primary education enhances readiness for primary school and helps bridge the achievement gap between children from advantaged and disadvantaged home environments. Key school readiness skills include social abilities, attention, and both receptive and expressive vocabulary.

Language skills are considered the strongest predictors of success across various academic and non-academic areas, including mathematics, reading, and social skills (Pace et al., 2019). However, the authors emphasize the importance of examining skill growth over time rather than focusing solely on static proficiency levels. The proficiency approach compares performance to fixed standardized test scores, while the growth approach assesses individual students based on their progress over time.

While the impact of parental influence on vocabulary and language development is well established, evidence also suggests that pre-primary education plays a critical role in developing language skills.

For instance, research indicates that the complexity of teachers' speech, particularly the use of complex sentences in the classroom, significantly enhances children's syntactic skills. A study conducted in the U.S. involving children from both high- and low-SES families found that those in classrooms with more syntactically complex teacher speech exhibited greater syntactic growth over a year of preschool (Huttenlocher et al., 2002). Notably, high-quality pre-primary education has lasting effects; another study involving low-income children revealed that preschool teachers' use of advanced vocabulary during free play was predictive of reading comprehension and word recognition by fourth grade (Dickinson & Porche, 2011).

Socioemotional competencies enhance classroom learning by helping children manage stress and foster positive social relationships with both teachers and peers. These competencies encompass a variety of interconnected skills, including relationship skills (such as cooperation, taking turns, and listening), social problem-solving, social awareness (recognizing emotions), self-management (regulating emotions), and self-awareness (understanding one's own emotions). These skills develop rapidly during the preschool years.

Sensitive periods are unique developmental phases in early childhood when children experience significant growth in specific areas. These periods occur during the first stage of development, from birth to approximately age six. The four sensitive periods are related to order, language, movement coordination, and sensory perception. For more information on sensitive periods, including the sensitive period for order, you can read further.

Today, we will focus on the sensitive period for language, which lasts from birth to around age six. During this time, children have an extraordinary capacity to acquire language. In the classroom, this development is fostered by providing rich language experiences, from the way the instructor communicates with the child to the vocabulary introduced in lessons, such as those involving the geometry cabinet.

Parents can also nurture their child's sensitive period for language at home. Creating a language-rich environment is one of the most effective and cost-efficient methods to support language development. Here are some strategies to enhance your child's sensitive period for language:

Move away from baby talk. From the moment they're born, use proper words when speaking to your child. It can be tempting to use a baby voice when you see a newborn, but resist that urge! Speak in a normal tone with real words, regardless of their age.

Read together! There is substantial research highlighting the benefits of reading to young children. Once they start talking, enhance your reading sessions by allowing them to narrate the story based on the pictures.

Explore outside your home! Take nature walks, visit museums, and try out new restaurants together. Use rich, descriptive language to explain what you see, feel, taste, and smell. Never assume a word is too complex for your child to understand!

Avoid associating a person's way of speaking with their intelligence. Children in their sensitive period for language will quickly pick up on these cues from adults around them. Introduce your child to various languages and diverse speaking styles, including poetry, stories from different cultures, and various music genres. Keep in mind that the sensitive period for language extends beyond just the sensitive period for English.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What is language acquisition, and how does it differ from language learning?
2. At what age do children typically begin to acquire language skills?
3. What are sensitive periods, and why are they important for language acquisition?
4. How do cognitive and social factors influence language acquisition in early childhood?

5. How do different types of interactions (e.g., child-directed speech) impact language development?
6. What are the critical differences in language acquisition between first and second languages?
7. How can parents and educators support language acquisition during sensitive periods?
8. What evidence exists to support the existence of sensitive periods for language acquisition?
9. How do bilingual environments affect language acquisition in young children?
10. What impact does the lack of language exposure have on language development?
11. How do cultural differences influence language acquisition in early childhood?
12. In what ways do environmental factors contribute to language development?
13. How do advances in neuroscience inform our understanding of language acquisition in early age?

Activities



1. Storytime Sessions:

Objective: Promote language exposure and engagement.

Instructions: Conduct regular storytime sessions where children listen to age-appropriate books. Follow up with discussions about the story, encouraging children to express their thoughts and questions.

2. Interactive Language Games:

Objective: Encourage language use in a playful context.

Instructions: Organize games like “Simon Says” or “I Spy,” where children must listen and respond, reinforcing their language skills through fun interactions.

3. Language-Rich Environment:

Objective: Create an immersive language experience.

Instructions: Set up a classroom or home environment filled with labels, picture books, and word charts. Encourage children to interact with these resources regularly.

4. Peer Conversations:

Objective: Foster social interaction and language practice.

Instructions: Arrange activities that require children to work in pairs or small groups, facilitating conversations about specific topics. This encourages language use in a social context.

5. Parent-Child Workshops:

Objective: Engage parents in supporting language development.

Instructions: Host workshops that educate parents on effective strategies for promoting language acquisition at home, such as reading aloud and engaging in conversations.

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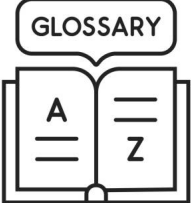
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THEME №16. PSYCHOLOGICAL, LINGUISTIC AND INSTRUCTIONAL BASES OF TEACHING ENGLISH TO YOUNG LEARNERS

16-mavzu: Talaba yoshlariga ingliz tilini o‘qitishning psixologik, lingvistik va uslubiy asoslari

Ushbu mashg‘ulot davomida ingliz tilini o‘qitishning psixologik, lingvistik va uslubiy asoslarining har xil usullari talabalariga o‘rgatiladi.

 Child-centered Learning	An educational approach that prioritizes the needs, interests, and learning styles of children. In teaching English to young learners, this method emphasizes active engagement and participation, allowing students to take ownership of their learning process.
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Constructivism	A learning theory that posits that learners construct knowledge through experiences and interactions. In the context of teaching English to young learners, constructivist approaches encourage students to connect new language concepts to their prior knowledge and experiences.
Language Acquisition Theory	Theories that explain how individuals learn languages, particularly in early childhood. Key theories include the Critical Period Hypothesis, which suggests there are optimal times for language learning, and Krashen's Input Hypothesis, which emphasizes the importance of comprehensible input.
Motivation	The internal and external factors that drive a learner's desire to engage in learning. Understanding motivational strategies is crucial in teaching English to young learners, as intrinsic motivation can significantly enhance language acquisition and retention.
Multimodal Learning	A teaching approach that incorporates multiple modes of learning, such as visual, auditory, and kinesthetic activities. This is particularly effective for young learners, who may benefit from engaging different senses to enhance language comprehension and retention.

Language Play	The playful use of language that encourages experimentation and creativity. Incorporating games, songs, and rhymes in English lessons can foster a positive learning environment, allowing young learners to explore language in a fun and engaging way.
Cognitive Development	The progression of thinking, problem-solving, and understanding that occurs as children grow. Understanding the stages of cognitive development, as proposed by theorists like Piaget, can inform how educators approach teaching language to young learners at different ages.
Formative Assessment	Ongoing assessments used to monitor student learning and provide feedback to improve instruction. In teaching English to young learners, formative assessments can take the form of observations, quizzes, or informal assessments that inform teaching strategies.
Differentiated Instruction	A teaching approach that tailors instruction to meet the diverse needs of students. In the context of teaching English to young learners, differentiated instruction may involve adapting activities, materials, and assessments based on students' varying language proficiencies and learning styles.

Lecture



The contemporary approach to language learning and teaching is grounded in sound linguistic principles.

Principle 1: Speech is Fundamental: Sounds should be presented in authentic expressions and sentences, delivered with the intonation and rhythm typical of a native speaker.

Principle 2: Introduce Basic Sentence Structures: Teach students fundamental sentence patterns commonly used in everyday conversations, encouraging them to memorize these structures. Starting with simple phrases allows students to progress to longer sentences, thereby enhancing their understanding of the language regarding sounds and vocabulary.

Principle 3: Language Patterns as Habits: According to R. Lado, "To teach a language is to impart a new system of complex habits, and habits are acquired slowly." True language proficiency exists at the habitual level, which means more than just knowing about the language. To establish language patterns as habits, engage students in intensive pattern practice across various contexts. Students should learn to use these language patterns and sentence structures with the appropriate vocabulary at a natural pace for effective communication.

Principle 4: Imitation: Imitation plays a crucial role in language learning. Effective speech emerges from mimicking good examples, and these models should be easily understandable.

Principle 5: Practice: Following imitation, intensive practice is essential for mastering the language system.

Principle 6: Controlled Vocabulary: Vocabulary should be managed carefully. It should be taught and practiced within the context of real-life situations to clarify and reinforce its meaning.

Principle 7: Gradual Patterns: Language patterns should be introduced gradually and in a cumulative manner. This approach means that each new element or pattern should build upon previous ones, with new language structures being introduced and practiced alongside vocabulary that students are already familiar with.

Principle 8: Selection and Gradation: Selecting appropriate language material is fundamental to effective teaching. This selection process should consider grammatical items, vocabulary, and language structures.

The selection of language items should consider the following factors:

1. ****Frequency****: How often a particular word or item is used.
2. ****Range****: The various contexts in which a word or item can be applied.
3. ****Coverage****: The number of different meanings that a word or item can express.
4. ****Availability****: The convenience of teaching a particular item.
5. ****Learnability****: The ease with which a word or item can be learned.
6. ****Teachability****: The ease with which a word or item can be taught within a social context.

Gradation of language material refers to organizing language items in a specific order. This process involves grouping and sequencing. Grouping pertains to (i) the structure of the language and (ii) its forms. Grouping the system of language involves determining which sounds, words, phrases, and meanings should be taught.

Grouping can be categorized into several types:

(i) ****Phonetic grouping****: This involves categorizing words based on their sounds. For instance, words that share the same ending sound, such as cat, bat, mat, pat, fat, and sat, are grouped together, as are words like it, bit, fit, hit, and kit.

(ii) ****Lexical grouping****: This refers to organizing words according to specific contexts. For example, words such as school, teacher, headmaster, peon, classroom, and library are all associated with the theme of “school.”

(iii) ****Grammatical grouping****: This involves organizing words based on similar grammatical patterns, such as my book/his book (pattern grouping) or in the room/in the corner/in the class/in the garden (phrase grouping).

(iv) **Semantic grouping**: This is the categorization of words based on their meanings. Examples include school, college, and university, or vehicle types like bicycle, rickshaw, car, tonga, train, and aeroplane.

(v) **Structure grouping**: This focuses on how selected items fit together, illustrating how sounds combine into words, words form phrases, phrases create clauses and sentences, and sentences contribute to a larger context.

Sequence refers to the order of elements, indicating what follows what. There should be a clear arrangement in terms of sounds (phonetic sequence), phrases (grammatical sequence), words (lexical sequence), and meanings (semantic sequence). The sequence of structures entails aspects such as direction, expansion, variation, and length of the structures.

Principle 8: The Oral Approach. Experts assert that the oral method is the most effective way to learn a language. Professor Kittson accurately notes, “Learning to speak a language is always the quickest path to learning to read and write it.” Similarly, Professor Palmer emphasizes that “we should hold off on reading and writing any material until we have mastered its spoken form.”

Principle 9: Prioritizing Language Skills. The four essential language skills are listening (with comprehension), speaking, reading, and writing. Listening and speaking are considered primary skills, while reading and writing are secondary skills that serve as reinforcement. These skills strengthen what has been learned through understanding and speaking, as comprehension and verbal communication enhance the reading process. Writing should be introduced after reading.

Principle 10: Multiple Approaches. The concept of multiple approaches means progressing from various points simultaneously toward the same goal. It advocates for the rejection of only useless material while carefully selecting all content that can aid in language learning. In practice, this means addressing language teaching from all angles. For example, if the lesson topic is “Holidays,” the teacher can engage students in various language activities related to the topic, such as oral drills, reading exercises, sentence writing, compositions, grammar, translations, and other language tasks.

****Principle 11: Developing Language Habits through Use****. A language is most effectively learned through its use in various contexts and situations. Professor Eugene A. Nida aptly states, “Language learning means immersing oneself in a range of diverse experiences, exposing oneself to situations where language use is necessary.” Another expert reinforces this idea, asserting that “learning a language involves forming new habits through intensive practice in reading and speaking. The focus should always be on the practical application of language”.

****Principle 1: Motivation****

Key factors that enhance motivation in language learning include minimizing confusion, creating a clear sense of progress, introducing competitions, using game-like exercises, fostering a positive teacher-student relationship, and offering variety in lessons.

****Principle 2: Immediate Correction****

Corrections are essential for improving students' responses. Corrections should be made immediately and in a manner that promotes learning without causing frustration or discouragement.

****Principle 3: Reinforcement****

Immediate reinforcement is crucial in learning. Studies show that reinforcing correct responses right away leads to better retention. Students should be informed of the correctness of their answers as soon as they provide them.

****Principle 4: Frequent Review****

Frequent review is necessary for retaining knowledge. Revisiting the same material regularly, while incorporating variations, enhances understanding and helps learners solidify their grasp of the language.

****Principle 5: Correct Responses****

An essential psychological principle in language learning is that classroom activities should reinforce language skills. Teachers should employ methods that encourage students to give correct responses as often as possible, as this promotes a sense of success, achievement, and progress.

****Principle 6: Practice in Everyday Situations****

A language is learned most effectively when it is used in everyday situations. Therefore, students should practice English in daily contexts that they can easily relate to.

In summary, children's experiences and environment should serve as the foundation for language learning. If students struggle to recall something familiar that connects with a new language item, they should be guided.

These principles serve as suggestions, not strict rules, for effective language teaching and learning.

1. Focus on teaching the language itself, not just information about it.
2. Begin by teaching the spoken language, rather than its written form.
3. Teach the language as it naturally exists, without personal interpretations.
4. Emphasize the language, not its literature.
5. Teach the current form of the language, not its historical evolution.
6. Approach language as a practical skill, rather than a purely intellectual exercise.
7. Present the language in diverse and engaging contexts.
8. Ensure maximum exposure to the language.
9. Give appropriate importance to vocabulary.
10. Use the mother tongue as a tool for learning, not as the primary medium.
11. Reinforce correct responses immediately.

Seminar lesson

Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions



1. What are the psychological characteristics of young learners that influence their language acquisition?
2. How does cognitive development affect the language learning process in young children?

3. What role do motivation and engagement play in teaching English to young learners?
4. How do social interactions among peers contribute to language learning in children?
5. What are the key linguistic features of English that young learners should focus on?
6. How can teachers utilize children's first language as a resource in the English learning process?
7. What instructional strategies are most effective for teaching English to young learners?
8. How can teachers create a supportive and nurturing learning environment for young learners?
9. In what ways can games and playful activities enhance language learning in children?
10. How does the use of visual aids and multimedia resources support language acquisition in young learners?
11. What strategies can teachers employ to foster independent language learning in young children?

Activities



1. Role-Playing Scenarios:

Objective: Encourage language use in real-life contexts.

Instructions: Create scenarios where students can role-play various situations (e.g., shopping, visiting a doctor) using English phrases and vocabulary relevant to the situation.

2. Storytelling Sessions:

Objective: Develop listening and speaking skills.

Instructions: Invite children to listen to a story and then encourage them to retell the story in their own words, promoting vocabulary development and comprehension.

3. Interactive Language Games:

Objective: Make learning enjoyable and engaging.

Instructions: Use games like “Simon Says,” “I Spy,” or vocabulary bingo to reinforce language concepts in a fun manner.

4. Visual Vocabulary Boards:

Objective: Enhance vocabulary retention through visual aids.

Instructions: Create a vocabulary board with pictures and words. Encourage children to add new words and their meanings as they learn.

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THEME №17. SIMILIARITIES AND DIFFERENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH AT KINDERGARTEN AND PRIMARY SCHOOL

17-mavzu: Bolalar bog‘chasida va boshlang‘ich maktabda ingliz tilini o‘qitishdagi o‘xshashlik va farqlar

Ushbu mashg‘ulot davomida maktabgacha ta’lim muassasalari va boshlang‘ich maktablarda ingliz tilini o‘qitishdagi o‘xshashlik va farqlar har xil tartibda dars davomida talabalariga o‘rgatib boriladi.

	Language Acquisition	The process by which individuals learn a language, encompassing both first and second languages, through exposure and interaction.
	Developmentally Appropriate Practice	Educational practices that are tailored to the age, individual needs, and developmental levels of children, ensuring that learning experiences are suitable and effective.
	Play-Based Learning	An educational approach that emphasizes learning through play, allowing children to explore, create, and engage with their environment in a fun and meaningful way.
	Curriculum Structure	The organization and content of educational programs, including the subjects taught and the learning objectives set for different grade levels.
	Assessment Approaches	The methods used to evaluate student learning, understanding, and proficiency, which can include formal tests, informal observations, and portfolios.

Teacher's Role	The responsibilities and functions of educators in the classroom, which can vary from facilitators of learning in kindergarten to more directive instructors in primary school.
Interactive Resources	Materials and tools, such as games, songs, and visual aids, designed to engage students actively in the learning process.
Social-Emotional Development Definition:	The development of a child's ability to understand and manage emotions, establish positive relationships, and make responsible decisions, crucial for early education.
Academic Achievement	The measurable performance of students in educational settings, often evaluated through standardized tests and assessments.
Oral Language Skills	The abilities related to speaking and listening, including vocabulary usage, pronunciation, and conversational skills, important for early language learners.
Phonemic Awareness	The recognition and manipulation of the individual sounds (phonemes) in spoken words, an essential skill for developing reading and writing abilities.
Structured Lessons	Lessons that are planned and organized around specific learning objectives, typically found more often in primary school settings.
Thematic Units	Integrated units of study that connect multiple subjects around a central theme,

	often used in kindergarten to promote cross-disciplinary learning.
Grammar Instruction	The teaching of the rules and structure of a language, typically introduced more formally in primary school education.
Cooperative Learning	A teaching strategy that involves students working together in groups to achieve common learning goals, fostering collaboration and communication skills.

Lecture



Instructional approaches and teaching practices are closely connected. An approach involves a collection of integrated methods teachers use to enhance a specific style of teaching (Beder, Lipnevich, and Robinson-Geller 2007).

Both approaches and practices are shaped by the educational objectives teachers aim to achieve. Depending on their approach, teachers prioritize different activities to help students meet various learning goals (den Brok et al. 2004; Ornstein 1991). There are generally three main approaches, reflecting distinct theories of learning and teaching (Entwistle 1998; Opdenakker and Van Damme 2006; Shuell 1996).

The first approach is the traditional perspective. In this method, teachers structure the learning environment and classroom activities based on teacher- or subject-centered principles (Opdenakker and Van Damme 2006). To ensure students acquire fundamental knowledge and skills, teachers employ formal routines aligned with curriculum standards (Entwistle 1998; Saban, Kocbeker, and Saban 2007; Shuell 1996; Wells 2002). Research shows that using didactic practices like direct instruction, lectures, and drills often leads to rote learning, where students memorize and recall information through repetition (den Brok et al. 2004; O'Sullivan

2006; Perry, Donohue, and Weinstein 2007). Teachers commonly provide uniform activities that reinforce traditional instruction (Nuthall 2002), though they may still consider individual student differences (as seen in the cognitive-constructivist approach) and adapt practices based on students' growth (Wenglinsky 2002).

The second approach is the cognitive-constructivist perspective. This approach emphasizes active knowledge-building, critical thinking, and deeper understanding, encouraging students to question and engage with the material (Hugener et al. 2009; Schuh 2004; Shuell 1996). To promote deeper learning, teachers use strategies like questioning, exploration, and discussions (Hugener et al. 2009; ten Dam and Volman 2004; Schuh 2004). Research has shown that constructivist practices support higher-order thinking, especially when activities are tailored to students' skill levels, enabling them to build on existing knowledge (ten Dam and Volman 2004). Teachers in this approach address individual needs, providing scaffolding and guidance to support student learning (Perry, Donohue, and Weinstein 2007).

The third approach is the social-constructivist perspective, which emphasizes the construction and interpretation of knowledge through collaboration and connecting new information with prior knowledge and experience. Teachers create problem-solving activities in groups (e.g., experiments, discovery tasks, role-playing) to foster mutual cooperation among students, enhancing both their social and cognitive development (Nuthall 2002; Ota, Berdondini, and Kutnick 2007). By encouraging peer interaction, teachers stimulate students' interest and initiative, helping them make meaningful connections between academic content and real-world situations (Nuthall 2002). This approach not only strengthens higher-level academic skills but also positively impacts students' motivation and achievement, particularly in primary grades (Ota, Berdondini, and Kutnick 2007; Perry, Donohue, and Weinstein 2007).

Teachers play a key role in assisting, monitoring, and guiding students as they build knowledge, develop independence, and enhance their social skills.

Research indicates that a significant number of teachers still favor traditional teaching methods, with fewer supporting the cognitive-constructivist approach and even fewer endorsing the social-constructivist approach (den Brok et al. 2004; Palu and Kikas 2007; Ota, Berdondini, and Kutnick 2007; Stipek 2004). For example, Perry, Donohue, and Weinstein (2007) found that many primary school teachers tend to focus more on students' academic development rather than their socio-emotional growth. This preference may be due to teachers believing that traditional methods are more effective (Graue 2005; Opdenakker and Van Damme 2006; Perry, Donohue, and Weinstein 2007). Additionally, an overloaded curriculum may limit the use of social-constructivist practices, which emphasize application and real-life problem solving (Kikas et al. 2009; Uibu, Kikas, and Tropp, forthcoming). Teachers' instructional preferences are shaped by various factors, including their fundamental beliefs, age, experience, and the demands of the curriculum and educational system (Demant and Yates 2003; Guskey 2002; Meijnen, Lagerweij, and de Jong 2003; Palu and Kikas 2007; Schuh 2004; Van Driel, Bulte, and Verloop 2007).

Kindergarten and primary school teachers should tailor their educational focus to align with students' developmental stages, requiring different instructional approaches and teaching practices based on the school level. In kindergarten, the emphasis is placed on nurturing cognitive skills (such as attention, memory, and reasoning) and social skills (like peer collaboration), as well as supporting self-regulation. This demands age-appropriate activities such as play and small-group work, often linked to constructivist approaches. While pre-academic skills (like speaking, listening, reading, and calculating) are also developing, teachers should avoid overemphasizing academic skill development and drilling for school readiness (Bracken and Fischel 2006; Knight and Waxman

1991; Perry, Donohue, and Weinstein 2007). Instead, the focus should be on fostering individuality, independence, and strong social skills in preschool-aged children. Longitudinal studies from the USA have shown a link between preschool social competencies and later academic success (e.g., Spira, Bracken, and Fischel 2005; Stipek 2004). In primary grades, however, the focus on supporting students' academic development becomes more significant.

The use of comprehension and application practices aligned with the cognitive-constructivist approach is essential in education. However, the development of students' social and self-regulation skills often takes a back seat as teachers prioritize knowledge acquisition (Cremin, Burnard, and Craft 2006). Thus, teaching practices and instructional methods should adapt to both children's developmental stages and school levels. In early childhood education, the benefits of cognitive-constructivist and social-constructivist approaches over traditional methods have been emphasized (Stipek 2004; Stipek and Byler 2004). Empirical research has shown that activities fostering application and collaboration boost children's social skills, pro-social behavior, and learning motivation (Stipek et al. 1998; Peisner-Feinberg and Burchinal 1997; Sylva et al. 2006). Additionally, cognitive-constructivist practices support students' individual differences (Nuthall 2002). However, the effectiveness of constructivist approaches in improving academic skills remains unclear (Stipek 2004). Some studies suggest that cognitive outcomes improve when teachers emphasize both basic knowledge and social competencies (Bryant et al. 1994; Perry, Donohue, and Weinstein 2007; Graue 2005). Teachers play a key role in helping students reach their goals, nurture their ideas, and guide their learning (den Brok et al. 2004). Conversely, research has shown that young children in kindergarten and early primary grades may not yet be ready for complex group work or social-constructivist activities (Azmitia 1996; Ota, Berdondini, and Kutnick 2007). Furthermore, focusing too much on individual needs and interests (as in

the cognitive-constructivist approach) may leave crucial aspects of academic achievement underdeveloped.

The integration of comprehension and application practices, central to the cognitive-constructivist approach, is vital in education. However, teachers often prioritize knowledge acquisition, which can overshadow the development of students' social and self-regulation skills (Cremin, Burnard, and Craft 2006). Therefore, teaching practices and methods need to be adjusted based on students' developmental stages and the level of schooling. In early childhood education, cognitive-constructivist and social-constructivist methods are generally preferred over traditional approaches (Stipek 2004; Stipek and Byler 2004). Research indicates that activities encouraging application and collaboration enhance children's social skills, pro-social behavior, and motivation for learning (Stipek et al. 1998; Peisner-Feinberg and Burchinal 1997; Sylva et al. 2006). Furthermore, cognitive-constructivist strategies cater to individual student differences (Nuthall 2002). However, the impact of these methods on academic skill development remains uncertain (Stipek 2004). Some studies suggest that cognitive outcomes are more favorable when teachers focus on both basic knowledge and social skills (Bryant et al. 1994; Perry, Donohue, and Weinstein 2007; Graue 2005). Teachers are instrumental in guiding students, helping them achieve their goals, and fostering their ideas (den Brok et al. 2004). On the other hand, research also suggests that young children in kindergarten and early grades may not be fully prepared for complex group work or social-constructivist activities (Azmitia 1996; Ota, Berdondini, and Kutnick 2007). Additionally, placing too much emphasis on individual needs and interests (as in the cognitive-constructivist approach) might leave important aspects of academic achievement underdeveloped.

Like other post-communist nations, Estonia has undergone significant social and educational reforms in recent decades. There have been major changes in teacher education, with preschool and primary school teacher training now offered at universities. An induction year for new teachers

has been introduced, and extensive in-service training programs have been established to enhance teachers' qualifications (European Commission 2008–9; Teadmistepõhine Eesti 2007). Additionally, new courses in education and psychology have been added to university curricula. Constructivist principles, such as critical thinking and cooperation skills, as well as a focus on student-centered learning, are emphasized in official educational documents (Estonian National Development Plan 2005; Koolieelse lasteasutuse riiklik 2008; Põhikooli ja gümnaasiumi 2007).

The current Estonian educational system for younger students consists of preschool (kindergarten) and primary education, which encompasses the first and second stages of basic education. Preschool education, available until the age of 7, is voluntary, while primary education is compulsory for children aged 7 to 10 or 12. Typically, the same kindergarten teachers instruct children from ages 3 to 6, and primary school teachers continue with the same students from ages 7 to 10, and sometimes up to 12 (European Commission 2008–9).

When comparing the educational principles outlined in the curricula for preschool and primary education in Estonia, several key differences emerge. The reformed National Curriculum of Basic and Gymnasium Education (Põhikooli ja gümnaasiumi 2007) sets high standards. In primary education, there is a strong emphasis on students' academic progress, leading teachers to concentrate more on subject content and student assessment. Conversely, the new Early Childhood Education Syllabus (Koolieelse lasteasutuse riiklik 2008) places less emphasis on academic achievement, advocating for a more holistic approach to early years education.

While educational reforms are underway and the shift from authoritarianism to democracy is evident, significant changes in classrooms may take time. This is primarily because most current teachers were educated and worked in Soviet Estonia. Their actions are shaped by beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions formed during their own schooling (Guskey 2002; Kyriacides, Campbell, and Christofidou 2002)

(Lam and Kember 2006; Valsiner 2006). Research has shown that previous attitudes and experiences significantly affect teachers' behaviors, with beliefs and understandings remaining relatively stable (Georgiou and Tourva 2007; Guskey 2002; Tryggvason 2009). As a result, Estonian teachers may still lean toward structured teaching methods and rote-learning practices that were prevalent during the Soviet era. Furthermore, a crowded curriculum can also impact teachers' behaviors and their preferred teaching methods.

First, it is important to examine the various teaching practices that kindergarten and primary school teachers commonly employ. Despite significant changes in Estonia's cultural and educational landscape (Estonian National Development Plan 2005), we hypothesized that teachers would still favor practices that encourage rote learning. This preference may stem from their own educational experiences (Valsiner 2006).

Second, we aimed to investigate the differences in instructional approach preferences between kindergarten and primary school teachers. Research at the basic school level indicates that as students mature, teachers tend to focus more on cognitive development and knowledge acquisition rather than on enhancing social competencies (Marchant, Paulson, and Rothlisberg 2001; Wenglinsky 2002). Thus, we anticipated that kindergarten teachers would place less emphasis on traditional practices—such as knowledge acquisition, memorization, and rote learning—compared to their primary school counterparts.

Third, we sought to explore differences in instructional approach preferences among kindergarten and primary school teachers based on their teaching experience. Given the recent changes in Estonia's school and university curricula (Uibu, Kikas, and Tropp, forthcoming), we expected that less experienced teachers would be less inclined to favor traditional practices than their more experienced colleagues.

Fourth, we aimed to identify subgroups of teachers characterized by different instructional approaches and teaching practices. Since employing

a variety of instructional principles is crucial for the dynamic development of students, teachers may blend the strengths of traditional and alternative methods (Schuh 2004). While the unique developmental needs and learning styles of students necessitate adaptations in teaching approaches, teachers generally tend to prefer a consistent method (Guskey 2002). Accordingly, we anticipated discovering clusters of teachers who primarily utilize traditional, cognitive-constructivist, or social-constructivist instructional approaches, as well as those who adopt mixed strategies.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What are the main developmental characteristics of children in kindergarten compared to those in primary school?
2. How do teaching methods differ between kindergarten and primary school in terms of language acquisition?
3. What role does play-based learning have in kindergarten education for English language teaching?
4. In what ways do the curriculum objectives differ between kindergarten and primary school for English language learners?
5. How can teachers adapt their assessment strategies to suit the different age groups of kindergarten and primary school students?
6. What types of instructional materials are most effective for teaching English to kindergarteners versus primary school students?
7. How does the attention span of kindergarten children compare to that of primary school students, and how should this influence teaching strategies?

8. What are some common challenges teachers face when transitioning students from kindergarten to primary school in English language learning?

9. How can teachers ensure continuity in language learning as students move from kindergarten to primary school?

10. What are the implications of sociocultural differences in teaching English at these two educational levels?

Activities



1. Group Discussion:

Divide students into groups to discuss their experiences with teaching English at both levels. Encourage them to share observations and insights on effective practices and challenges.

2. Comparison Chart:

Have students create a chart comparing and contrasting teaching methods, assessment strategies, and classroom environments in kindergarten and primary school.

3. Role-Play:

In pairs, have students role-play as a kindergarten teacher and a primary school teacher, simulating a typical lesson in each setting to illustrate differences in approach.

4. Lesson Plan Development:

Ask students to develop a lesson plan for a specific topic in English. They should create two versions: one for kindergarten and one for primary school, highlighting the adjustments made for each age group.

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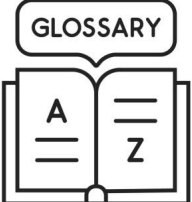
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THEME №18. DIFFICULTIES OF TEACHING ENGLISH AT PRIMARY SCHOOL

18-mavzu: Boshlang'ich maktablarda ingliz tilini o'qitishdagi qiyinchiliklar

Ushbu mashg'ulot davomida boshlang'ich maktablarda ingliz tilini o'qitishdagi qiyinchiliklar, ularni bartaraf qilishdagi har xil usullar tavsiflanadi.

 Limited Attention Span	The short period during which young learners can focus on a task or lesson.
Lack of Motivation	A disinterest in learning a new language, often due to a lack of understanding of its importance or enjoyment.
Pronunciation Issues	The difficulty that young learners face in correctly pronouncing unfamiliar English sounds.
Classroom Management	The strategies used by teachers to maintain order and encourage productive learning in the classroom.
Linguistic Interference	The influence of a student's native language on their use of English, leading to errors in grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation.
Diverse Learning Styles	The different ways in which children learn, such as visually, auditorily, or kinesthetically.
Limited Exposure to English	The small amount of time students have to interact with English outside of the classroom.

Lecture



The readiness of schools and the proficiency levels of students are interconnected when it comes to teaching English in primary education. Schools are considered prepared to teach English if they have a sufficient number of English teachers, resources, and textbooks. This is particularly important because primary school students, typically aged 6 to 12, are

thought to be in an optimal age range for language learning, aligning with the belief that younger learners acquire English more effectively.

While primary English instruction presents both benefits and challenges, this article explores these aspects by discussing the advantages and disadvantages based on theories and research findings. Additionally, it proposes solutions to these challenges, offering guidelines for educational institutions that aim to provide high-quality English instruction.

Students' motivation to learn English varies significantly due to this situation. Some students find learning English easy and enjoyable, while others view it as difficult and exhausting. It is crucial to support and motivate those who are disinterested in learning English by showing them that it can be an exciting and fun language, alongside providing suitable English lessons. Consequently, schools equipped with the necessary resources—such as media, English-language books, and qualified teachers—are better positioned to facilitate effective language learning and support their students.

Teaching English in elementary schools presents several challenges. For young learners, learning English can have both positive and negative effects. If the activities are engaging and relevant to their lives, they can be beneficial and motivate them to learn. However, if the activities are dull and disconnected from their experiences, they may become counterproductive, leading to a dislike for learning English.

Numerous studies have been conducted on the topic of teaching English in primary schools, highlighting factors such as textbooks, the availability of English teachers, parental awareness, and the social status and interests of students. These factors clearly indicate that teaching English in primary schools involves various difficulties and challenges. Therefore, providing solutions can help educational institutions address any issues that arise during the implementation of English language instruction. Solutions may include offering training for English teachers,

raising parental awareness about the importance of English, and inspiring students with engaging lesson plans, among other initiatives.

In addition to local and national languages, English is now taught as a foreign language in Indonesian schools. However, it is still considered a local content subject, meaning schools have the discretion to decide whether to teach English based on their specific needs and geographical contexts. While English was not previously taught in primary schools, it is now recognized as essential for various subjects such as science, technology, and culture.

Consequently, the Indonesian government has opted to include English in the elementary school curriculum through the School-Based Curriculum.

Learning a language becomes more challenging when acquired after the optimal age, which is typically between 2 and 14 years. This suggests that individuals over the age of 14, including adults, will face greater difficulties in learning English. According to another source, most students start learning a foreign language around ages 8 to 9, as this period is considered the most advantageous for language acquisition. During these years, it is believed that students will not struggle to learn a foreign language with the right support from their teachers.

Additionally, preschoolers have brains that are more flexible, connected, and active than those of adults, which enhances their ability to learn. Children also exhibit strong social skills, enjoy engaging in play and movement, and possess high levels of imagination and creativity. Therefore, if English teachers take into account their students' needs and understand their backgrounds—such as their environment, culture, and interests—the teaching and learning of English in the classroom can be significantly more effective.

Moreover, factors beyond age can expedite language acquisition among young learners. The successful introduction of English in primary schools is influenced by various elements, including social interaction, family background, learning strategies, educational materials and media,

socioeconomic status, motivation, language aptitude, and the quality of teachers. Without motivation and early support for language aptitude, young learners may struggle to learn English.

This challenge can also arise due to the quality of instruction, teaching methods, socioeconomic background, available media and resources, social interactions, and family history. Success in language learning is unlikely without adequate support for their English studies.

Elementary school teachers are expected to evaluate the advantages, challenges, and possible solutions related to various factors that influence the effectiveness of English instruction. The next focus will be on the methods used for teaching English in primary schools. One key aspect of teaching English to young learners is highlighted, as it addresses the unique needs of this age group. Young students exhibit several characteristics, including being egocentric, imaginative, active, self-centered, easily bored, and having difficulty distinguishing between concrete and abstract concepts. They also tend to have short attention spans, prefer to work independently, and enjoy discovering new things. When it comes to language acquisition, they learn best through hands-on activities.

Primary school English instruction serves multiple purposes, which can be categorized mainly into socialization and interaction. The goals of interaction include aiding children in acquiring and applying knowledge, such as spelling, developing physical skills like cutting and handwriting, and mastering more complex skills like reading. Meanwhile, socialization enables children to interact and collaborate with their peers while also helping them understand their place within a larger society. Activities such as working in pairs, playing games, and singing along to songs can all facilitate this process in the classroom.

Primary school English instruction fulfills several roles, primarily categorized into socialization and interaction. The aim of interaction is to facilitate children's acquisition and application of knowledge, including skills like spelling, physical abilities such as cutting and handwriting, and

more complex skills like reading. Socialization, on the other hand, helps children interact and collaborate with their peers, as well as understand their place in a larger community. Activities such as working in pairs, playing games, and singing songs can all be integrated into the classroom to support these objectives.

The central hypothesis of this study will be explored in the following discussion, which addresses the benefits of teaching English in elementary schools, the challenges involved, and potential solutions. These ideas are derived from various studies on English instruction in primary education. Research indicates that learning English in elementary school offers numerous advantages, as noted in multiple sources. The consensus is that the benefits of teaching English in elementary settings outweigh the drawbacks. These advantages include heightened awareness, improved language fluency, increased confidence, and the opportunity for early learning. The specific benefits identified by researchers will be discussed in more detail.

Teaching English in elementary schools can enhance students' awareness of their native language, as noted by researchers. Interestingly, many Indonesian students may be fluent in their native language yet still struggle with English proficiency. This suggests that a solid foundation in Indonesian is crucial for these students as they learn English as a foreign language. Furthermore, incorporating English instruction at this level offers students the opportunity to cultivate greater intercultural competence and global awareness.

This means that through learning English, students can better appreciate the diversity of cultures across different countries. Such experiences foster a more positive mindset, making them more tolerant and respectful towards others. As English serves as a global language, it is recognized as one of the most effective means for communicating with people from various backgrounds and understanding their cultures.

Moreover, since primary school students generally have more time to engage in foreign language learning, teaching them English can

significantly improve their pronunciation and fluency. Regular practice of correct pronunciation will help students become more fluent speakers of the language.

If students struggle to understand the lesson, their confidence may decline. One proposed solution to boost their self-confidence is to teach them English at a young age. When students are proficient in English, they are likely to feel more comfortable participating in lessons and responding to their teacher's questions.

Additionally, because learning during early childhood is often natural, engaging, social, multisensory, active, and experiential, children tend to learn more effectively than adults. When these ideal conditions are present, students can achieve a high level of language proficiency.

These findings highlight several advantages of teaching English in primary schools. They suggest that it is beneficial for children to recognize that multiple languages exist for communication and to understand the distinctions between first, second, and foreign languages. This awareness can enhance their understanding of both their native language and the foreign language they are studying, leading to greater confidence when speaking English. As a result, they are likely to pronounce words more clearly and speak more fluently than those who lack confidence in the language.

Internal factors include identity, motivation, and pedagogy, while external factors encompass textbooks, educational materials, teachers' English proficiency, and class size. The following discusses these difficulties in more detail.

One of the main challenges related to internal factors is pedagogical competence, which refers to the effective implementation of instructional strategies. In language education, there are several innovative approaches. However, teachers may face difficulties in integrating these methods for various reasons, such as their unsuitability for large class sizes or resource-limited environments. Consequently, educators must exert extra effort to successfully implement these teaching techniques.

Children's diverse motivations can also make it challenging to engage them in learning the language. Some may struggle to understand English, while others may not face the same difficulties. Additionally, infrequent assessments of students' progress can be a minor issue, as assessments are essential for gauging how well students have comprehended the material.

Students may lack motivation to learn English if they do not receive support from their parents. Another challenge arises from identity issues.

Teaching English to young learners who possess a global outlook while helping them maintain their national identity can be complex. National identity is defined as a scenario where a large group of people shares a common identification with national symbols and has internalized these symbols. This concept acknowledges that each nation has its own unique identity, which sets it apart from others. It implies that students can express patriotism through their ability to communicate in both their local dialects and Indonesian. However, fostering pride in students' national identities while they are learning English proves to be a significant challenge.

The second challenge stems from external factors, particularly concerning textbooks. In some countries, the absence of textbooks presents a significant obstacle, as they are crucial for aiding students in their English language acquisition. In Indonesia, although the government mandates the use of textbooks, it does not prohibit the incorporation of other resources that can assist teachers in delivering effective lessons.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What are the most common challenges teachers face when teaching English to primary school students?
2. How do varying levels of language proficiency among students affect teaching strategies in primary school?

3. In what ways does the lack of motivation among young learners impact their English language learning?

4. How can teachers address the limited attention spans of primary school students during English lessons?

5. What role does classroom management play in overcoming difficulties in teaching English at the primary level?

6. How can cultural differences among students be addressed in the English language curriculum?

7. What are the challenges associated with assessing the language skills of primary school students?

8. How can parent involvement be encouraged to support English language learning at home?

9. What technological resources can be utilized to enhance English language teaching in primary schools?

10. How can teacher training programs better prepare educators for the challenges of teaching English to primary school students?

Activities



1. Group Brainstorming Session:

Have participants discuss and list the difficulties they have encountered or anticipate when teaching English at the primary level. Follow this with a group discussion on potential solutions.

2. Case Study Analysis:

Present case studies of common challenges faced in primary school English classrooms. Have participants work in groups to develop strategies for overcoming these challenges.

3. Role-Playing:

In pairs, have participants role-play a scenario involving a difficult classroom situation. Afterward, discuss different approaches that could be taken to resolve the situation.

4. Resource Sharing:

Encourage participants to bring or share resources (books, games, technology) that they have found helpful in overcoming difficulties in teaching English to young learners.

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THEME №19. TYPES OF MATERIALS FOR YOUNG LEARNERS

19-mavzu: Yosh o‘quvchilar uchun materiallar turlari

Ushbu mashg‘ulot davomida boshlang‘ich maktablarda ingliz tilini o‘qitishdagi yosh o‘quvchilar uchun materiallar turlari o‘rgatiladi.

 Flashcards	Cards that display images or words to aid vocabulary learning, often used for games and interactive activities.
Picture Books	Illustrated books that combine images and text, helping young learners develop language skills through storytelling and visual context.
Songs and Chants	Musical pieces designed to teach language concepts through rhythm and melody, enhancing memory retention and pronunciation skills.
Games	Structured activities that engage students in language use and practice, fostering collaboration and making learning enjoyable.
Worksheets	Printed pages with exercises and activities for practice and reinforcement of vocabulary, grammar, and comprehension skills.
Storytelling Props	Physical items or puppets used during storytelling to enhance engagement and understanding, making narratives more interactive.

Digital Resources	Online tools, apps, and multimedia content that provide interactive language learning experiences through videos, games, and quizzes.
Role-Play Materials	Props and scenarios used to facilitate role-playing activities, allowing students to practice language in real-life contexts.
Posters	Visual aids displayed in the classroom featuring vocabulary, grammar rules, or thematic content to reinforce learning.
Educational Software	Computer programs or applications designed to support language learning through interactive exercises, games, and assessments.
Craft Materials	Supplies for creative activities that integrate language learning with arts and crafts, promoting vocabulary acquisition through hands-on experiences.
Audio Materials	Recordings of stories, songs, or conversations that help improve listening skills and pronunciation for young learners.
Interactive Whiteboards	Digital boards that allow teachers to present materials dynamically and engage students through touch and interaction.
Videos and Cartoons	Visual media that provide context for language use, capturing students' attention while introducing vocabulary and grammar in an entertaining format.

Language Learning Apps	Mobile applications designed to facilitate language practice through games, quizzes, and interactive activities specifically for young learners.
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Lecture



Materials play a crucial role for teachers in helping students learn English. More broadly, materials can be defined as anything specifically designed to enhance students' understanding and experience of the language.

This includes textbooks (coursebooks), workbooks, storybooks, videos, audio cassettes, pictures, brochures, menus, interactive CDs, and other real-life artifacts (Moon, 2003:86). When choosing and selecting materials for teaching, several factors should be considered, such as whether to create the materials ourselves, how to select suitable resources for our students, how to adapt materials to aid our learners, and the benefits of either adapting or creating our own teaching materials. This article aims to discuss these considerations in selecting, adapting, or creating learning materials for teaching English to students.

Today, there is a wide range of materials readily available in stores, including course books from various publishers, picture cards, storybooks, and interactive language activity CDs. Teachers can select and utilize one or more of these resources in their teaching practices. However, several questions may arise, such as whether the materials are appropriate for the students' age, interests, and cognitive development, whether to create their own materials or purchase them, and whether they have the budget and time to produce or buy these resources.

Additionally, teachers may wonder if they should rely solely on the materials from the course books or how many supplementary materials they can incorporate into the classroom to enhance the core materials.

According to Moon (2003:86), teachers' circumstances vary in at least three ways when it comes to creating materials. Some teachers have access to a variety of course books and supplementary materials, while others are required to follow a specific textbook, and some do not use course books at all and instead create their own materials. However, most teachers have at least one course book available. It is important to note that textbooks are generally designed for a broad student audience and may not meet specific needs. In contrast, when teachers attempt to create their own materials, they often encounter challenges such as time constraints, limited funds, lack of expertise and experience, low self-confidence, and insufficient reference materials. To address these common challenges, Moon (2003) offers several solutions:

Problem 1: Lack of time for designing materials

Involve your students in tasks like cutting, gluing, and other hands-on activities. They can also create illustrations for the teachers. This approach is beneficial because it makes students feel engaged in the design process of their learning materials, while also giving them an opportunity to use the target language. Additionally, teachers will benefit from having more materials produced.

Problem 2: Lack of financial resources

Collaborating with other teachers within the same school or district can help alleviate this issue. For example, cards or worksheets can be laminated for reuse, extending their lifespan. Students can record their answers in their own notebooks.

Problem 3: Lack of skills and expertise

Teachers who have several years of teaching experience will likely have gained valuable expertise. The key is to be confident and willing to try designing materials. Those with limited experience can always adapt and modify materials and activities from their course books.

Problem 4: Lack of Coursebooks/Reference Books for Ideas

Collaborating with other teachers from the same school or nearby schools is a great way to gather ideas. Joining teacher groups aimed at professional development is another beneficial option.

Subscribing to a teacher's magazine and sharing the cost with colleagues can also be advantageous. Additionally, teachers can find numerous useful activities online by exploring various websites for pictures or lesson plan examples. Two particularly resourceful sites that offer flashcards and stickers are www.mes-english.com and www.bogglesworldesl.com. These websites provide theme-based pictures, making it easy for teachers to select images that meet their specific needs. For instance, many images can be freely downloaded from www.mes-english.com.

In the “Journal of English and Education” (Vol. A, No. 1, June 2010), it is emphasized that teachers or experienced educators should evaluate their designs and learn from feedback. The figure below illustrates an example of a teacher-created worksheet for a listening activity (adapted from Figure 29 in Brewster et al., 2003).

****B. Selecting Coursebook Materials****

Spratt et al. (2005:110) define coursebook materials as all the components in a coursebook package that we utilize in the classroom to present and practice language, as well as to develop learners' language skills. They note that a typical coursebook package includes a student's book, a teacher's book, and audio and/or video recordings, often accompanied by a workbook or activity book.

When selecting coursebook materials, Spratt et al. (2005) recommend teachers consider several guiding questions:

- a. Is the material visually appealing? Is it clearly presented (using various colors, fonts, headings, etc.)? Does the visual content assist students in understanding context and meaning?
- b. Is the material well-organized? Can both you and your students navigate the content logically and easily?
- c. Is it culturally appropriate? Will the context be familiar to learners?
- d. Is it suitable for the age, needs, and interests of your learners?
- e. Is the topic engaging for students, considering their age, gender, experiences, and personal interests?

f. Is the difficulty level appropriate? Does it provide a clear context and explanations for learners to grasp new language concepts?

g. Does it offer learners ample opportunities to practice using the language?

If most answers are "no," Spratt et al. (2005:110) suggest replacing the coursebook materials with alternatives that share the same focus or aim, whether from other books, online resources, or supplementary materials. However, if teachers are unable to replace the coursebook, they can adapt the material, making necessary adjustments to better suit their students. Spratt et al. (2005) also provides ideas on how teachers can adapt materials to fit specific teaching situations.

Strategies for Addressing Problems and Possible Solutions

****Extending Material****

- ****Problem****: The task or exercise is too short, and learners need more practice.

- ****Solution****: Create additional items that follow the same pattern.

****Shortening Material****

- ****Problem****: The task or exercise is too lengthy, and learners do not require so much practice.

- ****Solution****: Use only what is necessary; do not feel obligated to complete everything. Consider assigning different sections of the text or tasks to various learners.

****Changing the Form of the Tasks****

- ****Problem****: The task does not align with the learners' learning styles, or you desire a change of pace. The coursebook often features repetitive tasks.

- ****Solution****: Alter the interaction format, such as turning a matching task into a mingling activity where learners move around the class to find partners.

****Changing the Level of the Material****

- ****Problem****: The texts or tasks are either too easy or too challenging.

- **Solution**: Make the material more difficult by having learners attempt comprehension questions before reading. Conversely, simplify the material by breaking a long text into shorter segments.

Reordering Material

- **Problem**: Activities in the units of the book follow the same sequence, and learners need to learn or practice content in a different order.

- **Solution**: Rearrange the material. For example, instruct learners to cover a page or part of a page so they can focus on specific tasks first.

Making Use of All Resources in the Book

- **Problem**: There is insufficient practice material in a particular unit, and learners need to review specific items or preview content for a future unit.

- **Solution**: Utilize additional resources from the book, such as grammar summaries, word lists, or lists of verbs and expressions. Provide whole-book tasks, such as searching through the book for texts, pictures, or language examples.

Very Receptive

Children are generally open to whatever the teacher presents. Unlike older learners, they are eager to explore new ideas, activities, and materials. However, it is crucial to select options that are appropriate for each specific classroom context.

Curious

Children's natural curiosity draws them to anything new. Introducing novel elements in the classroom piques their interest and engagement. Often, even simple new materials can inspire delightful activities and create meaningful contexts for using the target language.

Motivated

Parents value their children learning English, and older siblings engage with the language at school, creating a desire for younger children to follow suit. It is the teacher's role to employ effective approaches and suitable materials to enhance the motivation that young learners bring to the classroom.

This presents a significant advantage for learning the target language, as students will face greater challenges in later stages when dealing with sounds absent from their first language phonological system. Additionally, children are natural imitators who take delight in repeating sentences and words, as well as mimicking sounds. It is essential that the materials used in class consider this crucial aspect.

****Spontaneous and Eager to Participate****

Children tend to be less self-conscious than older learners. They readily volunteer for activities and enjoy engaging with the language through role-playing, singing, reciting poetry, and more. This willingness indicates that they are prepared to use the target language in dialogues, games, role-plays, storytelling, and other classroom activities. Such engagement helps reinforce their language skills.

****Physically Active****

Physical movement is inherent to children's nature. They are full of energy and naturally inclined to move around in class. Therefore, activities that involve physical action are always appealing to children. By incorporating language use in movement-based activities, both the mind and body work together, enhancing their experience and internalization of the language.

****Interested in Themselves****

Children engage more effectively with situations, objects, and concepts that are relevant to their immediate experiences. They show little interest in topics that are outside their personal world. Therefore, using real objects and familiar contexts in the classroom is essential.

****Deeply Involved in Fantasy and Imagination****

For children, the real world and the imaginative world they create are often intertwined and difficult to distinguish during certain developmental stages. Incorporating stories and scenarios that emphasize fantasy can lead to successful classroom engagement.

****Highly Connected to the Teacher****

Younger children tend to feel a strong bond with their teacher; they seek attention and approval for their efforts and often share experiences from outside the classroom —such as events at home or in their neighborhood. These moments provide excellent opportunities to use the target language as much as possible.

Developing Their Personality

The children in our classes are all unique, each possessing potential across various intelligences, such as musical, mathematical, or spatial. It is the teacher's responsibility to nurture this potential and help children grow personally through the activities, materials, and situations introduced in class.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What are the key characteristics of effective materials for teaching English to young learners?
2. How do visual aids enhance the learning experience for young learners in English language classrooms?
3. In what ways can storytelling be utilized as a teaching material for young learners?
4. What types of multimedia resources are most effective for engaging young learners in English language learning?
5. How can teachers assess the appropriateness of materials for different age groups of young learners?
6. What role do games play in language acquisition for young learners, and what types of games are most effective?
7. How can teachers incorporate authentic materials into lessons for young learners?
8. What considerations should be made when selecting materials for young learners with different learning styles?

Activities



Storytelling Session: Have students listen to a short story and then illustrate their favorite scene, explaining it in English. This helps develop comprehension and speaking skills.

Role-Playing Games: Set up role-playing scenarios (like a restaurant or a store) where students can use vocabulary and phrases relevant to those settings in English.

Multimedia Presentation: Use songs or videos related to themes being taught (e.g., animals, colors). After watching, have students draw their favorite character and describe it in English.

Group Projects: Organize students into small groups to create a poster about a topic, incorporating words and phrases they've learned. They can present their posters to the class in English.

Scavenger Hunt: Create a scavenger hunt where students find items in the classroom related to specific vocabulary words. They can then describe each item in English.

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THEME №20. DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE SUBSKILLS OF YOUNG LEARNERS

20-mavzu: Yosh talabalarni ingliz tilini qo‘shimcha ko‘nikmalarini rivojlantirish

*Ushbu mashg‘ulot davomida yosh talabalarni ingliz tilini o‘rganishdagi til
bilish mahoratlarini o‘rgatiladi va shakllantiriladi.*

 Listening comprehension	The ability to understand spoken language, including the ability to grasp main ideas, details, and implied meanings.
Phonemic Awareness	The ability to recognize and manipulate individual sounds (phonemes) in spoken words, a foundational skill for reading.
Vocabulary Acquisition	The process of learning and retaining new words, which is essential for effective communication and comprehension.
Interactive Storytelling	A method where children participate in storytelling, enhancing engagement and comprehension through questions and prompts.
Role-Play	A teaching method where learners act out scenarios to practice language use in context, promoting fluency and confidence.
Receptive Skills	Language skills that involve understanding language input,

	including listening and reading, as opposed to producing language.
Expressive Skills	Language skills that involve producing language, including speaking and writing, allowing learners to communicate ideas effectively.
Guided Reading	An instructional practice where teachers support small groups of students to read and understand texts, tailored to their individual levels.
Sight Words	Commonly used words that children are encouraged to recognize by sight without having to sound them out, facilitating fluent reading.
Reading Fluency	The ability to read text smoothly and accurately, which includes proper pacing, expression, and comprehension of the text.
Writing Process	The steps involved in writing, including brainstorming, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing, which develop writing skills.
Spelling Patterns	Common letter combinations and rules that help learners decode and spell words, enhancing their reading and writing abilities.
Listening Activities	Structured exercises designed to develop listening skills, such as following directions or responding to questions based on audio material.
Language Games	Fun, interactive activities that promote language learning through play, helping

	to reinforce vocabulary and grammar concepts.
Peer Collaboration	Working with classmates in pairs or groups to enhance language practice and social interaction, fostering communication skills.

Lecture



Globally, there is a growing number of children learning English as an Additional Language (EAL). These children live in environments where English is the dominant language but are exposed to a different, minority language at home. Despite the rise in EAL learners worldwide, there is limited knowledge about their vocabulary and grammar development during preschool years. Additionally, the variety of methods used in EAL research complicates the ability to summarize findings.

This chapter aims to provide a thorough review of vocabulary and grammar development among preschool EAL learners, referencing studies that employed standardized tests, experimental tasks, or both. The review reveals that few studies have specifically examined preschool EAL children. The findings suggest that, at the initial stages of language acquisition, EAL learners typically possess a smaller vocabulary and acquire grammatical structures more slowly compared to their English monolingual counterparts. These differences can continue into later stages of development, potentially negatively affecting EAL learners' academic success in English-only school settings.

Therefore, this chapter also offers recommendations for practices that can assist EAL children in enhancing their vocabulary and grammar skills during and after preschool.

Many children worldwide are exposed to multiple languages from an early age (Eurydice, 2017). For instance, those raised in English-speaking countries may speak a different language at home and consequently learn

English as an Additional Language (EAL) during (pre)school, typically between the ages of 3 and 6. To be categorized as ‘EAL’ or its equivalents, children must live in a country where English is the official language. This classification limits the term’s use in predominantly English-speaking countries, where the broader term ‘bilingual’ would more commonly apply.

Children with EAL can be regarded as speakers of a minority language since their home language is less prevalent compared to the majority language in society (Murphy, 2014). In certain countries, children from ethnic and linguistic minorities constitute the main group of bilingual learners in schools. Conversely, in other countries, bilingual learners may originate from regional minority contexts, where they speak an indigenous language at home but receive education in the majority language. For instance, in Wales, some children speak Welsh at home while being educated in English.

The EAL learner population is naturally diverse; they may be either simultaneous bilinguals—learning both English and their home language concurrently—or sequential bilinguals, who acquire English after starting to learn their home language (Murphy, 2014). Depending on when they began learning English, EAL learners can exhibit a broad range of proficiencies in both English and their home language. Additionally, simultaneous bilinguals do not always follow the same acquisition path as sequential bilinguals (Unsworth, 2005), resulting in EAL learners likely displaying varied developmental trajectories in English based on their prior exposure to the language before starting school.

This observation is supported by school reports, which indicate that children with EAL enter school at varying levels of proficiency (Strand & Hessel, 2018). In summary, a child's proficiency in English significantly influences their academic performance starting at the age of 4. This connection between English language skills and school performance continues throughout formal education, making early linguistic abilities a crucial predictor of future academic success and overall educational

achievement for EAL learners (Demie & Strand, 2006; Muter, Hulme, Snowling & Stevenson, 2004; Whiteside, Gooch & Norbury, 2016).

As children with EAL work on improving their English language skills, they must also find ways to preserve their home language. Maintaining their home language helps children strengthen their connections to their cultural background and family (Gao, 2012; Pearson, 2007). Additionally, it is believed to aid in developing essential skills, such as literacy, in the majority language (Murphy & Evangelou, 2016). Bilingual children are reported to enjoy various educational benefits, including the ability to communicate in multiple languages, higher proficiency levels, increased confidence and well-being, lower rates of absenteeism and failure in school, greater aspirations to pursue further education, and a positive relationship between bilingualism and academic success (Cloud, Genesee & Hamayan, 2009; Genesee, 2019). However, these benefits rely on achieving high proficiency in both languages, making it crucial to fully develop the children's home language alongside the majority language.

In specific educational settings that provide adequate resources, employ suitable curricula, and allow for the coexistence and development of both languages, the socioeconomic and cognitive advantages of bilingualism can be leveraged for the children's benefit (Murphy, 2018). Nevertheless, many schools worldwide struggle to adequately support students from ethnic minority backgrounds. When bilingual children lack sufficient linguistic and educational resources, their vocabulary and grammar knowledge in one or both languages may remain underdeveloped.

The lexical and grammatical knowledge gained during the earliest stages of development significantly influences children's future linguistic and educational growth (Strand & Hessel, 2018). This foundational knowledge occurs before formal language instruction begins in school and is a strong predictor of its effectiveness. Therefore, examining the language skills of EAL learners over time, starting from preschool, is

crucial for understanding their developmental trajectories, recognizing the importance of various linguistic (sub)skills, and pinpointing areas that would benefit from early intervention (Bowyer-Crane, Fricke, Schaeffer, Lervåg & Hulme, 2017; Paradis & Jia, 2017). This chapter emphasizes the initial phases of language acquisition (i.e., preschool) but also includes research on a range of age groups of EAL learners (from infancy to the end of primary school) to explore preschool children's language skills from a developmental standpoint. However, there is a scarcity of research specifically focused on the lexical and grammatical development of preschool-aged children with EAL. As a result, some studies referenced in this chapter involve monolingual learners and/or bilingual learners who speak a language other than English alongside their home language.

While the limited focus on preschoolers with EAL is a significant drawback of this review, it reflects a broader issue within the field, which is gradually being addressed by an increasing number of researchers. This chapter begins by discussing the process and significance of vocabulary and grammar acquisition among bilingual learners. It then evaluates current, new, and future research related to the lexical and grammatical development of EAL learners. Lastly, it highlights critical issues in EAL research and explores the educational implications arising from the findings reviewed.

2. Main Theoretical Concepts

Language learning entails that children acquire various types of knowledge, ultimately aiming to communicate effectively—understanding others and being understood in return. To achieve this, children need to attribute meaning to the (combinations of) sounds they encounter in their language input and to use these sound combinations appropriately in their speech.

Therefore, developing a vocabulary of recognizable words becomes a crucial aspect of language learning. However, simply knowing words is not enough for effective communication; much of the meaning is conveyed not just through individual words but through their arrangement,

modification, and connections—essentially, grammar. In summary, both lexical and grammatical knowledge are essential for children to comprehend and produce language effectively.

Nevertheless, studying the lexical and grammatical knowledge of EAL (and monolingual) learners is complex, particularly because both vocabulary and grammar are intricate concepts. EAL learners' vocabulary development is often assessed based on the number of words a child knows or their vocabulary size. Research typically shows that children learning EAL tend to have a smaller vocabulary compared to their age-matched monolingual peers.

Like vocabulary, grammar is a multifaceted area consisting of two key components: morphology and syntax. Morphology focuses on how words are structured internally, while syntax deals with how words are arranged to form sentences. When combined, these elements create morphosyntax, which refers to word-level characteristics that influence sentence structure, such as case and gender marking. Morphosyntax is considered a particularly challenging area for bilingual children and has been a significant focus of research on the grammatical development of young EAL learners. Overall, studies have indicated that children with EAL often acquire morphological structures at a slower rate than their monolingual peers (a quantitative difference) (Paradis, 2005; Paradis, Rice, Crago & Marquis, 2008; Paradis, Nicoladis, Crago & Genesee, 2011) and, at times, in a different sequence (a qualitative difference) (Jia & Fuse, 2007; Paradis, 2010a; Paradis & Blom, 2016).

However, not all aspects of morphosyntax pose significant difficulties for EAL learners. For instance, while many EAL learners struggle with acquiring verbal inflections, particularly tense marking, their ability to master nominal morphosyntax (such as pluralization) is comparable to that of their monolingual counterparts (Schwartz, Nir, Leikin, Levie & Ravid, 2014).

One factor that may either enhance or hinder the acquisition of specific morphosyntactic structures by EAL children is cross-linguistic influence

(CLI). CLI is defined as "the systemic influence of the grammar of one language on the grammar of the other language during acquisition" (Paradis & Genesee, 1996: 3). According to Paradis and Genesee (1996), CLI can result in several outcomes: the transfer of grammatical features from one language to another, an expedited acquisition of certain grammatical elements in one language due to their existence in the other, or an overall delay in language development. CLI, particularly in the form of transfer, has been extensively documented in bilingualism research (for a review, see Serratrice, 2013), but the underlying causes of this phenomenon remain unclear.

So far, three explanations have been proposed: the first posits that CLI arises from structural differences between the two languages of bilingual children (e.g., Hulk & Müller, 2000); the second suggests that it originates from disparities in the amount of input children receive in each language (e.g., Argyri & Sorace, 2007). The third explanation asserts that the quality of the input children are exposed to influences the nature and direction of CLI (e.g., Paradis & Navarro, 2003).

These three explanations are not mutually exclusive; in fact, various combinations may be more applicable to different subgroups of bilinguals.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What are the key subskills involved in language learning for young learners?
2. How can listening skills be effectively developed in young learners?
3. What strategies can be employed to enhance speaking skills among young learners?
4. How does reading comprehension differ from reading fluency, and how can both be developed in young learners?

5. In what ways can writing skills be introduced and practiced with young learners?

6. How can teachers assess the development of language subskills in young learners?

7. How can parents support the development of English language subskills at home for young learners?

Activities



1. **Listening Games:** Use songs or short stories followed by comprehension questions. For example, play a song and ask students to identify specific words or phrases they hear.

2. **Role-Play Dialogues:** Create role-play scenarios where students practice speaking in pairs or groups. This could involve everyday situations like shopping or greeting each other.

3. **Picture Story Sequencing:** Provide students with a series of pictures and ask them to put them in order and then narrate the story in English. This activity enhances both speaking and listening skills.

4. **Interactive Reading:** Choose age-appropriate books and read aloud while encouraging students to predict what will happen next, fostering engagement and comprehension.

5. **Writing Journals:** Have students maintain a simple journal where they write a few sentences about their day or a topic of interest. This develops their writing skills progressively.

6. **Vocabulary Bingo:** Create bingo cards with vocabulary words. Call out definitions or synonyms, and students cover the corresponding word, reinforcing vocabulary learning.

7. **Word Games:** Play games like Scrabble or Hangman to make learning vocabulary fun while developing spelling and word recognition skills.

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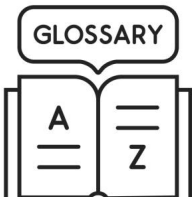
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THEME №21. STRATEGIES FOR ASSESSMENT IN THE CLASSROOM FOR YOUNG LEARNERS

21-mavzu: Yosh o‘quvchilar uchun sinfda baholash strategiyalari

Ushbu mavzuda o‘quvchilar baholash strategiyalari bilan tanishtirib boriladi

	Receptive Skills	Skills related to understanding and processing language input, primarily listening and reading.
	Listening Comprehension	The ability to understand spoken language, including grasping main ideas, details, and inferences.
	Read-Aloud	An instructional technique where the teacher reads a text aloud to the class, modeling fluent reading and comprehension strategies.
	Guided Reading	A small group reading instruction method where the teacher provides

	support tailored to each student's reading level.
Phonics Instruction	A method of teaching reading that focuses on the relationship between letters and their corresponding sounds.
Interactive Listening Games	Engaging activities that promote focused listening through games, such as “Simon Says” or “Follow the Leader.”
Shared Reading	A reading activity where the teacher and students read a text together, facilitating discussion and comprehension.
Comprehension Strategies	Techniques used to enhance understanding of a text, such as summarizing, predicting, and questioning.
Visual Aids	Tools like pictures, diagrams, or props used to support language input and enhance understanding during listening or reading activities.
Project-Based Learning	An instructional approach that encourages students to explore and engage with content through hands-on projects, requiring the use of receptive skills.
Fluency	The ability to read or listen to language with speed, accuracy, and proper expression.
Listening Activities	Tasks designed to develop listening skills, such as identifying specific information or following instructions based on audio input.

Interactive Storytelling	A method where the teacher engages students in storytelling through questions and participation, enhancing language understanding.
Vocabulary Acquisition	The process of learning and retaining new words, crucial for both listening and reading comprehension.
Technology Integration	The use of digital tools and resources, such as audio-visual materials and interactive software, to enhance language learning experiences.

Lecture



When we consider assessment, we often equate it with tests. However, effective assessment encompasses much more than just testing; it's an opportunity to understand what our students comprehend, enabling us to support their learning and development.

Assessment takes on a different form for younger students. The most active children are unlikely to participate in many formal assessments, so most evaluations tend to be informal. Often, we can gauge students' learning without them even being aware of it. Involving students in the assessment process can also be very beneficial.

Assessment for learning strategies encompass a variety of techniques that teachers use to evaluate learning as part of their teaching practice. These strategies are designed to collect data on a student's current understanding and identify any misconceptions. Teachers then leverage this information to modify their instructional methods, provide feedback, or re-teach concepts to enhance learning outcomes.

Utilizing a diverse range of approaches is essential for effective assessment for learning (AfL) and to achieve the desired impact in the classroom. AfL is not a new concept; it gained traction in the 1990s when

researchers like Paul Black and Dylan Wiliam emphasized the advantages of formative assessment strategies in contrast to summative assessment, which focuses on evaluating learning outcomes.

Here, we examine six assessment for learning strategies, along with practical examples and best practices for their implementation:

1. ****Direct Observation****: Teachers can assess student understanding by observing their engagement and participation during activities. For example, noting how students interact during group work can provide insights into their comprehension.

2. ****Questioning****: Using open-ended questions during lessons encourages students to articulate their understanding. Teachers can employ strategies like think-pair-share to facilitate deeper discussions and gauge students' grasp of the material.

3. ****Feedback****: Providing timely and specific feedback helps students understand their strengths and areas for improvement. For instance, written comments on assignments can guide students on how to enhance their work.

4. ****Self-Assessment****: Encouraging students to reflect on their learning fosters independence and self-awareness. Tools like learning journals or checklists can help students evaluate their progress and set personal learning goals.

5. ****Peer-Assessment****: Allowing students to assess each other's work promotes collaboration and critical thinking. Structured peer-review sessions can provide diverse perspectives and help students learn from their peers.

6. ****Formative Use of Summative Assessment****: While summative assessments evaluate overall learning, they can also inform instruction when used formatively. For example, analyzing results from a test can highlight areas that need re-teaching or further exploration.

Implementing these strategies effectively can enhance student learning and engagement in the classroom.

Assessment for learning plays a crucial role in the teaching and learning process. By employing various strategies, teachers can gather essential information about students' current learning levels, which helps identify any gaps that may hinder their progress.

Additionally, assessment for learning empowers students to engage actively in their education. When students understand the objectives, they become aware of what is required to succeed and can contribute to advancing their own learning. Without these assessment checks, both teachers and students may lack a clear understanding of their current status and what steps are necessary for improvement.

Formative assessment is typically viewed as an ongoing process aimed at determining a student's existing knowledge, providing evidence of that understanding, identifying their next steps, and offering the necessary support to help them progress. Formative assessment is typically viewed as an ongoing process aimed at determining a student's existing knowledge, providing evidence of that understanding, identifying their next steps, and offering the necessary support to help them progress.

Numerous studies indicate that utilizing various assessment for learning strategies can greatly influence student outcomes. In their 1998 work, **Inside the Black Box: Raising Standards Through Classroom Assessment**, Black and Wiliam examined classroom practices and found that students who receive regular formative assessments perform significantly better than those who do not. Additionally, John Hattie ranked feedback strategies as the 10th most impactful factor out of 150 that enhance learner outcomes, especially when the feedback pertains to the quality of the learner's work.

There are six essential assessment for learning strategies, which we will outline along with examples of how each can be integrated into daily classroom activities:

1. ****Direct Observation****

In this strategy, the teacher observes small groups or pairs of students as they work on a specific question designed to evaluate their

understanding. This can be done at any time during the lesson. Students are not required to participate directly in the assessment, allowing them to engage in the lesson and tasks as usual, often without realizing they are being assessed.

For instance, a teacher might begin a math lesson with a challenge without any prior instruction. This provides an excellent opportunity to see what students already know and how they can apply their prior knowledge to tackle a new problem.

For example, you could present a problem related to fractions and watch how students handle it. Do they try to visualize the fractions with diagrams?

Are they attempting to find a common denominator? By examining their methods, you can assess their understanding and pinpoint any misconceptions they may have.

Questioning

Effective questioning can serve as a powerful assessment tool in a teacher's toolkit when applied appropriately. It helps educators identify and address any misconceptions students may have. Additionally, it enables teachers to assess the depth of students' knowledge and understanding. Strategic questioning often incorporates open-ended questions that encourage critical thinking and reasoning, in contrast to closed-ended questions that primarily prompt simple recall.

Examples of open-ended question prompts include:

- Can you describe...?
- Why is X important?
- What might happen if...?
- How could you...?

Questions should inspire children to think critically and express their ideas verbally rather than simply recording their thoughts on paper.*

Feedback

To ensure that assessment for learning is effective and impactful, merely observing and asking questions is insufficient.

The information gathered by the teacher during this phase must be utilized effectively to determine students' current understanding, identify any misconceptions, and outline the necessary next steps for improvement. Quality feedback is crucial for making assessment for learning strategies influence students' understanding and educational outcomes.

There are two primary types of feedback:

1. Evaluative feedback (grades or brief comments)
2. Descriptive feedback (detailed comments and next steps)

Descriptive feedback offers children more comprehensive and actionable information compared to evaluative feedback or simple judgments. It provides specific insights into what they have done correctly and how they can enhance their learning.

Research indicates that descriptive feedback has a more significant impact than merely marking answers as right or wrong. It is especially effective when delivered verbally during the lesson. The goal is for the teacher to clarify the learning criteria and then outline the steps a student needs to take to meet those criteria.

EXAMPLES OF DESCRIPTIVE FEEDBACK

Here are some examples of effective descriptive feedback in a math context:

- “Excellent job applying the BODMAS rule to simplify the expression! Next time, try to keep your work neat and organized to make it easier to identify any mistakes.”

- “I appreciate how you’ve created a diagram to illustrate the problem. To enhance your work, consider labeling your diagram with key information from the question to assist you in finding a solution.”

- “Your answer demonstrates a solid understanding of the concept. Now, let’s explore how you can apply this knowledge to tackle more complex problems.”

Primary school teachers often use the “two stars and a wish” approach in this context, where the two stars represent positive feedback and the

wish signifies the next steps for improvement. This framework can help organize feedback in a constructive and actionable manner.

Self-assessment

Self-evaluation and self-assessment strategies play a crucial role in making assessment for learning (AfL) effective. By involving children more actively in their learning and tasks, these strategies promote metacognition (the ability to reflect on one's thinking), enhance self-esteem, and foster collaborative learning skills.

EXAMPLES OF SELF-ASSESSMENT

One example of self-assessment is having students review their answers on a math test or a set of math questions to identify the topics they understand and those they find challenging.

- ****Learning Logs****: Students maintain a record of their learning, reflecting on what they have grasped well and the areas that require improvement. This also allows them to document their learning goals and intentions.

- ****Exit Tickets****: At the end of a lesson, students write down one thing they learned, one aspect they found difficult, and one question they still have.

It is important to mention that we do not recommend the use of the popular Traffic Light system for self-assessment, as it often reflects a student's confidence in their perceived knowledge rather than their actual understanding. The true picture may differ significantly.

Peer-assessment

Peer assessment is an effective form of assessment for learning (AfL) because children are often more receptive to feedback about their work when it comes from their classmates rather than from a teacher. The language and approach used by peers can be more relatable and understandable. However, this process requires clear guidelines and training to ensure that children can critically analyze each other's work without taking it personally. It also depends on students being able to collaborate without conflict.

EXAMPLES OF PEER ASSESSMENT

- **Peer Marking**: Students evaluate each other's work using specific criteria or a marking scheme. Ideally, the work should be anonymized or consist of prepared example work.

- **Pair Problem-Solving**: Students collaborate in pairs to tackle a math problem, explaining their thought processes to each other and providing constructive feedback.

- **Two Stars and a Wish**: This method is commonly used by primary school teachers to structure feedback.

Formative Use of Summative Assessment

Many people mistakenly believe that formative assessments consist solely of quizzes and polls, while summative assessments are limited to exams and tests. However, the distinction between formative and summative assessment lies not in the type of assessment but in how the feedback is utilized. Consequently, traditional summative assessments can be adapted for formative purposes.

DIRT (Designated Improvement and Reflection Time): Provide students with the opportunity to review their tests, receiving thorough feedback and activities aimed at improving their responses.

Use worked examples: After students finish a set of questions or a test, pinpoint the questions they answered incorrectly. Then, offer clear worked examples related to those questions. Encourage students to go through these examples to understand their mistakes, and subsequently give them another chance to practice with a similar question.

Best Practices for Integrating Assessment for Learning Strategies in the Classroom

- Ensure that success criteria and learning objectives are not only clear but also comprehensible to students.

- Utilize various questioning techniques to enhance understanding throughout all phases of the lesson.

- Provide clear feedback that significantly influences students' performance.

- Incorporate diverse strategies that encourage students to actively engage in their learning through peer and self-assessment.
- Make formative use of summative assessments to identify gaps and learning needs, empowering students to take control of their progress.
- Employ diagnostic questions to accurately identify each student's specific misconceptions.
- Assess the effectiveness of any assessment for learning strategies you implement; if they aren't making an impact, consider adjustments to improve their effectiveness.
- School leaders should ensure that teachers are equipped with the knowledge and skills to effectively implement assessment for learning through continuous support and professional development opportunities.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What are the main purposes of assessment in the classroom for young learners?
2. How can formative assessment be effectively implemented in early language education?
3. What types of assessment methods are most suitable for young learners?
4. How can teachers assess speaking skills in young learners in a fun and engaging way?
5. In what ways can observational assessment contribute to understanding young learners' language development?
6. How can teachers use portfolios to track and assess the progress of young learners?
7. What role does peer assessment play in the classroom for young learners?

Activities



1. Interactive Observations: Teachers can use a checklist to observe and document young learners' language use during group activities, noting vocabulary usage, fluency, and interaction skills.

2. Performance-Based Assessment: Have students participate in a role-play or a storytelling activity. Assess their ability to use language correctly in context and provide constructive feedback.

3. Learning Journals: Encourage young learners to keep a simple learning journal where they can reflect on what they've learned. Teachers can review these journals periodically to assess understanding and progress.

4. Peer Assessment Stations: Set up stations with different tasks (e.g., reading, speaking, vocabulary games). Have students assess each other's performance based on simple criteria, such as clarity or creativity.

5. Exit Tickets: At the end of a lesson, ask students to write or draw something they learned. This quick assessment helps gauge their understanding and retention.

6. Digital Assessment Tools: Use educational apps or platforms to create quizzes or interactive games where students can demonstrate their language skills.

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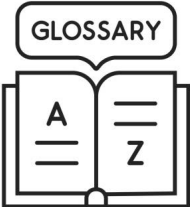
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THEME №22. DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGES SUBSKILLS OF YOUNG LEARNERS

22-mavzu. Yosh o‘quvchilarda ingliz tilini bilishning asosiy ko‘nikmalarini rivojlantirish

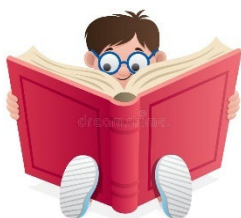
Ushbu mavzuda til o‘rganuvchilarda ingliz tilidagi o‘qish, yozish, tinglash, gapirish ko‘nikmalarini rivojlantirish masalari tahlil etiladi.

 Subskills	Specific components of language learning, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing, that contribute to overall language proficiency.
Phonemic Awareness	The ability to hear, identify, and manipulate individual sounds (phonemes) in spoken words, crucial for reading and spelling development.
Vocabulary Development	The process of learning and acquiring new words, which enhances comprehension and communication skills.
Listening Comprehension	The ability to understand spoken language, including the capacity to grasp main ideas and specific details.

Fluency	The ability to read or speak a language smoothly and accurately, which includes proper pacing and expression.
Role-Play	An interactive activity where learners act out scenarios to practice language use in context, promoting confidence and fluency.
Guided Reading	An instructional approach where teachers support small groups of students in reading and comprehending texts tailored to their skill levels.
Interactive Storytelling	A method of engaging learners in storytelling through questions and participation, enhancing understanding and retention of language.
Writing Process	The series of steps involved in writing, including brainstorming, drafting, revising, and editing, to develop effective writing skills.
Peer Collaboration	Working with classmates to enhance language practice, promoting social interaction and communication skills.
Receptive Skills	Language skills that involve understanding input, such as listening and reading, as opposed to producing language.
Expressive Skills	Language skills that involve producing language, including speaking and writing, which allow learners to communicate effectively.
Reading Fluency	The ability to read text quickly and accurately while comprehending its

	meaning, essential for effective reading.
Interactive Activities	Engaging tasks that require active participation from learners, promoting language practice and skill development.
Spelling Patterns	Common letter combinations and rules that assist learners in decoding and spelling words, enhancing their reading and writing capabilities.

Lecture



Acquiring speaking skills in a foreign language poses significant challenges, particularly for young learners. Research indicates that Affective Factors (AF), such as anxiety and motivation, can obstruct the learning process and negatively impact students' participation, attention, and interest in class. Consequently, there is an ongoing search for improved teaching materials, tools, and methodologies that enhance students' motivation to learn. Much of this research has been conducted outside of Latin America and tends to focus on teenagers or older students. This study aimed to assess the impact of audio-visual materials on the speaking skills and engagement of 8- to 9-year-old students in an Ecuadorian public primary school. A mixed-method approach was employed to gather both qualitative and quantitative data. Quantitative data were collected through pre- and post-tests as well as a motivational questionnaire, while qualitative data were obtained through student feedback on the proposed materials via a focus group. The findings reveal that audio-visual materials significantly influence grammar and vocabulary acquisition. Additionally, low levels of anxiety and high intrinsic motivation were found to positively affect the development of speaking skills.

Speaking is often regarded as one of the most difficult language skills for students to master in the classroom, as it is not explicitly taught but rather expected to be developed through practice and use of the second language (L2) (Bahrani & Soltani, 2012). Moreover, effective communication in spoken language environments depends significantly on the proficiency of one's speaking abilities. Constant practice is essential for language acquisition; neglecting this aspect can hinder proper consolidation of skills. Therefore, language instructors should promote spoken language both inside and outside the classroom. However, outdated materials, lack of proficiency, and low motivation can pose challenges for foreign language learners. As a result, there is growing interest in employing methodologies that incorporate visual and audiovisual materials to enhance student engagement and learning proficiency.

Patesan, Balagiu, and Alibec (2018) strongly advocate for the use of technology to integrate visual and audiovisual resources, as these tools encourage more interactive use of spoken language in educational settings, helping to engage and motivate students for extended periods. By promoting spoken language through visual aids, students can learn more effectively and apply their skills in real-life situations.

Ashaver and Mwuese (2013) note that students often struggle to retain what they have learned for extended periods when relying on traditional materials like textbooks and dictionaries. This can result in a lack of interest in language learning due to an insufficient learning process. Researchers suggest that learners need opportunities for meaningful and spontaneous communication to foster speaking in the classroom (Kumar, 2021; Casallas & Londoño, 2000), and visual and audiovisual materials can facilitate these opportunities. Such resources enhance language acquisition by linking vocabulary with meaning, thereby motivating and encouraging students to speak. Furthermore, visual and audiovisual materials are recognized as excellent tools for improving language acquisition.

The objective of this study is to investigate the impact of visual and audiovisual materials on the development of speaking skills in the EFL classroom, as well as to assess their effects on communication and participation among young EFL learners and their perceptions. Research in this field can help identify effective strategies to promote active communication among learners. Data was collected by evaluating the speaking skills of students in both control and experimental groups.

This study seeks to explore the relationship between teaching materials (visual and audiovisual), engagement, and the communicative competence of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). To establish a conceptual framework, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach and the Monitor Model were reviewed.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged in the 1970s in both Europe and the United States. It refers to “the development and implementation of programs and methodologies that foster functional language ability through learner participation in communicative events” (Savignon, 1991, p. 265). CLT is often associated with the concept of communicative competence, which “describes programs that employed a functional-notional syllabus based on needs assessment” (Savignon, 1991, p. 263). Similarly, Chomsky emphasized that communicative competence is essential for “representing the use of language in social contexts, including adherence to sociolinguistic norms of appropriateness” (as cited in Savignon, 1991, p. 264).

However, the implementation and expansion of communicative competence in language learning have varied across studies, leading to changes in resources and methodologies to prioritize communication through meaning (Savignon, 1991). As a result, CLT programs advocate for a diverse range of language learning goals and teaching strategies, considering that sociopolitical, cultural, and regional contexts influence language acquisition. Therefore, the choice of methods and materials should take into account the learners’ needs before addressing the goals and context of instruction (Savignon, 1991).

A high affective filter, characterized by feelings of fear or embarrassment, can obstruct or hinder the learning process. This hypothesis identifies three key variables: motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. According to the theory, to develop basic communication skills, the topics and situational context of lessons—whether aimed at enhancing personal communication or academic skills (both oral and written)—must be relevant and useful to students, arising naturally from their experiences. Additionally, language lessons should be flexible enough to cater to the specific interests and needs of the students. As Krashen suggests, “When establishing communication goals, we do not expect students to have mastered a particular set of structures or forms. Rather, we expect them to engage with specific topics in defined situations” (as cited by Richards, 1987, p. 135).

Affective factors, which pertain to the emotional and psychological state of learners—including aspects like anxiety, fear, and engagement (Richards, 1987)—are intertwined with the concept of communicative competence. Both are influenced by context, and their effectiveness relies on the social interactions within the classroom (Savignon, 1991). Wang and Wu (2020) assert that “Affective factors significantly affect second-language learners’ deep cultural differences, and the affective filter hypothesis holds considerable practical importance for guiding learners’ second language acquisition” (p. 1240). This reinforces the idea that both concepts connect the language acquisition process to the context in which it occurs, along with the learners’ motivation, self-esteem, and other factors. Consequently, any teaching method or strategy should consider the context in which the language is applied, as well as the students’ predispositions and potential changes in their attitudes.

In a study by Alsaraireh (2022), the author examined preferred learning techniques for improving speaking skills across 40 research papers. The findings revealed that cognitive and metacognitive approaches were the most frequently utilized techniques, indicating that students’ self-regulation and motivation management are expected to influence the language acquisition process. Conversely, social/affective strategies and

memory approaches were less favored, as they rely heavily on students' proficiency, interactions, feedback, and emotional factors that are often overlooked in English learning.

The researcher observed that memory strategies, such as “visual connections and pictures, were reported to be employed by students to enhance their speaking skills” (Alsaraireh, 2022, p. 376). For novice learners, these strategies can be beneficial for retaining crucial information encountered during language learning, with their use being more prevalent in “higher education institutions” (p. 376).

Kathirvel and Hashim (2020) conducted a study that explored how audio-visual materials support the acquisition and enhancement of speaking skills. They reviewed research conducted between 2004 and 2018 that utilized audio-visual materials among young English as a Second Language (ESL) learners, highlighting both benefits and limitations. The study concluded that audio-visual materials—defined as an “interactive tool that combines text, images, sound, and video” (Kathirvel & Hashim, 2020, p. 2601)—can significantly aid both teachers and students in language learning and improving speaking skills by offering a practical method for skills training and fostering long-term vocabulary retention through contextual learning (such as recalling the situations in which words were learned or creating mental images).

These materials also encourage students to engage with modern tools like media platforms (YouTube, social media), where both students and teachers can access content in more natural and diverse contexts. However, this aspect requires careful management, as teachers must identify appropriate technologies and materials that align with the curriculum, which can be time-consuming. Additional drawbacks noted in the research included inadequate teacher training, ineffective audio tools and materials, and insufficient support from school administrations (such as lack of infrastructure and resources), which can hinder the effective use of visual and audio-visual materials in the classroom.

More applied research, such as that conducted by Kumar (2021), examines the impact of visual teaching materials and resources on

developing English-speaking skills among secondary-level students in India. This study utilized an experimental design featuring pre-tests and post-tests within a set of control groups.

The results were analyzed statistically, focusing on percentages and frequency values across various evaluation aspects (comprehensibility, grammar, vocabulary, and fluency), along with the participants' overall performance and perceptions of the materials. The findings indicated that students who engaged with written-visual materials outperformed those who used visual materials alone. Positive feedback from students highlighted that written-visual materials were more memorable, motivating, and enjoyable, which facilitated faster speaking and enhanced their vocabulary and grammar skills.

Similarly, Buckingham and Alpaslan (2017) investigated the connection between completing audio-visual homework and the improvement of speaking assessment scores among third-grade Turkish children. They compared the speaking test scores of an experimental group with those of a control group. The results revealed a significant improvement in scores for the experimental group, suggesting that the use of visual and audio-visual materials positively influenced learners.

The researchers noted that “children produced fewer hesitations and pauses in their recorded responses by the end of the implementation period” (Buckingham & Alpaslan, 2017, p. 33). These improvements were only evident at the end of the four-month study, indicating that progress was gradual.

This study involving two fourth-grade classes (an experimental group and a control group) aimed to explore how the integration of visual and audiovisual materials, combined with an engaging and mindful teaching approach, could positively influence students' acquisition of speaking skills and development of active communication in English as a Foreign Language.

Employing a mixed-method approach with a Convergent Parallel Design (formerly known as Triangulation Design), the research analyzed both qualitative and quantitative data (Creswell, 2012).

This quasi-experimental study is characterized by the absence of random assignment of participants (Creswell, 2009, p. 146). The research was conducted with two fourth-grade classrooms that were accessible to the researcher. Data collection involved both qualitative and quantitative instruments over a three-week period. Prior to this phase, the researcher informed the school principal, parents, and students about the study and secured their consent.

Quantitative data was utilized to assess the English proficiency of students by comparing pre-test and post-test results related to their pronunciation, fluency, and vocabulary skills (grades A and B). The post-test was administered at the conclusion of the four-week project. Additionally, the results were analyzed alongside feedback gathered from student surveys and insights obtained during focus group discussions.

The pre-test and post-test involved an adaptation of the A1 Movers Cambridge Speaking test (Cambridge English, 2022). This test is scored out of 100 points and evaluates five aspects on a scale from 1 to 4, with each aspect worth 20 points. Students completed the same test before the intervention began (pre-test) and after it ended (post-test), and the data from these assessments were compared.

Additionally, a Checklist and Unit Perception Questionnaire were used. The Motivation and Attitudes toward Learning English Scale for Children (MALESC) (Carreira, 2006) was adapted to assess two of the five variables related to intrinsic motivation and anxiety.

Seminar lesson



Recommendations and activities are given for the organization of seminar activities.

Questions

1. What are the key subskills involved in language learning for young learners?
2. How can listening subskills be developed in young learners effectively?
3. What strategies can be used to enhance speaking subskills in early language education?

4. How can reading subskills be integrated into the curriculum for young learners?

5. What role does writing play in the overall development of language subskills for young learners?

6. How can games and playful activities contribute to the development of language subskills?

7. What methods can teachers use to assess the development of language subskills in young learners?

8. How can parents support the development of English language subskills at home?

9. In what ways does the use of multimedia resources facilitate the development of language subskills?

10. How can scaffolding be applied to help young learners develop their language subskills progressively?

Activities



1. **Listening Games:** Use simple listening games like “Simon Says” to help develop listening comprehension and following directions. This can improve auditory processing and vocabulary.

2. **Storytelling Sessions:** Encourage students to tell stories based on picture prompts. This activity enhances speaking and narrative skills while boosting creativity and vocabulary usage.

3. **Reading Circles:** Organize reading circles where young learners take turns reading aloud. This can foster reading fluency, comprehension, and collaborative learning.

4. **Writing Workshops:** Create a writing workshop where students can illustrate their own stories and write captions. This helps develop writing subskills, including sentence formation and creativity.

5. **Role-Playing:** Set up role-play scenarios where students must use English in context, such as shopping or visiting a doctor. This can enhance speaking and listening skills in practical situations.

6. Interactive Language Apps: Integrate educational apps designed for young learners that focus on various language subskills, allowing for personalized practice in a fun format.

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GLOSSARY

Assessment system – A set of methods and tools used to evaluate student learning.

Audiovisual materials – Learning resources that include both sound and visual components.

Communicative competence – The ability to use language effectively in various contexts.

Comparative learning – A method that compares different languages or linguistic structures.

Control (assessment) – Monitoring or evaluating a student's progress in language learning.

Dialogue – A conversation between two or more people.

Didactic games – Educational games designed to reinforce learning objectives.

Didactics – The science of teaching and instructional design.

E-books – Electronic books that are read on digital devices.

Education – The process of imparting or acquiring knowledge and skills.

Educational material – Resources used to aid in the instruction of students.

Expanding vocabulary – The process of learning new words and increasing word knowledge.

First language (L1) – The native language learned by an individual.

Foreign language – A language learned in addition to one's native language.

Formative assessment – Ongoing evaluations used to monitor student learning during instruction.

Grammar – The set of structural rules governing the composition of sentences, phrases, and words.

Grammatical structure – The rules and patterns governing the formation of sentences and phrases.

ICT (Information and Communication Technology) – Tools and resources that handle information and facilitate communication.

Independent learning – Learning that is self-directed, without the immediate guidance of a teacher.

Information technologies – Technologies that are used to store, retrieve, and send information.

Innovative technologies – New and creative ways of applying technology in teaching.

Intensive method – A teaching strategy involving intense and focused learning activities.

Interactive communication – Communication that involves active participation and feedback from learners.

Interactive methods – Teaching strategies that engage students in active participation.

Interference – The influence of one language on another in bilingual or multilingual contexts.

Language – The system of spoken or written communication.

Language abilities – The proficiency or skill in using language.

Language acquisition – The process by which individuals learn a language.

Language acquisition process – The process of learning a language, particularly the stages involved in gaining proficiency.

Language competencies – The abilities required to effectively use language.

Language comprehension – The ability to understand spoken or written language.

Language difficulties – Challenges learners face when acquiring a new language.

Language lab – A room or facility where language learning takes place, often equipped with technology.

Language levels – Different stages of proficiency in language learning.

Language skills – The primary abilities in language: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Language symbols – Visual or verbal signs that represent language meaning.

Language teaching aids – Tools and resources used to facilitate language teaching.

Language teaching principles – Fundamental ideas or guidelines that underlie teaching practices.

Language unit – The smallest segment of language that carries meaning, such as words or phrases.

Learning environment – The physical or virtual setting in which learning takes place.

Learning materials – Resources used to assist students in acquiring knowledge.

Learning process – The series of steps taken by students to acquire knowledge or skills.

Lesson design – The structure and planning of instructional activities and materials.

Lesson materials – Resources used by teachers to instruct students.

Lesson plan – A detailed guide created by teachers outlining the objectives and activities for a class.

Lesson techniques – Specific strategies used by teachers during instruction.

Lexical analysis – The study of words and their meanings within a language.

Linguistic competence – The knowledge of a language's structure and the ability to use it correctly.

Listening comprehension – The ability to understand spoken language.

Listening materials – Audio resources used to improve students' listening skills.

Methodology – The systematic plan or approach to teaching.

Monologue – A long speech by one person in a conversation or in front of an audience.

Morphological analysis – The study of the structure and formation of words.

Motivation – The drive or desire to achieve a goal, essential for language learning.

Multimedia tools – Tools that use a combination of text, audio, images, animation, and video.

Oral assessment – Evaluation of a student's speaking skills through verbal tasks.

Paremiology – The study of proverbs and their use in language.

Pedagogical approach – The methods and strategies used in teaching.

Phonetic analysis – The examination of sounds within a language.

Phonetic approach – A method focusing on the pronunciation and sounds of a language.

Phonology – The study of sounds within a language.

Phraseology – The study of set expressions, such as idioms or phrasal verbs, within a language.

Picture books – Books that contain images to help explain or teach concepts, often used in early language learning.

Practical activities – Hands-on learning experiences that apply theoretical knowledge.

Presentation – The act of displaying or explaining information to learners.

Presentation technologies – Tools like PowerPoint or Prezi used for displaying content during lessons.

Problem-based learning – A student-centered pedagogy in which students learn about a subject through solving problems.

Project-based learning – A teaching method in which students learn by actively engaging in real-world and personally meaningful projects.

Reading comprehension – The ability to understand written text.

Role-playing – An activity in which students act out roles to practice language skills.

Second language (L2) – A language learned in addition to the native language.

Skill development – The process of enhancing abilities through practice and instruction.

Skills and abilities – The capacity to perform specific tasks or actions in language learning.

Speaking skills – The ability to communicate orally.

Speech culture – The norms and rules governing spoken communication in a language.

Spontaneous speech – Unplanned, natural speaking in a language.

Stages of language teaching – The phases or levels in the process of instructing language learners.

Stereotypes – Preconceived notions or ideas about a language or culture.

Student – A person who is studying or learning.

Student engagement – The involvement and participation of students in learning activities.

Summative assessment – Evaluation at the end of an instructional unit to measure student understanding.

Task-based approach – A method that focuses on the completion of meaningful tasks using the target language.

Teacher – An individual who instructs students in a specific subject.

Teaching – The act of instructing or educating.

Teaching methods – Strategies used by teachers to facilitate learning.

Test assessment – The process of evaluating student knowledge through exams or quizzes.

Test materials – Resources or content used to assess student learning.

Test tasks – Specific assignments or exercises used in assessments.

Text – Written language used as material for reading or study.

Text analysis – The process of studying and interpreting written material.

Text translation – The process of converting text from one language to another.

Theme-based teaching – Instruction that is centered around a specific theme or topic.

Theoretical teaching – Instruction focused on explaining concepts and theories.

Verbal communication – The exchange of information using spoken language.

Visual aids – Resources such as charts, diagrams, or images used to enhance learning.

Vocabulary – The set of words known and used by an individual.

Vocabulary development – The process of expanding and improving word knowledge.

Web pages – Online documents accessible via the internet, often used for learning.

Writing skills – The ability to express ideas in written form.

Written assessment – Evaluation of a student's writing skills through written tasks.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMS

General Concepts and Methods

1. What is the communicative approach in language teaching?
2. Define the task-based language teaching method.
3. What are the four primary language skills?
4. How is the grammar-translation method applied in a language classroom?
5. Compare the direct method with the audio-lingual method.
6. Define "language immersion" as a teaching strategy.
7. What is the role of the teacher in the silent way method?
8. Explain the importance of Total Physical Response in early language learning.
9. How does the lexical approach differ from traditional grammar teaching?
10. Define Content-Based Instruction and provide an example.

Lesson Planning and Assessment

11. What is a lesson plan, and why is it important in language teaching?
12. How do formative and summative assessments differ?
13. Describe the role of backward design in lesson planning.
14. What are the key elements of a lesson plan?
15. How should listening skills be assessed in language learners?
16. Explain the purpose of rubrics in language assessment.
17. What are some common ways of assessing reading comprehension?
18. How would you assess vocabulary acquisition in young learners?
19. What is the significance of peer assessment in language learning?
20. Define the concept of "washback" in language testing.

Teaching Listening Skills

21. What are top-down and bottom-up strategies in listening?
22. How can teachers enhance students' listening comprehension?
23. Why is listening considered a receptive skill?

24. Give two examples of listening tasks for beginner language learners.

25. How do authentic materials help in teaching listening?

26. What are the characteristics of effective listening exercises?

27. How does task-based listening differ from traditional listening comprehension exercises?

28. Why is listening a challenging skill to assess?

Teaching Speaking Skills

29. How can role-playing improve students' speaking skills?

30. What is the difference between fluency and accuracy in speaking?

31. What strategies can teachers use to develop pronunciation?

32. What are speaking drills, and why are they useful?

33. How can teachers create a communicative environment for speaking practice?

34. Explain the importance of pair and group work in speaking activities.

35. What is scaffolding, and how does it apply to teaching speaking?

36. How can error correction affect speaking performance in learners?

Teaching Reading Skills

37. Define skimming and scanning in reading comprehension.

38. How can pre-reading activities aid in comprehension?

39. What is the role of vocabulary in reading comprehension?

40. Explain extensive and intensive reading.

41. Why is activating prior knowledge important in reading lessons?

42. What are some strategies for teaching reading to young learners?

43. How can digital reading materials support language learning?

44. Describe a method to assess reading fluency.

Teaching Writing Skills

45. What are the key differences between process and product approaches to writing?

46. What is peer editing, and why is it beneficial in a writing class?

47. How can graphic organizers help students in writing?

48. What are some common challenges faced by learners when writing in a foreign language?

49. Explain the importance of feedback in improving writing skills.

50. How would you teach narrative writing to beginner learners?

51. What strategies can teachers use to teach formal and informal writing?

52. What is freewriting, and how does it support writing fluency?

Vocabulary Development

53. How can visual aids support vocabulary learning?

54. What is the role of context in vocabulary teaching?

55. Define incidental vocabulary acquisition.

56. What are word families, and how are they used in vocabulary teaching?

57. How can students use flashcards to build vocabulary?

58. Why is word frequency important in vocabulary instruction?

59. Explain how collocations can enhance vocabulary learning.

60. What is the lexical approach to teaching vocabulary?

61. How can a teacher assess vocabulary development?

Grammar Instruction

62. What is deductive grammar teaching?

63. Define inductive grammar instruction.

64. What is the role of grammar in the communicative approach?

65. How can games be used to teach grammar?

66. How would you teach verb tenses to beginners?

67. What is the difference between explicit and implicit grammar instruction?

68. Why is teaching grammar in context important?

69. What are common challenges students face when learning grammar?

Classroom Management and Interaction

70. What are effective classroom management techniques for young learners?

71. How can teachers encourage student participation in language classes?

72. Define differentiated instruction in the language classroom.

73. How can teachers deal with mixed-ability groups in language classes?

74. Why is a positive learning environment important for language acquisition?

75. What is the role of feedback in language learning?

76. How can technology be integrated into language learning?

77. What are some ways to reduce student anxiety in language learning?

Language Acquisition and Learning Theories

78. What is the difference between language learning and language acquisition?

79. Explain Krashen's input hypothesis.

80. How do sensitive periods affect language acquisition?

81. Describe the behaviorist theory of language learning.

82. How does the sociocultural theory apply to language teaching?

83. What is the role of motivation in language learning?

84. Explain the concept of the affective filter in language acquisition.

85. How do cognitive factors influence language learning?

Using Technology in Language Teaching

86. How can mobile apps be used for language learning?

87. What are the benefits of using online dictionaries in language classrooms?

88. How can teachers use social media platforms for language practice?

89. Explain how podcasts can be used for teaching listening skills.

90. What is a flipped classroom in language learning?

91. How can virtual reality be used in language teaching?

92. What are the advantages of using interactive whiteboards?

93. What is the role of online language learning communities?

94. How can storytelling enhance language learning for young learners?

95. What are some age-appropriate activities for teaching vocabulary to young learners?

96. Why is play important in teaching young learners?

97. How do songs and rhymes aid language learning in children?

98. How can teachers build phonological awareness in early learners?

99. What are the challenges of teaching English in a primary school setting?

100. How can games be incorporated into language lessons for young learners?

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ALLAYAROVA Z.B., RUZMANOV D.U

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Muharrir: S. Abdunabiyeva

Badiiy muharrir: K. Boyxo‘jayev

Kompyuterda sahifalovchi: B. Muxtorov

shr. List. AA № 205405

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