

Language Teaching Methods (ENG513)

Notes Lesson 21~40

VIRTUAL UNIVERSITY OF PAKISTAN

Q: What is CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION?

Content-Based Instruction (CBI) refers to an approach to second language teaching in which teaching is organized around the **content or information that students will acquire**, rather than around a linguistic or other type of syllabus. Krahnke offers the following definition:

It is the **teaching of content or information** in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language separately from the content being taught. (Krahnke, 1987, p. 65).

Q Define the term 'content' used in content based instruction.

The term content has become a popular one both within language teaching and in the popular media. New York Times columnist and linguistic **pundit William Safire** addressed it in one of his columns in 1998 and noted:

If any word in the English language is hot and buzz-worthy, surpassing even millennium in both general discourse and insiders, that word is content. (New York Times, August 19, 1998, 15) Although content is used with a variety of different meanings in language teaching, **it most frequently refers to the substance or subject matter that we learn or communicate through language rather than the language used to convey it.**

Q: Write down few programs based on content study.

Other educational initiatives since the late 1970s that also emphasize the principle of acquiring content through language rather than the study of language for its own sake include **Language across the Curriculum, Immersion Education, Immigrant On-Arrival Programs, Programs for Students with Limited English Proficiency, and Language for Specific Purposes.**

Q: What is the role of Content in other Curriculum Designs and Content-Based Instruction?

Language skills should also be taught in the content subjects and not left exclusively for the English teacher to deal with. This report influenced American education as well, and the slogan **"Every teacher, an English teacher"** became familiar. Like other cross-disciplinary proposals, this one never had the classroom impact that its advocates had hoped for. Nevertheless, subject-matter texts appeared that included exercises dealing with language practice, and the need for collaboration between subject-matter teachers and language teachers was emphasized. In some cases, curricular material was produced that integrated subject matter and language teaching goals, such as the **Singaporean Primary Pilot Project** in the 1970s classroom texts integrating science, math, and language study. **Immersion Education has also had a strong influence on the theory of Content-Based Instruction.**

Q What is Immersion Education? Write a short not on it.

Immersion Education is **a type of foreign language instruction in which the regular school curriculum is taught through the medium of the foreign language.** The foreign language is the vehicle for content instruction; it is not the subject of instruction. Thus, for example, an English-speaking child might enter a primary school in which the medium of instruction for all the content subjects is French.

Q What are the goals of an immersion program?

Student goals of an immersion program include:

- (1) Developing a high level of **proficiency** in the foreign language;
- (2) Developing **positive attitudes** toward those who speak the foreign language & toward their culture(s);
- (3) Developing English **language skills** commensurate with expectations for a student's age and abilities;
- (4) Gaining designated **skills and knowledge** in the content areas of the curriculum.

Q: Write few lines on Immigrant On-Arrival Programs.

Immigrant On-Arrival Programs typically focus on the newly arrived immigrants in a country and their need for survival. Such learners typically need to learn how to deal with differing kinds of real-world content as a basis for social survival. Design of such courses in **Australia was among the first** attempts to integrate notional, functional, grammatical, and lexical specifications built around particular themes and situations. A typical course would cover language needed to deal with immigration bureaucracies, finding accommodations, shopping, finding a job, and so forth. **The methodology of the Australian on-arrival courses was based on the Direct Method**

(Ozolins 1993) but included role play and simulations based on the language needed to function in specific situations. In current on-arrival programs, a competency-based approach is often used in which a teaching syllabus is developed around the competencies learners are presumed to need in different survival situations.

Q: Write a short note on SLEP.

Programs for **Students with Limited English Proficiency (SLEP)** are governmentally mandated programs to serve especially those children whose parents might be served by the on-arrival programs, but more generally designed to provide in-class or pullout instruction for any school-age children whose language competence is insufficient to participate fully in normal school instruction. Early versions of such programs were largely grammar-based.

Q: Define LSP movement?

Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) is a movement that seeks to serve the language needs of learners who need language in order to carry out specific roles (e.g., student, engineer, technician, and nurse) and who need to acquire content and real-world skills through the medium of a second language rather than master the language for its own sake. LSP has focused particularly on English for Science and Technology (EST).

Important point to remember:

The first immersion programs were developed in Canada in the 1970s to provide English-speaking students with the opportunity to learn French.

In the United States, immersion programs can be found in a number of languages, including French, German, Spanish, Japanese, and Chinese.

Language across the Curriculum was a proposal for native-language education that grew out of recommendations of a British governmental commission in the mid-1970s.

LSP/EST have given rise to a number of subfields, such as ESP (English for Specific Purposes), EOP (English for Occupational Purposes), and EAP (English for Academic Purposes).

Q: On what two principles Content-Based Instruction is based?

Content-Based Instruction is grounded on the following two central principles:

1. People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself. This principle reflects one of the motivations for CBI noted earlier - that it leads to more effective language learning.
2. Content-Based Instruction better reflects learners' needs for learning a second language. This principle reflects the fact that many content-based programs serve to prepare ESL students for academic studies or for mainstreaming; therefore, the need to be able to access the content of academic learning and teaching as quickly as possible, as well as the processes through which such learning and teaching are realized, are a central priority.

Q: Write a brief note on Theory of Language in Content-Based Instruction

A number of assumptions about the nature of language underlie.

Language Is Text and Discourse-Based

CBI addresses the role of language as a vehicle for learning content. This implies the centrality of linguistic entities longer than single sentences, because the focus of teaching is how meaning and information are communicated and constructed through texts and discourse. The linguistic units that are central are not limited to the level of sentences and sub-sentential units (clauses and phrases) but are those that account for how longer stretches of language are used.

Language Use Draws on Integrated Skills

CBI views language use as involving several skills together. In a content-based class, students are often involved in activities that link the skills, because this is how the skills are generally involved in the real world. Hence students might read and take notes, listen and write a summary, or respond orally to things they have read or written. And rather than viewing grammar as a separate dimension of language, in CBI, grammar is seen as a

component of other skills.

Language is Purposeful

Language is used for specific purposes. The purpose may be academic, vocational, social, or recreational but it gives direction, shape, and ultimately meaning to discourse and texts. When learners focus on the purpose of the language samples they are exposed to, they become engaged in following through and seeing if the purpose is attained and how their own interests relate to this purpose (or purposes).

Q: Write a brief not on Theory of Learning in Content-Based Instruction

We earlier described one of the core principles of CBI as follows: People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself. Regardless of the type of CBI model that is used, they all "share the fact that content is the point of departure or organizing principle of the course - a feature that grows out of the common underlying assumption that successful language learning occurs when students are presented with target language material in a meaningful, contextualized form with the primary focus on acquiring information" (Brinton et al., Wesche, 1989, p. 17). This assumption is backed by a number of studies (e.g., Scott 1974; Collier 1989; Grandin 1993; Wesche 1993) that support the position that in formal educational settings, second languages are best learned when the focus is on mastery of content rather than on mastery of language per se. CBI, thus, stands in contrast to traditional approaches to language teaching in which language form is the primary focus of the syllabus and of classroom teaching.

A number of additional assumptions that derive from the core principles of CBI just discussed will now be described. One important corollary can be stated as follows:

People learn a second language most successfully when the information they are acquiring is perceived as interesting, useful, and leading to a desired goal.

Q: How Students Learn Best When Instruction Addresses Students' Needs?

This principle emphasizes that in CBI, The content that students study is selected according to their needs. Hence, if the program is at a secondary school, the academic needs of students across the curriculum form the basis for the content curriculum. Authentic texts, both written and spoken, that students will encounter in the real world (e.g., at school or at 210 work) provide the starting point for developing a syllabus, so relevance to learners' needs is assured. In the case of an academically focused program, "the language curriculum is based directly on the academic needs of the students and generally follows the sequence determined by a particular subject matter in dealing with the language problems which students encounter" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 2).

Q: What are the objectives of CBI?

In CBI, language learning is typically considered incidental to the learning of content. Thus the objectives in a typical CBI course are stated as objectives of the content course. Achievement of content course objectives is considered as necessary and sufficient evidence that language learning objectives have been achieved as well.

An example of objectives in CBI comes from the theme-based Intensive Language Course (ILC) at the Free University of Berlin. Four objectives were identified for its yearlong, multi-theme program. These objectives were linguistic, strategic, and cultural. Objectives were:

- to activate and develop existing English language skills
- to acquire learning skills & strategies that could be applied in future language development opportunities
- to develop general academic skills applicable to university studies in all subject areas
- to broaden students' understanding of English-speaking peoples (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 32).

Q: What are the objectives of theme-based instructional model of CBI?

In theme-based CBI, language learning objectives drive the selection of theme topics; that is, "there are often set linguistic objectives in the curriculum, and thematic modules are selected for the degree to which they provide compatible contexts for working towards these objectives." It is possible for theme-based courses to be directed toward single-skill objectives; however, most often theme-based instruction "lends itself well to four skills courses, since the topic selected provides coherence and continuity across skill areas and allows work on

higher-level language skills (e.g., integrating reading and writing skills)" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 26).

Q: Define Syllabus in CBI?

In most CBI courses, the syllabus is derived from the content area, and these obviously vary widely in detail and format. It is typically only CBI following the theme-based model in which content and instructional sequence is chosen according to language learning goals. The theme-based model uses the syllabus type referred to as a topical syllabus, the organization of which is built around specific topics and subtopics, as the name implies.

The organization of the Intensive Language Course at the Free University of Berlin consists of a sequence of modules spread over the academic year.

The topical themes of the modules are: **Drugs, Religious Persuasion, Microchip Technology, Ecology, Advertising, Alternative Energy, Nuclear Energy, Britain and the Race Question, Dracula in Myth, Novel, Native Americans Films, Modern Architecture and Professional Ethics**

Q: What is macro- and micro-structuring of the yearlong syllabus in CBI.

There is both macro- and micro-structuring of the yearlong syllabus for this course. At the **macro-level**, the syllabus consists of a sequence of modules selected to reflect student interests and a multidisciplinary perspective. The modules are designed and sequenced so that they "relate to one another so as to create a cohesive transition of certain skills, vocabulary, structures, and concepts." The first six modules are ordered so that early modules have easily accessible, high-interest themes. Later modules (**micro-structure**) deal with more technical processes and assume mastery of certain skills, vocabulary, structures, and concepts" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 35). The internal design of the modules (the micro-structure) is such that: All modules move from an initial exercise intended to stimulate student interest in the theme through a variety of exercises aimed at developing comprehension and the students' ability to manipulate the language appropriate to the situation and use the language of the texts. The final activities of each module require the students to choose the language appropriate for the situation and use it in communicative interaction. (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 34)

Q: What are the Types of Learning and Teaching Activities in CBI?

There are a number of descriptions of activity types in CBI. **Stoller** (1997) provides a list of activities classified according to their instructional focus. The classification categories she proposes are:

- language skills improvement
- vocabulary building
- discourse organization
- communicative interaction
- study skills
- Synthesis of content materials and grammar.

Q: Describe Mohan's knowledge framework in context of CBI.

Mohan (1986) describes an approach to content-based ESL instruction at the secondary level that is built around the notion of knowledge structures. This refers to the structures of knowledge across the curriculum in terms of frameworks and schemas that apply to a wide range of topics. The framework consists of six universal knowledge structures, half of which represent specific, practical elements (Description, Sequence, and Choice) and the other half of which represent general, theoretical elements (Concepts/Classification, Principles, and Evaluation). A variety of CBI courses have been developed based on Mohan's knowledge framework.

Q: What is The Role of Learner in CBI?

One goal of CBI is for learners **to become autonomous** so that they come to "understand their own learning process and take charge of their own learning from the very start" (Stryker and Leaver 1993, p. 286). In addition, most CBI courses anticipate that students **will support each other in collaborative modes of learning**. CBI is in the "learning by doing" school of pedagogy. This assumes an active role by learners in several dimensions. Learners themselves may be sources of content and joint participants in the selection of topics and activities. Such participation "has been found to be highly motivating and has resulted in a course changing its direction in order to

better meet the needs of students" (Stryker and Leaver 1993, 11). Students need to be prepared both psychologically and cognitively for CBI and, if they are not adequately primed, 'then "missing schemata needs to be provided or students need to be kept from enrolling until they are `ready' " (Stryker and Leaver 1993, p. 292).

Q: What is The Role of Teachers in CBI?

CBI anticipates a change in the typical roles of language teachers. "Instructors must be more than just good language teachers. They must be knowledgeable in the subject matter and able to elicit that knowledge from their students." (Stryker and Leaver 1993, p. 292) At a more detailed level, teachers have to keep context and comprehensibility foremost in their planning and presentations, they are responsible for selecting and adapting authentic materials for use in class, they become student needs analysts, and they have to create truly learner-centered classrooms. Finally, with the investment of time and energy to create a content-based language course, there comes an even greater responsibility for the learner, since learner needs become the hub around which the second language curriculum and materials, and therefore teaching practices, revolve.

Q: What are the essential skills for any CBI instructor by Stryker and Leaver:

1. Varying the format of classroom instruction
2. Using group work and team-building techniques
3. Organizing jigsaw reading arrangements
4. Defining the background knowledge and language skills required for student success
5. Helping the students develop coping strategies
6. Using process approaches to writing
7. Using appropriate error correction techniques
8. Developing and maintaining high levels of student esteem (Stryker and Leaver 1993, p. 293)

Q: What are the demands on teachers from regular ESL teaching in Content-Based Instruction?

Brinton et al. (1989) identify the following issues:

- Are adequately trained instructors available to teach the selected courses?
- Will there be any incentives offered to instructors who volunteer to teach in the proposed program (e.g., salary increases, release time, smaller class sizes)?
- How will faculty not willing or qualified to participate in the new program be reassigned?
- How will teachers and other support staff be oriented to the model (e.g., pre-service, in-service)?
- What is the balance of language and content teaching (i.e., focus on content teaching, focus on language teaching, and equal attention to both)? - What are the roles of the teacher (e.g., facilitator, content-area expert, language expert)? What is the anticipated workload (e.g., contact hours, curriculum duties)?
- Who is responsible for selecting the teaching materials? - Are teachers expected to develop content-specific language-teaching materials? If yes, will materials development training and guidelines be provided?
- Will alternate staffing configurations (e.g., curriculum and materials specialists, team teaching) be used?

Q: What is the Role of Materials in CBI?

As with other elements in CBI, the materials that facilitate language learning are the materials that are used typically with the subject matter of the content course. It is recommended that a rich variety of materials types be identified and used with the central concern being the notion that the materials are "authentic." In one sense, authenticity implies that the materials are like the kinds of materials used in native-language instruction. In another sense, authenticity refers to introduction of, say, newspaper and magazine articles and any other media materials "that were not originally produced for language teaching purposes" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 17). Many CBI practitioners recommend the use of realia such as tourist guidebooks, technical journals, railway timetables, newspaper ads, radio and TV broadcasts, and so on, and at least one cautions that "textbooks are contrary to the very concept of CBI - and good language teaching in general" (Stryker and Leaver 1993, p. 295).

Q How you see comprehensibility and authenticity in CBI?

However, comprehensibility is as critical as authenticity and it has been pointed out that CBI courses are often "characterized by a heavy use of instructional media (e.g., videotapes and/or audiotapes) to further enrich the context provided by authentic readings selected to form the core of the thematic unit" (Brinton et al. 1989, p. 31). Although authenticity is considered critical, CBI proponents do note that materials (as well as lecturer presentations) may need modification in order to ensure maximum comprehensibility. This may mean linguistic simplification or adding redundancy to text materials. It will certainly mean "providing guides and strategies to assist students in comprehending the materials" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 17).

Q: What are the similarities between Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Teaching?

Some of the proponents (e.g., Willis 1996) of TBLT present it as a **logical development of Communicative Language Teaching** since it draws on several principles that formed part of the communicative language teaching movement from the 1980s. For example:

- Activities that involve real communication are essential for language learning.
- Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning.
- Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process.

Q: Write down the name of early two application of TBLT.

Two early applications of a task-based approach within a communicative framework for language teaching were the **Malaysian Communicational Syllabus** (1975) and the **Bangalore Project** (Beretta and Davies Prabhu 1987; Beretta 1990) both of which were relatively short-lived.

Q: What are the key assumptions of task-based instruction by Feez (1998, p. 17)?

The key assumptions of task-based instruction are summarized by Feez are

- The focus is on process rather than product.
- Basic elements are purposeful activities and tasks that emphasize communication and meaning.
- Learners learn language by interacting communicatively and purposefully while engaged in the activities and tasks.
- Activities and tasks can be either: those that learners might need to achieve in real life; those that have a pedagogical purpose specific to the classroom.
- Activities and tasks of a task-based syllabus are sequenced according to difficulty.

Q How can we measure the difficulty of a task?

The difficulty of a task depends on a range of factors including the previous experience of the learner, the complexity of the task, the language required to undertake the task, and the degree of support available.

Q: Define the term 'Task' used in TBLT.

Task-Based Language Teaching proposes the notion of "task" as a central unit of planning and teaching. Although definitions of task vary in TBLT, there is a common-sensical understanding that a task is an activity or goal that is carried out using language, such as finding a solution to a puzzle, reading a map and giving directions, making a telephone call, writing a letter, or reading a set of instructions and assembling a toy.

Tasks are activities which have meaning as their primary focus. Success in tasks is evaluated in terms of achievement of an outcome, and tasks generally bear some resemblance to real-life language use, so task-based instruction takes a fairly strong view of communicative language teaching. (Skehan 1996b, p.20)

A language learning task can be regarded as a springboard for learning work. In a broad sense, it is a structured plan for the provision of opportunities for the refinement of knowledge and capabilities entailed in a new language and its use during communication.

For Prabhu, a task is "an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allows teachers to control and regulate that process" (Prabhu 1987, p.

17).

Q: Write down the definition of communicative task by Nunan.

Nunan (1989, p. 10) offers this definition: the communicative task [is] a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.

Q: What are the key areas of concern in Task-based training?

- analysis of real-world task-use situations
- the translation of these into teaching tasks descriptions
- the detailed design of instructional tasks
- the sequencing of instructional tasks in classroom training/teaching

Q: Write down four major categories of team performance function in TBLT.

1. **orientation functions** (processes for generating and distributing information necessary to task accomplishment to team members)
2. **organizational functions** (processes necessary for members to coordinate actions necessary for task performance)
3. **adaptation functions** (processes occurring as team members adapt their performance to each other to complete the task).
4. **motivational functions** (defining team objectives and "energizing the group" to complete the task)

Q: Academic tasks are defined as having four important dimensions: Mention them.

- the products students are asked to produce
- the operations they are required to use in order to produce these products
- the cognitive operations required and the resources available
- the accountability system involved

❖ TBLT is primarily motivated by a theory of learning rather than a theory of language.

Q: How Language is Primarily a Means of Making Meaning?

TBLT emphasizes the central role of meaning in language use. Skehan notes that in task-based instruction (TBI), "meaning is primary the assessment of the task in terms of outcome" and that task-based instruction is not "concerned with language display" (Skehan 1998, p. 98).

Q: How Lexical Units Are Central in Language Use and Language Learning?

In recent years, vocabulary has been considered to play a more central role in second language learning than was traditionally assumed. Vocabulary is here used to include the consideration of lexical phrases, sentence stems, prefabricated routines, and collocations, and not only words as significant units of linguistic lexical analysis and language pedagogy.

Although much of language teaching has operated under the assumption that language is essentially structural, with vocabulary elements slotting in to fill structural patterns, many linguists and psycholinguists have argued that native language speech processing is very frequently lexical in nature.

Q: How "Conversation" is the Central Focus of Language and the Keystone of Language Acquisition?

Speaking and trying to communicate with others through the spoken language drawing on the learner's available linguistic and communicative resources is considered the basis for second language acquisition in TBI; hence, the majority of tasks that are proposed within TBLT involve conversation.

Q: What is Theory of Learning in TBLT?

TBLT shares the general assumptions about the nature of language learning underlying Communicative Language Teaching. However some additional learning principles play a central role in TBLT theory. These are:

- **Tasks Provide both the Input and Output Processing Necessary for Language Acquisition**
Krashen has long insisted that comprehensible input is the one necessary (and sufficient) criterion for successful language acquisition. Others have argued, however, that productive output and not merely input is also critical for adequate second language development. Tasks are believed to foster processes of negotiation, modification, rephrasing, and experimentation that are at the heart of second language learning.
- **Task Activity and Achievement are Motivational**
Tasks are also said to improve learner motivation and therefore promote learning.
- **Learning Difficulty can be Negotiated and Fine Tuned for Particular Pedagogical Purposes**
Another claim for tasks is that specific tasks can be designed to facilitate the use and learning of particular aspects of language. Long and Crookes (1991, p. 43) claim that tasks provide a vehicle for the presentation of appropriate target language samples to learners input which they will inevitably reshape via application of general cognitive processing capacities, and for the delivery of comprehension and production opportunities of negotiable difficulty.

Q: What are the content of a conventional syllabus and how TBLT syllabus is different from it?

A conventional syllabus typically specifies the content of a course from among these categories:

- language structures
- functions
- topics and themes
- macro-skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)
- competencies
- text types
- vocabulary targets

The syllabus specifies content and learning outcomes and is a document that can be used as a basis for classroom teaching and the design of teaching materials. Although proponents of TBLT do not preclude an interest in learners' development of any of these categories, they are more concerned with the process dimensions of learning than with the specific content and skills that might be acquired through the use of these processes.

Q: Define TBLT Syllabus?

A TBLT syllabus, therefore, specifies the tasks that should be carried out by learners within a program. Nunan (1989) suggests that a syllabus might specify two types of tasks:

- ✓ **Real-world Tasks** are designed to practice or rehearse those tasks that are found to be important in a needs analysis and turn out to be important and useful in the real world
- ✓ **Pedagogical Tasks** have a psycho linguistic basis in SLA theory and research but do not necessarily reflect real-world tasks. Using the telephone would be an example of the former, and an information-gap task would be an example of the latter. (It should be noted that a focus on Type 1 tasks, their identification through needs analysis, and the use of such information as the basis for the planning and delivery of teaching are identical with procedures used in Competency Based Instruction). In the Bangalore Project (a task-based design for primary age learners of English), both types of tasks were used, as is seen from the following ten task types list:
- ✓ Task type: Example
- ✓ Diagrams and formations: Naming parts of a diagram with numbers and letters of the alphabet as instructed
- ✓ Drawing: Drawing geometrical figures/ formations from sets of verbal instructions
- ✓ Clock faces: Positioning hands on a clock to show a given time
- ✓ Monthly calendar: Calculating duration in days and weeks in the context of travel, leave, and so on
- ✓ Maps: Constructing a floor plan of a house from a description
- ✓ School timetables: Constructing timetables for teachers of particular subjects
- ✓ Programs and itineraries: Constructing itineraries from descriptions of travel
- ✓ Train timetables: Selecting trains appropriate to given Needs

Q: Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993) classify tasks according to the type of interaction that occurs in task accomplishment: Mention their classification in order to answer.

1. **Jigsaw tasks:** These involve learners combining different pieces of information to form a whole (e.g., three individuals or groups may have three different parts of a story and have to piece the story together).
2. **Information-gap tasks:** One student or group of students has one set of information and another student or group has a complementary set of information. They must negotiate and find out what the other party's information is in order to complete an activity.
3. **Problem-solving tasks:** Students are given a problem and a set of information. They must arrive at a solution to the problem. There is generally a single resolution of the outcome.
4. **Decision-making tasks:** Students are given a problem for which there are a number of possible outcomes and they must choose one through negotiation and discussion.
5. **Opinion exchange tasks:** Learners engage in discussion and exchange of ideas. They do not need to reach agreement.

Q: Write down few characteristics of TBLT tasks ?

1. **One-way or two-way:** whether the task involves a one-way exchange of information or a two-way exchange
2. **Convergent or divergent:** whether the students achieve a common goal or several different goals
3. **Collaborative or competitive:** whether the students collaborate to carry out a task or compete with each other on a task
4. **Single or multiple outcomes:** whether there is a single outcome or many different outcomes are possible.
5. **Concrete or abstract language:** whether the task involves the use of concrete language or abstract language
6. **Simple or complex processing:** whether the task requires relatively simple or complex cognitive processing
7. **Simple or complex language:** whether the linguistic demands of the task are relatively simple or complex
8. **Reality-based or not reality-based:** whether the task mirrors a real-world activity or is a pedagogical activity not found in the real world.

Q: What are the Learner Roles in TBLT?

A number of specific roles for learners are assumed in current proposals for TBI. Some of these overlap with the general roles assumed for learners in Communicative Language Teaching while others are created by the focus on task completion as a central learning activity. Primary roles that are implied by task work are:

Group Participant:

Many tasks will be done in pairs or small groups. For students more accustomed to whole class and/or individual work, this may require some adaptation.

Monitor:

In TBLT, tasks are not employed for their own sake but as a means of facilitating learning. Class activities have to be designed so that students have the opportunity to notice how language is used in communication. Learners themselves need to "attend" not only to the message in task work, but also to the form in which such messages typically come packed. A number of learner-initiated techniques to support learner reflection on task characteristics, including language form, are proposed in Bell and Burnaby (1984).

Risk-Taker and Innovator:

Many tasks will require learners to create and interpret messages for which they lack full linguistic resources and prior experience. In fact, this is said to be the point of such tasks. Practice in restating, paraphrasing, using paralinguistic signals (where appropriate), and so on, will often be needed. The skills of guessing from linguistic and contextual clues, asking for clarification, and consulting with other learners may also need to be developed.

Q: What are the Teacher Roles in TBLT?

Additional roles are also assumed for teachers in TBI, including:

Selector and Sequencer of Tasks

A central role of the teacher is in selecting, adapting, and/or creating the tasks themselves and then forming these into an instructional sequence in keeping with learner needs, interests, and language skill level.

Preparing Learners for Tasks

Most TBLT proponents suggest that learners should not go into new tasks "cold" and that some

sort of pre-task preparation or cuing is important. Such activities might include topic introduction, clarifying task instructions, helping students learn or recall useful words and phrases to facilitate task accomplishment, and providing partial demonstration of task procedures. Such cuing may be inductive and implicit or deductive and explicit.

Consciousness-Raising

Current views of TBLT hold that if learners are to acquire language through participating in tasks, they need to attend to or notice critical features of the language they use and hear. This is referred to as "Focus on Form." TBLT proponents stress that this does not mean doing a grammar lesson before students take on a task. It does mean employing a variety of form-focusing techniques, including attention-focusing pre-task activities, text exploration, guided exposure to parallel tasks, and use of highlighted material.

Q: What is the Role of Instructional Materials / Pedagogic Materials in TBLT?

Instructional materials play an important role in TBLT because it is dependent on a sufficient supply of appropriate classroom tasks, some of which may require considerable time, ingenuity, and resources to develop. Materials that can be exploited for instruction in TBLT are limited only by the imagination of the task designer. Many contemporary language teaching texts cite a "task focus" or "task-based activities" among their credentials. A wide variety of realia can also be used as a resource for TBI.

Realia: TBI proponents favor the use of authentic tasks supported by authentic materials wherever possible.

Popular media obviously provide rich resources for such materials. The following are some of the task types that can be built around such media products.

Newspapers: Students examine a newspaper, determine its sections, and suggest three new sections that might go in the newspaper.

- Students prepare a job-wanted ad using examples from the classified section.
- Students prepare their weekend entertainment plan using the entertainment section.

Television: Students take notes during the weather report and prepare a map with weather symbols showing likely weather for the predicted period. In watching an infomercial, students identify and list "hype" words and then try to construct a parallel ad following the sequence of the hype words.

- After watching an episode of an unknown soap opera, students list the characters (with known or made-up names) and their possible relation-ship to other characters in the episode.

Internet: Given a book title to be acquired, students conduct a comparative shopping analysis of three Internet booksellers, listing prices, mailing times, and shipping charges, and choose a vendor justifying their choice.

- Seeking to find an inexpensive hotel in Tokyo, students search with three different search engines (e.g., Yahoo, Netscape, Snap), comparing search times and analyzing the first ten hits to determine most useful search engine for their purpose.
- Students initiate a "chat" in a chat room, indicating a current interest in their life and developing an answer to the first three people to respond. They then start a diary with these text-sets, ranking the responses.

Q: Write down few examples of approaches that have emerged over years

Following are examples of approaches that have emerged over years:

- Communicative Language Teaching
- Competency-Based Language Teaching
- Content-Based Instruction
- Cooperative Learning
- Lexical Approaches
- Multiple Intelligences
- The Natural Approach
- Neurolinguistic Programming
- Task-Based Language Teaching
- Whole Language Approach

Q: Write down few examples of methods that have emerged over years

- Audio-lingualism
- Counseling-Learning Method
- Situational Language Teaching Method
- The Silent Way
- Suggestopedia
- Total Physical Response

Q: What kind of questions will therefore affect the extent to which a new approach or method is adopted?

- What advantages does the new approach or method offer? Is it perceived to be more effective than current practices?
- How compatible is it with teachers' existing beliefs and attitudes and with the organization and practices within classrooms and schools? - Is the new approach or method very complicated and difficult to understand and use?
- Has it been tested out in some schools and classrooms before teachers are expected to use it?
- Have the benefits of the new approach or method been clearly communicated to teachers and institutions?
- How clear and practical is the new approach or method? Are its expectations stated in ways that clearly show how it can be used in the classroom?

Q: What is an Eclectic Approach and who was its proponent?

- Main proponent: Rivers 1981
- Eclectic approach is a method of language education that combines various approaches and methodologies to teach language depending on the aims of the lesson and the abilities of the learners.

Q: What are the personal beliefs and principles in developing a personal approach to teaching?

In developing a personal approach to teaching, a primary reference point for the teacher is his or her personal beliefs and principles with regard to the following:

- his or her role in the classroom
- the nature of effective teaching and learning
- the difficulties learners face and how these can be addressed - successful learning activities
- the structure of an effective lesson

Q: What is the Scope of Post Method?

Post Method approach may not lead to rejection of the approach or method the teacher started out using but will lead to a modification of it as the teacher adds, modifies, and adjusts the approach or method to the realities of the classroom. In developing a personal approach to teaching, a primary reference point for the teacher is his or her personal beliefs and principles with regard to the following:

- His or her role in the classroom
- The nature of effective teaching and learning
- The difficulties faced by the learners and how these can be addressed or solved by successful learning activities
- The structure of an effective lesson; the teacher's belief about what makes a lesson effective.

Q: What are the factors that have influenced language teaching trends?

The initiatives for changing programs and pedagogy may come from within the profession - from teachers, administrators, theoreticians, and researchers. Incentives or demands of a political, social, or even a fiscal nature may also drive change, as they have in the past. Particular personalities and leaders in the field may also shape the future of language teaching. Another possibility that change may also be motivated by completely unexpected sources. Therefore, by identifying some of the factors that have **influenced language teaching trends** in the past

and that can be expected to continue in the future. Some important factors are the following:

Government policy directives: Increased demands for accountability on the part of funding agencies and governments have driven educational changes on a fairly regular basis for decades and are likely to continue to do so in the future.

Trends in the profession: The teaching profession is another source for change. Professional certification for teachers, endorsement of particular trends or approaches by professional organizations and lobby groups promoting particular issues and causes, can have an important influence on teaching.

Gurus' innovations: Teaching has sometimes been described as artistry rather than science and is often shaped by the influence of powerful individual practitioners with their own schools of thought and followers. Just as Gattegno, Lozanov, and Krashen inspired a number of teachers in the 1970s and 1980s, and as Gardner does today, so doubtless new gurus will attract disciples and shape teaching practices in the future.

Responses to technology: The potential of the Internet, the World Wide Web, and other computer interfaces and technological innovations is likely to capture the imagination of the teaching profession in the future as it has in the past and will influence both the content and the form of instructional delivery in language teaching.

Influences from academic disciplines: Disciplines such as linguistics, psycho linguistics, and psychology have an impact on the theories of language and language learning. They support particular approaches to language teaching. As new theories emerge in such disciplines, they are likely to have an impact on theories of teaching and learning in future. Just as in the past Audio-lingualism and Cognitive Code Learning reflected linguistic theories of that period, so new insights from functional linguistics, corpus linguistics, psycho linguistics, or sociolinguistics, or from unknown sources, may play a dominant role in shaping language pedagogy. Research influences second language teaching and learning as a field for intensive study and theorizing. Second language acquisition research provided motivation for the development of the Natural Approach and Task-Based Language Teaching, and this continue to stimulate new language teaching approaches.

Learner-based innovations: Learner-based approach recurs in language teaching and other fields in approximately 10-year cycles. The learner-centered curriculum, learner training, learner strategies, and multiple intelligences have been seen as individualized instructional innovations and can be anticipated to be continued in future.

Crossover educational trends: Cooperative Learning, the Whole Language Approach, Neurolinguistic Programming, and Multiple Intelligences represent crossovers into second language teaching movements in general education and elsewhere. Such crossovers will be continued because the field of language teaching has no control over theories of learning and teaching.

Crossovers from other disciplines: Encounters with cognitive psychology, psychotherapy, communication science, ethnography, and human engineering have left their imprint on language pedagogy and exemplify the way that such diverse disciplines can influence this field. Despite the changes in the status of approaches and methods, it can be expected that the field of second and foreign language teaching would not be a ferment of theories, ideas, and practices in the twenty-first century than it has been in the past.

Q: What is A General Language Processing Model?

There are different 'steps' involved in speaking. When a person wants to express an idea, s/he has to find words for that idea, put those words in a well formed sentence, pronounce the words in the right order, and thousands of tiny muscles co-ordinate in this activity. To get understanding of this complexity of speech processing, Levelt's speaking blueprint (Levelt, 1993; Levelt, 1989) can be considered the most complete and accepted one for a monolingual speakers. According to this model (see Figure A4.1), the production of speech takes place in three relatively distinct stages: the Conceptualiser, the Formulator and the Articulator.

Q: Define Conceptualizer, lemma and grammatical encoding.

The starting point of speech production is the Conceptualizer, which generates a 'preverbal' message and contains meaning intentions that have to be put into words and sentences in the next two stages. This preverbal message contains a number of conceptual characteristics, which lead to the selection of a set of lexical items called 'lemmas' in the Formulator. A 'lemma' can be seen as the 'word to represent a concept'. In addition to representing a concept and containing semantic information, each lemma contains all kinds of other information, how this word combines with other ones. In other words, is it a noun or a verb, and if it is a verb, what type of

complement does it take? Or, is this word formal enough (register), or is this word appropriate in this context (pragmatic information)? Once the appropriate lemmas have been selected, they have to be combined into a well-formed sentence. This process is called ‘grammatical encoding’, which Levelt (1993) describes as ‘solving a set of simultaneous equations’. Grammatical encoding results in a surface structure of a sentence in which all the properties of the lemmas selected are satisfied.

Q: What is phonological encoding?'

However, the surface structure has not yet been specified for its phonological characteristics. This is discussed in the next stage, ‘phonological encoding’, where the phonological information associated with the selected lemmas is matched to phonologically encoded word frames. This procedure takes place in two steps: first an empty skeleton, a ‘metrical frame’ is generated, which is then filled with the segmental content retrieved from the lexicon. The segmental content is stored in the lexeme related to a particular lemma. To summarize, the lexicon in Levelt’s model consists of two separate elements: the lemma, which contains conceptual, semantic, syntactic and pragmatic information, and the lexeme, which is the phonological form associated with the lemma.

Q: Write a short note on Levelt’s model.

Levelt’s model (in which speech comprehension can broadly be regarded to involve the same steps as production, but in reversed order) is widely used as a general framework of language processing and is corroborated by many experimental data. Levelt’s model also has some problems. One of the strong points of the model is its strict modularity, once information has left one stage, it cannot return to that stage. In this way both the speed of language processing and the errors produced by speakers can be accounted for. The disadvantage of this starting point is that although the model allows for corrections by starting at the beginning again (making a loop), the lack of a direct feedback mechanism makes it more difficult to account for the transitions between the stages.

Q: What is A Dynamic Model Of The Multilingual Mental Lexicon?

Levelt’s model is geared towards monolingual speakers, so the question arises how it may account for a multilingual speaker’s language processing. Different attempts have been made to adjust in this context. For example, DeBot (1992) argues that the Conceptualizer is most likely to be language-independent, whereas the Formulator is language-dependent because it contains information about grammar. However, selection of the words from the right language requires the inclusion of language-related information in the preverbal message (DeBot, 2002). As the lexicon plays a central role in language processing, we will discuss these and other matters from the perspective of the multilingual mental lexicon. For these purposes, three questions are most relevant:

- 1 Is lexical information stored in one big lexicon containing all the words of all the languages, or the three separate lexicons for different languages?
- 2 Can languages be switched on or off to achieve accurate processing?
- 3 How can languages be kept apart in speech production?

Q: Can Languages be switched On and Off?

The second question, whether separate languages (or language subsets) can be switched on or off, has an equally long history of answers. An influential proposal was that of Green (1986), who proposed three states in which languages can be at a certain moment in time: selected, active and dormant. The language that is used at a certain moment is the selected language; languages that, at that particular moment, play a role in the background are labeled active languages that do not play a role at that moment is dormant. The assumption of the middlemost level that of the active language is required by the observation that when speaking a particular language, a speaker may use words from another language, either because that word is more appropriate or because the speaker cannot immediately find the word in the selected language. This code-switching is very common, and models of lexical processing must be able to account for this phenomenon.

Q: Define various aspect of bilingualism in Pakistani context?

Pakistani Bilingual Context

When we came to Pakistani bilingual context we need to consider various aspects:

- **Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Diversity**

Pakistan has multiple cultures Bengali, Punjabi, Pashtuns, Sindhis and Balochis and they have their indigenous languages to which they were deeply adhered since long. In such a diverse linguistic society where more than seventy languages are spoken, Urdu serves as national language of Pakistan whereas English is functioning as official language in the country. Urdu has its roots in Persian, Arabic and various local languages.

- **Colonial Heritage**

It is another source of bilingualism in Pakistan. The influence of colonial legacy and past practices also has an impact on current language education policies.

- **National Language**

We have considered the issue of national language and regional languages in this context. Urdu while being the national language, is spoken by less than 8% of population as mother tongue, the rest of the population speaks one of the other 72 languages of Pakistan (Lewis, Simons & Fennings, 2014).

- **Official Language**

It is another factor which play a vital role. English is the language of elite class in Pakistan and has prestige. The power of English cannot be denied when taking about the language teaching methods in Pakistan. It is used as the official language in various institutions of the country.

- **Provincial or Regional Languages**

Research on the use of languages in Pakistani institutions reports that a large number of teachers do use local languages in their classrooms for instruction. (Gulzar & Qadir, 2010)

Q: What are the Issues of Linguistic Identity and Power?

The issues of language and power run as a common thread throughout the history of Pakistan. The child learn his/her first language at home and as the child goes to school he has exposed to Urdu language and then he has introduced with English language at grade six in government institutions. Whereas, at private sector school he has made to learn English from grade one. The complexity is added with code switching and code mixing where the speakers mix the words of their local language or Urdu in teaching or learning of English. Keeping in mind all the scenario of bilingualism, the Grammar translation Method is widely used to teach English in Pakistan.

Q: What is the main goal behind learning ESP?

English for specific purposes (ESP) instruction has long been designed, implemented, and evaluated to meet growing professional and academic communication needs. The primary goal of this endeavor is to equip learners with ESP competence to function in English-mediated professional or academic encounters. Growing needs for ESP instruction have been driven by diverse needs of many speakers of English as an additional language (EAL) working for multinational firms and taking English-medium undergraduate and postgraduate programmes (Widodo 2015).

Q: What are the six main purposes of need analysis by Richards (2001)?

Richards (2001) lists six main purposes:

- To find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as sales managers, tour guides, or university students
- To help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students
- To determine students from a group who are in need of training at a particular language skill
- To identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important
- To identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do
- To collect information about a particular problem which learners are experiencing.

Point to remember.

Widodo and Pusporini (2010) add that needs analysis aims to bridge a gap between insider's perspective/assumption and outsider's perspective/assumption.

EVP, under the umbrella of ESP, has gained its prominence in the English language programs.

Studies of needs analysis have been undertaken over the last 30 years, and examined needs of diverse learner groups in academic, professional, and occupational as well as survival settings (Krohn 2009,) Long (2005) suggests that needs analysis should be well documented.

Q: Write a short note on EVP.

In the context of vocational education both at secondary level (e.g., technical schools) and higher education (e.g., polytechnics), students are commonly placed into particular vocational areas, such as hotel hospitality, accounting, tourism management, and computer engineering. For this reason, students have to experience texts, which are relevant to their vocational knowledge and skills.

English for vocational purposes (EVP) is defined as a program established in both the secondary education and tertiary education sectors, which equips students with English competence that supports their vocational expertise. The role of English as a medium of vocational communication helps students to understand their vocational content, build and develop their vocational knowledge, communicate their vocational expertise, perform specialist tasks, and develop their disciplinary language (Widodo 2015). Drawing on Basturkmen's (2010) classification of ESP, EVP can be designed from wide-angled (English for General Vocational Purposes) and narrow-angled (English for Specific Vocational Purposes) perspectives (Widodo 2014). English for tourism can be classified as English for General Vocational Purposes. Framed in this general vocation, English for tourism has different branches, such as English for Hotel and Restaurant Workers, English for Hotel Receptionists, English for Tour Guides, English for Hotel Management, and Travel English. This specification is tailored to meet students' target vocational areas.

Q: What are the elements of ESP Materials?

The role of materials is very crucial in designing any language instruction. There are seven key elements of ESP materials: (1) authenticity, (2) topics/themes, (3) texts and contexts, (4) knowledge and language, (5) tasks or activities, (6) representations of participants and social practices, and (7) pedagogical prompts. These elements emphasize the totality of what constitutes ESP materials.

Q: Discuss 'authenticity' as an essential element in designing ESP syllabus.

Authenticity has long been hotly debated in English language instruction, and it has emerged since the birth of communicative language teaching (CLT) in the 1970s. Particularly in language materials design, MacDonald et al. (2006) point out that the word, *authenticity*, is an attribute of language, text, and materials (e.g., authentic language, authentic text, and authentic materials). The notion of authenticity is defined as the actual use of texts (e.g., text of hotel room reservation) and tasks (e.g., doing online hotel room booking) in vocational areas. For low proficiency ESP students, authentic materials can be simplified based on language and content they wish to learn. The students can work on shorter texts with relatively easy vocabulary and with simple clauses. They also carry out tasks with more capable peer or teacher support. In the ESP context, authentic language, text, and materials should be relevant to students' specialized knowledge, social practices, and discourses. Taken together, authenticity in ESP materials refers to a number of factors such as actual users or interactants (e.g., hotel receptionists and guests), communicative and social purposes (e.g., check-in and check-out encounters), contexts (e.g., hotel hospitality), and social practices (e.g., guest registration).

Q: Discuss 'theme or topic' as an essential element in designing ESP syllabus.

The second element of materials is themes or topics. In every English lesson both EGP and ESP, identifying themes is one of the important criteria for selecting materials because "a content topic is always the starting point for learning" (Huang and Morgan 2003). Determining a particular topic aims to specify materials content.

In some ESP literature, the issue of content is associated with content based instruction (CBI) or content and language integrated learning (CLIL), one of the approaches to ESP instruction. A topic of student interest underlies a language lesson, and it is anchored in a particular genre. Within this framework, there are dual learning goals, content-focused learning and language-focused learning. Specifically in ESP materials, a theme is also a crucial component of disciplinary knowledge construction. Specifying content in materials also frames topics of

interest relevant to what students are currently doing in their vocational areas. In deciding themes in ESP materials, ESP teachers need to know core competencies of students' vocational areas among diverse topics of interest in the vocational context.

Q: Discuss 'Texts and contexts' as an essential element in designing ESP syllabus.

Texts and contexts are another component of ESP materials. Creation of texts is always attached to social environments where texts are socio-historically constructed. Understanding text "requires an interpretation not only of the text itself but also of its context (context of situation, context of culture), and of the systematic relationship between context and text" (Halliday 1994). Halliday (1999) argues "the environment for language as text is the context of situation, and the environment for language as system is the context of culture". This suggests that texts are flexibly interpreted in relation to context. This context involves users, texts, and communicative purposes (genres). To design ESP materials (e.g., English for culinary tourism or Accounting English), teachers should include texts, which are used in culinary tourism or accounting contexts so that students will become familiar with how to understand and produce texts in these vocational domains.

Q: Discuss 'knowledge and language' as an essential element in designing ESP syllabus.

The fourth element of ESP materials includes knowledge and language. Knowledge is seen as 'systems for interpreting the world', systems that are transformed as they are being used for understanding (Barnes, as cited, Huang and Morgan 2003). It comprises a number of interrelated components. Knowledge development cannot be divorced from language development. From a functional perspective, language is a resource for meaning making; thereby providing a principled account of how knowledge as content and language as a linguistic system/resource are intermingled with each other in discourse (Huang & Morgan, 2003). Hence, linguistically, language is always integrated with knowledge as content because it presents and shapes knowledge as content and organizes texts, which comprise the knowledge. The nature of content knowledge varies from one register to another: common sense/ everyday knowledge (e.g., a report), academic/scientific/disciplinary knowledge (e.g., a ledger), professional knowledge (e.g., financial accounting), and vocational knowledge (e.g., financial statements). Particularly in a field-specific or ESP domain, technicality/disciplinarity renders specialized or field-specific meaning (Wignell et al. 1993), and it helps compress meanings (Woodward, Kron, 2008).

Q: Discuss 'Tasks or activities' as an essential element in designing ESP syllabus.

Tasks or activities (task-oriented activities: online hotel room reservation and completing a check-in form and language-oriented activities: text-based grammar analysis) are a crucial part of language materials. Task design determines how much students engage with texts and activities (Widodo 2015). Motivating activities always foster students' engagement that allows them opportunities to gain access to knowledge as well as opportunities to engage in using language in their discipline specific practices. Without tasks or activities, learning will never happen though students are given texts. Learning activities vary from a general task to a specific task, depending on the goals. The nature of activities is interactional (meaning making and negotiation) and transactional (information and product-service exchanges). In a language for specific purposes, for example, tasks should be aimed at "helping learners recognize language patterns typical in different disciplines can raise their awareness about the varied ways language constructs knowledge in different subjects" (Fang and Schleppegrell 2010). In addition, the activities should provide students the opportunities to make use of language to reflect disciplinary knowledge and practice in disciplinary community discourses. In other words, informed awareness of language use and capability of using the language become the central learning goals. This suggests that students should be fully capable of recognizing and using disciplinary knowledge and language as a social semiotic (Halliday 1978) in social discourse communities.

Q: Discuss 'representations of participants and social practices' as an essential element in designing ESP syllabus.

Another element of language materials is representations of participants and social practices. Both participants (enacting social relationships) and practices as social processes (Malinowski & Firth, as cited in Halliday 1999) are socially intertwined because social practices are a product of human interaction mediated by language as a form of action. Representations of participants and social practices are shaped by context of situation (register)

and context of culture (genre). Thus, the use of language becomes context-specific. It is important to help students become fully aware of actual actors in particular social practices. Participants/ actors and social practices are key components in actual communicative settings; all groups of people engage in social practices. For example, in vocational communicative settings, a hotel receptionist welcomes guests and assists them with check-in stuff. The nature of this social encounter is definitely interactional and transactional because both engage with negotiated meaning making and with product-service exchanges.

Q: Discuss ‘pedagogical/ Instructional prompts’ as an essential element in designing ESP syllabus.

Instructional prompts are instructive information that guides or enables students to perform learning tasks. These verbal or non-verbal scaffolds help students manage self-regulated learning. Some researchers argue that prompts are “questions or elicitations which aim to induce meaningful learning activities by eliciting learning strategies and learning activities that the students are capable of, but do not show spontaneously. Prompts stimulate active processing of the learning materials and direct the attention to central aspects” (Schworm and Gruber 2012, p. 274). Instructional prompts are also considered as an important strategy of self-regulated learning. Empirical findings show that such prompts foster learning outcomes, so they have proven to be a powerful instructional tool (Hübner et al. 2010). Prompts are questions, hints, or instructions geared to stimulate engaging learning behaviors. For this reason, prompts should be situated in social and cultural contexts so that students are able to carry out specific tasks (Horz et al. 2009). In the EVP context, the following instructional prompts stimulate student engagement: Navigate and select two different culinary arts texts in a newspaper/ a magazine and a textbook. Then, compare the use of language in the two texts in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Do these tasks in pairs.

Q: Write down two goals by EVP teachers.

In EVP programs, teachers attempt to achieve two goals: (1) building content knowledge and skills and (2) developing language. These dual goals help students optimize the learning of EVP.

Q: What are the tasks in VOLL

There are a variety of tasks that support vocationally oriented language learning (VOLL), that is, English for Vocational Purposes (EVP). Three tasks are mainly suggested that ESP teachers may adopt or adapt. These tasks include

- (1) Vocational Vocabulary Building,
- (2) Vocational Knowledge Building, and
- (3) Functional Metalanguage Analysis.

These tasks are a springboard for language skills tasks such as vocationally oriented speaking and writing. These speaking and writing tasks help students develop their ability to produce both spoken and written texts.

Q: Write a short note on Vocational Vocabulary Building.

To comprehend and produce both spoken and written texts, language learners should have sufficient size and depth of vocabulary knowledge. The size of vocabulary knowledge pertains to the number of words that language learners know at a particular level of language ability (Akbarian, 2010), but the depth of vocabulary knowledge is referred to as how well language learners know a lexical item in different contexts (Nassaji, 2004). Research into second vocabulary acquisition (e.g., Akbarian, 2010; Nassaji, 2004) shows that vocabulary knowledge includes different dimensions, such as pronunciation, spelling, register, style, morphological features, and syntactic and semantic relationships with other words (e.g., collocations, antonymy, synonymy, and hyponymy). Of these dimensions, register, style, and syntactic and semantic relationships with other words are important for EVP students, but for low proficiency students, morphological features of words may be introduced.

In the EVP context, students encounter both general and technical vocabularies. Between two types of vocabulary, they may find semi-technical vocabulary, “lexical items that are neither specific to a certain field of knowledge nor general in the sense of being everyday words” (Hsu, 2013). In short, vocabulary knowledge is an

important dimension of EVP so that students can understand and produce both spoken and written texts in the vocational context. For focused vocabulary building tasks, vocational vocabulary needs to be prioritized.

Q: Write down few tasks, which help students enhance size and depth of vocabulary knowledge.

Repeated Reading (RR): The use and impact of RR (Samuels 1979) in second and foreign language vocabulary learning has been studied (see Gorsuch and Taguchi 2008). In RR, students are told to do repeated reading and pay attention to words that they need to know more in terms of morphological features and semantic taxonomies. For low proficient students, assisted RR is a useful task to help them build their vocabulary knowledge.

Shared Reading or Text-based Discussion: Students discuss some technical words, which are related to the text they read. In this shared reading, students can talk about the words with their peers or with a teacher. They may elaborate on the use of the identified words in other contexts. The students share what words they learned or found in the text with which they engaged.

Intentional Vocabulary Learning through Intensive Reading along with Peer and Teacher Discussion: Students learn new words intentionally through intensive reading. This intentional vocabulary learning can develop vocabulary knowledge (Kasahara, 2011). Students are given a freedom of choice to learn vocabulary incidentally based on their language needs. By reading a large amount of text, students may notice particular lexical items that they would like to learn more.

Vocabulary Portfolio Task: Students are asked to identify unfamiliar words in the text they read. They create a vocabulary portfolio, which includes morphological and semantic properties. In this vocabulary portfolio, students document word formation (e.g., *produce* — *production*), collocations, synonyms, and hyponyms of lexical items identified. Students can also include vocabulary elaboration based on these taxonomies of elaboration: (1) naming, (2) defining, (3) classifying, (4) describing, and (5) explaining. Another form of a vocabulary portfolio is a Discipline-Specific Word List/Corpus. A Word List aims to document both general and technical words that students find widely used in their vocational area. The selection of words can be based on vocational themes, which convey key concepts in the area students are learning.

Theme-Based Writing Task: Theme-based writing tasks start with vocational themes students are learning. In this task, students pick a word, which conveys key vocational information. For example, they can compose a procedure text or an information report text using the word, *a ledger* or the recording process, in Accounting English. They can write a step-by-step procedure for preparing for a ledger or for the recording process in the accounting area. This actual writing may begin by asking students to name, define, classify, and describe particular specialist vocabulary on which students wish to elaborate. This vocabulary elaboration leads to the actual writing task, depending on which a text type students focus on.

Q: Write a short note on Vocational Knowledge Building.

Knowledge building is the key to communication. Without sufficient knowledge, one cannot present or elaborate on a particular idea. A threshold of knowledge about a topic or topical knowledge is one of the contributing factors in successful communication. In language learning, topical knowledge is a springboard for rendering language skills such as speaking and writing as well as making meaning of both spoken and written texts. Knowledge of vocational areas varies from one discourse to another. In EVP classrooms, knowledge building can be carried out through extensive listening and extensive reading. These activities help students develop their knowledge. Students may use online resources, which provide them with a wide range of both spoken and written texts. While building vocational knowledge, students can explore how this knowledge can be presented through a different use of language because language is a tool for knowledge building or production.

Q: Write down three tasks that ESP teachers can adopt to assist their students to develop vocational or content knowledge.

Reading with Literature Circles: In the EFL context, literature circles have been studied to explore the benefits of literature circles, such as student engagement, knowledge building, and language development. In this literature circle, students are assigned to navigate, select, and present a vocational text. They are given autonomy to opt for a topic or a theme, which is relevant to their vocational interest (culinary tourism, financial accounting, or software engineering). In this dialogic and shared reading, students are asked to form a group of four to six

members. They “meet regularly to share ideas, feelings, questions, connections, and judgments about [texts] they had read” (Daniels, 2002, p. 7). Each of the members plays different roles, such as text pickers (navigate and select a text), text masters (understand and present the text), and language enrichers (explain lexicogrammatical items and provide language resources). Teachers may assign students with a variety of roles in order to optimize literature circle-oriented reading activities and to encourage students’ engagement. Thus, a literature circle-based reading task encourages students not only to talk about their vocational knowledge but also build and develop this disciplinary knowledge.

Extensive Listening with Listening Journals: Students are assigned to listen to authentic listening texts and regular listening practice in the vocational domain. At the outset, student may be assigned to do simultaneous reading and listening in order to develop auditory discrimination, improve word recognition, develop a reading rate, and enhance an awareness of form-meaning relationships (Gobel & Kano, 2014). ESP teachers can guide students to find digital texts through YouTube or through Google Search. Students are allowed to listen to these texts repeatedly. A variety of topics help learners develop their vocabulary through different contexts. Learners should engage in planned sustained listening for a set time between 15 and 60 min so that they become familiar with the content and language of the spoken text. To document what students listened, ESP teachers can ask them to create listening journals, which may include a summary of spoken text and language genres of the text.

Extensive Reading with Learning Logs: Students are assigned to read a variety of vocational textbooks, articles, and manuals, for example. Software engineering students may read textbooks on programming language and antivirus software. Tourism students may read articles on tour guides, culinary tourism, and tourist destination management. The themes of extensive reading can be determined based on core vocational competencies that students have to achieve or develop. Vocationally oriented extensive reading enables students to build a reading tradition while widening a horizon of their vocational knowledge.

Q: Compare the vocabulary size of native and non native speaker.

It is estimated that a well-educated native speaker of English knows about 20,000 word families, or around 32,000 vocabulary items, excluding proper names (Goulden et al. 1990). This figure is a very ambitious and unrealistic goal for any L2 learning programme. It has been proposed that the vocabulary size of a highly educated non-native speaker of English is around 8000–9000 word families (Nation 2006) – less than a half of that of a native speaker of English.

Q: Write down comprehension analysis of reading by Hu and Nation (2000).

Hu and Nation (2000) studied that knowledge of 98%–99% of the lexical items in a written text is required to avoid comprehension problems caused by new words. They determined lexical coverage by replacing the low frequency items in their text with nonsense words. Reading comprehension was measured using a reading comprehension test and a cued recall test. It was found that with text coverage of 80 % (one in every five words being a nonsense word), no L2 reader was able to demonstrate satisfactory comprehension. When the text coverage figure was increased to 90%, a very small number of learners demonstrated adequate comprehension. When the figure was further increased to 100 %, most learners were able to demonstrate good comprehension of the text. Further analysis revealed that 98 % text coverage (i.e., one unknown word in every 50 words) would be required for most L2 learners to achieve good comprehension of a text.

Q: How large vocabulary is needed to comprehend a variety of written and spoken texts?

Nation (2006) in a more recent corpus study investigated how large vocabulary was needed to comprehend a variety of written and spoken texts. For example, it was found that a vocabulary of 9000 word families (made from the British National Corpus (BNC)) would be needed to read *Lady Chatterley’s Lover* by D. H. Lawrence, and a vocabulary of 8000–9000 would be needed to read other similar novels. Interestingly, a similar 8000–9000 vocabulary size was found to be needed for adequate comprehension of newspaper texts.

When simplified texts, such as graded readers designated for language learners, it was found that only 3000 word families were needed to achieve a 98 % coverage level. Nation (2006) also looked at spoken texts, such as a children’s movie *Shrek* and unscripted spoken English. The former required about 7000 word families and the latter a comparable 6000–7000 word families, excluding proper nouns. It was concluded that if one takes 98 % as

the ideal coverage, a 8000–9000 word-family vocabulary is needed to deal with most written texts, and 6000–7000 word families are required to deal with most spoken texts (other figures have also been proposed; for example, van Zeeland and Schmitt (2013) found that, based on a 95 % coverage figure, language learners would need to know 2000–3000 word families for adequate listening comprehension, which is, clearly, lower than Nation's (2006) estimate of 6000–7000 families based on a 98 % figure). These vocabulary sizes might be considered as useful language learning targets.

Q: Why L2 vocabulary learning progress is often slow and uneven

L2 vocabulary learning progress is often slow and uneven. This is due to a number of inter-related factors, such as insufficient input, lack of opportunities to use the language outside the classroom (insufficient output), teaching methods used (communicative language teaching vs. grammar-translation method), amount of time dedicated to the English language in general, amount of time dedicated to vocabulary learning in particular, and so on.

Q: Define English vocabulary knowledge and learning rates in the EFL context

Different studies have shown that English vocabulary knowledge and learning rates in the EFL context fall short of what is considered to be a norm in the L1 context. For example, Nurweni and Read (1999) investigated the English vocabulary knowledge of 324 first-year university students in the Indonesian EFL context.

They found that after six years of formal English language instruction, on average, the learners knew 1226 English words (986 words, or just under 50 %, of the General Service List (West 1953) and 240 words, or 30 %, of the University Word List (Xue and Nation 1984)). Given that L2 learners of English are thought to require 4000–5000 words to be able to read university level textbooks (Nation 1990), it is evident that the EFL learners in Nurweni and Read (1999) were not equipped even with the most basic vocabulary to be able to cope with university-level readings. As the authors conclude, the limited vocabulary knowledge found in their study is disconcerting as Indonesian EFL learners are expected to have the vocabulary size of a minimum of 4000 words upon entry to the university. As a possible solution to such an alarmingly low level of vocabulary gains, the authors recommended paying more attention to vocabulary learning; in particular, focusing more directly on teaching high-frequency words.

Webb and Chang (2012), who investigated the vocabulary knowledge of 166 EFL learners in Taiwan over a period of five years. They measured students' vocabulary learning progress using the Vocabulary Levels Test (Schmitt et al. 2001). The data were examined according to the number of hours of English language instruction that learners had received (e.g., while one group enjoyed between 10 and 22 h of English classes per week, another group had a mere 2–6 h of English per week). The authors found that those with less exposure to English learnt significantly fewer words (some learnt as few as 18 words in one year), while the learners with greater exposure learnt as many as 430 words in one year. Perhaps, most disappointingly, the study revealed that after nine years of English language instruction, less than half of all the learners had mastered the words in the first 1000 word families. More disappointingly, only 16 % of the learners had mastered the words in the second 1000 word families. Similar to Nurweni and Read (1999), Webb and Chang (2012) highlighted the need to focus on the high-frequency words specifically those in the first and second 1000 word families.

Q: What is the role of lexical frequency in vocabulary building?

Frequency plays a central role in language acquisition, processing and use. It is believed that the language processor is tuned to input frequency because language users are sensitive to the frequencies of linguistic events in their experiences. Lexical frequency effects are most robust in psycholinguistic research, and are thought to be responsible for the organization of the lexicon (Bod et al. 2003; Ellis 2002; Forster, 1976). Indeed, frequency is a decisive factor indicating which L1 words are likely to be learned and when. Some words are acquired early in a child's life (milk, bottle, dog), others may be acquired later in life (internet, university, marriage); many words, however, may never be acquired, used, or ever encountered by even highly educated L1 users (terms and other very low frequency words: dactylion, tachyphagia, yclept). It is surprising that frequency of occurrence should be the guiding force in language teachers' and course designers' decisions regarding the planning and sequencing of the words. Over the past two decades, corpus-driven studies of written and spoken discourse have been

fundamental in improving our understanding of the relative frequency of words.

Important figures: helpful for MCQs

Nation (2006) found that a 8000–9000 word-family vocabulary is needed to deal with written texts, and 6000–7000 word families are needed to adequately comprehend spoken texts. Nation (2006) concluded that the greatest variation in vocabulary is likely to occur in the first 1000 word families, which cover around 80 and 83 % of written and spoken texts, respectively. Similarly, the most frequent 1000 word families in the BNC were also found to cover over 85 % of the words in 88 television programmes (Webb and Rodgers 2009a) and around 86 % of the words in 318 movies (Webb and Rodgers 2009b). These findings demonstrate the value of the high frequency words and make learning the first 1000 word families of primary importance in any English language-learning programme. On the contrary, the second 1000 word families in Nation (2006) were found to account for around 9 and 6 % of written and spoken language, respectively, while combined the fourth and the fifth 1000 word families were found to provide only 3 % coverage of written and 2 % coverage of spoken texts. However, in order to reach specific language learning goals and communicate effectively in the L2, it is fundamental to learn and operate with the words beyond the first 1000 word families.

An educated native speaker knows 20,000 word families, while an educated L2 speaker's vocabulary is 8000–9000 words, the latter may be a life-long challenge for an EFL learner

Q: What is Vocabulary-Learning Programme by Nation's (2001) model?

What can help learners and teachers in the vocabulary learning quest is the development of a sound institutional programme aimed at optimizing vocabulary teaching and learning. A prominent example of such a programme is Nation's (2001) model that incorporates the vocabulary component of a language course. The main tenets and elements of this model can be summarized as follows:

1. Establishing Goals and Needs

While an overarching goal will, inevitably, be to increase learners' vocabulary size, more specific goals may differ from one group of learners to another.

2. Taking into Account Environmental Factors

Nation (2001) suggests establishing features and characteristics of the learners (e.g., Do they share the same L1?), the teachers (e.g., Are teachers well informed about teaching and learning vocabulary?), and the situation (e.g., Do L1 and L2 share cognate vocabulary?).

3. Following Vocabulary-teaching Principles

Nation's model has the three core principles of content and sequencing, format and presentation, and monitoring and assessment. Content and sequencing deal with the vocabulary to be learnt, its stages and means of learning.

4. Evaluation of the Vocabulary Component of a Language Course

The final component of the model centres on evaluating the effectiveness of the vocabulary component of a language programme. Nation (2001, 2008) provides a number of principles that can be used to achieve this aim.

Q: Write down two vocabulary learning activities outside the classroom?

Nation (2001) notes that opportunities for indirect vocabulary learning should occupy more time in a language course than direct vocabulary learning activities. Such indirect activities may, for example, include **extensive reading and extensive viewing**.

Q: Discuss Vocabulary acquisition through Extensive Reading.

Reading may not be the main source of vocabulary acquisition in an instructed language-learning context (Laufer 2003), but it can be used as a useful activity outside the EFL classroom. It is also one of the activities central to Nation's (2001) strand of meaning-focused input. Second language researchers, educators and practitioners have long acknowledged an important role of reading in vocabulary acquisition (Pigada and Schmitt 2006). It has been claimed that acquiring vocabulary through reading leads to learning gains due to repeated encounters with the same word. According to Nation's (2001) core principles of vocabulary teaching, spaced, repeated exposures are imperative for vocabulary learning. This suggests that longer texts might be better suited for vocabulary learning purposes than shorter ones, as the same word would be encountered a number of times. Extensive reading has been argued to be particularly effective in vocabulary learning. It not only offer

opportunities for repeated exposure to the same lexical item, but also provides learners with opportunities to use words according to context, helping them notice, read, analyze, and eventually learn new items.

Q: How modern technology is beneficial in extensive reading?

Modern technology can also help teachers to use extensive reading more effectively in the EFL context. For example, the RANGE programme (Nation and Heatley 2002) allows teachers to tactically choose texts for different courses according to the vocabulary level of their learners. When selecting texts for use in and outside the classroom, it is advisable to use texts that are primarily made of high frequency words and contain relatively few low frequency words. The RANGE programme, which allows the user to compare vocabulary loads of a large number of texts at the same time, is easy to use and can be an invaluable tool for teachers and course designers alike. Webb and Chang (2012) argue that judiciously selecting texts for high frequency words will provide superior conditions to comprehension and will allow the learner to focus their attention on the target vocabulary.

Q: Write down ten principles put forward by Day and Bamford (2002) for an extensive reading.

Day and Bamford (2002) put forward ten principles for an extensive reading approach that deal with the nature, conditions and methodologies necessary for its implementation and success:

- The reading material is easy
- A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available;
- Learners choose what they want to read;
- Learners read as much as possible (i.e., multiple encounters with a new word are necessary; Nation and Wang (1999) suggest that learners need to read about one book per week in order to meet repetitions of a new word soon enough to reinforce the previous meeting);
- The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding;
- Reading is its own reward;
- Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower;
- Reading is individual and silent;
- Teachers orient and guide learners;
- The teacher is a role model of a reader.

Q: Write a short note on Extensive Viewing.

Webb (2009, 2014) recommended extensive viewing of English language television programmes as an approach to increase vocabulary growth. Lin and Chanturia (2014) suggest that internet television may be an ideal material for developing autonomous learners' vocabulary. They argue that EFL learners can take internet television with them and watch it wherever they want to be. Recent technological developments mean that internet television is accessible with a few clicks on an internet enabled smartphone, allowing learners to receive authentic input even if they have few minutes on a train.

Extensive viewing is like extensive reading that too promotes repeated exposure to lexical items and exploits contextual cues available to the viewer. The television provides multimodal (e.g., aural, visual) contextual cues, which are likely to make it easier for learners to not only work out the meaning of an unknown lexical item, but also to learn the new item (Lin & Chanturia, 2014).

Q: Learners may need help and guidance on how to use watching television a valuable learning experience. In this regard Lin and Chanturia suggested some strategies for EFL learners: Write down any 3 from them.

The following strategies, adapted from Lin and Chanturia (2014) may guide EFL learners

- **Repeated viewing:** Repeated viewing leads to repeated encounters with a vocabulary item. There is no maximum number of times that a learner can watch a given episode
- **Training on contextual vocabulary learning skills:** This will help learners acquire implicitly from watching television;
- **Programme selection:** While learners' individual interests should be prioritized, Lin (2014) argues that

programmes should be chosen based on the extent to which they reflect real language use. Lin (2014) found that television programmes in the factual, drama and comedy categories were more representative of everyday English than programmes in the music, learning and religion categories:

- **Narrow viewing:** Viewing programmes on the same or similar theme, which is more likely to provide multiple repetitions of vocabulary items and may help learners, accumulate vocabulary on a particular topic (Rodgers & Webb 2011);
- **Subtitles:** Subtitles have been found to aid vocabulary learning (Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999). However, more research is needed on the effect of subtitles on foreign language learning, as recent findings suggest that while foreign language subtitles may assist learning, native-language subtitles may, in fact, create lexical interference (Mitterer & McQueen, 2009).

Q: Write down few benefits from reading-while-listening activities for vocabulary building.

Research suggests that reading with listening can lead to greater vocabulary learning than reading alone (Webb & Chang 2012; Webb et al. 2013). TED Talks and other similar services provide a range of videos and talks with transcripts. In addition, Tom Cobb's Compleat Lexical Tutor (available at <http://www.lextutor.ca/>) offers a range of electronic versions of graded and ungraded readers accompanied by recordings that a learners can listen to before, after, or during reading. It is noteworthy that the Complete Lexical Tutor is an extremely valuable resource for teachers and learners alike, offering such tools as word lists, concordancers, vocabulary profilers, and vocabulary tests.

Overall, researchers agree that watching (traditional) television and internet television can be a useful EFL activity promoting learner autonomy and enhancing vocabulary learning, and recommend including extensive viewing of television into the language-learning programme.

Q: Throw some light on ELF (English as a Lingua Franca).

ELF is defined as "a means of communication between people who come from different first language backgrounds" (Jenkins 2012, p. 486). What it implies is that it is the English that all users of English, regardless of whether they are native or non-native speakers, ESL or EFL learners, employ to interact with each other. In Jenkins' own elaboration, a speaker of ELF includes "... any user of English, be they from an L1 English country, a post-colonial English country, or a country where English is neither L1 nor official language" (Jenkins 2012, p. 487).

With such an all-encompassing definition of an English language 'user,' the goals of teaching English pronunciation have become manifold. The traditional aim of acquiring one 'standard' pronunciation will not suffice. Learners nowadays have to learn to communicate with English speakers of different varieties, both native and non-native. They have to understand the pronunciation features among these varieties, which can range from dialectal variations to learners' errors. Such a standpoint definitely imposes changes in terms of the content and methodology in pronunciation teaching and learning.

Q: Writ down affective factors for teaching Pronunciation in Pakistani context.

- Education system of Pakistan
- L2 and ELT in Pakistan
- Examination system in Pakistan
- Language skills and Classroom practices

Intelligibility in an ELF Context?

From net

Q: Discuss two factors awareness raising and self-monitoring in pronunciation teaching.

In teaching and learning of pronunciation, two factors are crucial: awareness raising (Burgess and Spencer 2000; Jenkins 2004; Jones 1997) and self-monitoring (Arteaga 2000; Hinkel 2006; Scarcella and Oxford 1994). If learners are unaware of their spoken English, unintelligible to other speakers; they will not take the initiative to change. This refers to Schmidt's (1990, 2001) '**noticing hypothesis**'. It is especially applicable in the teaching and

learning of pronunciation. If a learner is not able to notice the distinction between /i/ and /ɪ/ in beach and bitch, how do we expect the learner to take initiative to produce the different vowel sounds? At the same time, if a teacher is ignorant of such distinctions, how can he/she make the learners become aware of such differences? It has been found that phonemic awareness facilitates the learning of new vocabulary items among L1 children (Ehri, 2005).

- **Awareness raising**

In an ELF context, the teaching and learning of pronunciation awareness means being sensitive to the differences among the language varieties. Learners should be made aware of the major differences among the regional varieties such as the vowel alternation between the RP /ɑ:/ and GA /æ/ in words like dance, ask, master, etc. As a result, they will be able to comprehend the speech of speakers of these two major varieties. Very often, miscomprehension is not so much the learners' inability to hear accurately what NSs produce; rather, it is their lack of awareness of the fact that not all speakers of English speak in the same way. The raising of learners' awareness of the pronunciation features of other varieties of English is especially important in an ELF context.

- **Self-Monitoring in Pronunciation Learning**

Being aware of the difficulties in English pronunciation does not necessarily lead to the production of intelligible English speech. The speech production is automatic (Levelt 1989). In the acquisition process of an L1, the articulation of individual segments and their combinations become less controlled and more automatic. However, in learning an L2, some of our 'automated' speech production skills of L1 will have to adjust accordingly and modifying these skills can be as difficult as acquiring new ones. This always requires a lot of conscious effort in the beginning. Conscious monitoring of one's own speech is a useful strategy in learning a new sound system. To achieve fluency in an L2, paradoxically, is to minimize the effort to consciously control one's production and to maximize automaticity.

The initial effort for L2 learners to consciously control their speech production may derive from declarative knowledge imparted to them by their teachers. This is a necessary and important stage because they need to practice these skills so as to 'automatize' them to achieve fluency.

Web-enhanced language learning (WELL)

Q: How internet can be useful for pronunciation?

As far as pronunciation is concerned, the following types of resources, which facilitate pronunciation learning, can be easily located on the internet:

- Authentic English speech such as newscasts (e.g., BBC & CNN), movies, documentaries.
- Online dictionaries with audio pronunciation demonstration (e.g., Cambridge & Merriam- Webster).
- Web-based pronunciation practice exercises
- Downloadable speech analysis programmes (e.g., PRAAT, SFS)
- Online video communication facilities (e.g., Skype)

Q: What is the difference between speech analysis programmes namely PRAAT and SFS/WASP?

However, nowadays many speech analysis programmes are user friendly and are available as freeware. Two of the popular ones are PRAAT and SFS/WASP. PRAAT is 'Doing phonetics by computer' (Boersma & Weenink, 2013), developed by the two authors at the University of Amsterdam. SFS and WASP stand for 'Speech Filing System' and 'Windows Tool for Speech Analysis' are developed by researchers at University College London. SFS is more sophisticated while WASP shows simple waveforms and pitch patterns. These programmes enable users to record speech and display their speech signals as visual display. Learners and teachers may make use of the visual display to practice, for example, intonation patterns. It has been reported in (Ai et al., 2014) that a programme named 'Sprinter' has been developed to automatically detect pronunciation errors and learners can improve their pronunciation by the visual display, which is similar to the display shown in PRAAT or WASP.

Q: What is the limitation of web-based resources and what is the solution?

The only limitation of these types of web-based resources is its one-way communication. Video conferencing programmes such as Skype, Viber, and Facetime, can solve this problem. These tools facilitate face-to-face communication opportunities. They provide a useful platform for interaction among students of different language backgrounds.

Q While the internet has housed many resources for learners to learn independently: explain two of them?

While the internet has housed many resources for learners to learn independently, it is also a major source for learners to be exposed to the many different varieties of English. For example, ‘**the speech accent archive**’ constructed by Weinberger (2014) and his colleagues has provided speech samples from more than 300 in L1 language backgrounds for comparison. The speech samples were collected based on a short reading passage, so it is easy to examine the differences among speakers. Each speech sample contains an audio recording, together with the reading passage in ordinary orthography and in phonetic transcription. One useful feature of this website is that each sample includes a description of all the special features for each speaker.

A website similar to the speech accent archive is **IDEA** (International Dialects of English Archive) (Meier, 2015). The main difference between these two archives is that the speech samples in IDEA contain both scripted and spontaneous speech while those in the accent archive are recorded based on a scripted short passage. Another special feature of IDEA is that it welcomes submission from the public. In other words, learners can submit their speech sample to be archived on the website. The website showing the different varieties of English “Accents of English from Around the World” developed by a team of experts at the University of Edinburgh. This allows users to compare the pronunciation of 110 different words from a wide range of regions including England, Ireland, Scotland, Canada, US, South Africa, Australia, New Zealand, Nigeria, India, and Singapore.

Q: Write a note on Speaking Competence.

Speaking involves dynamic interactions of mental, articulatory and social processes. To express a message, speakers need to decide what to say and use their linguistic knowledge to construct utterances and encode messages in sounds and sound patterns which can be recognised and understood by their listeners. They also need to consider the context of interaction and engage their listeners in socially appropriate ways through various linguistic choices and forms. For example, speakers may choose to use certain vocabulary or register when speaking with people with whom they have shared knowledge and experience. Speaking is also influenced by varied cognitive and affective factors, such as the ability to process speech quickly and feelings of anxiety. It is instructive to examine a description of L2 oral communication by Johnson (1981) that is still relevant today.

Consider what is involved in producing a conversation utterance. Apart from being grammatical, the utterance must be appropriate on many levels at the same time; it must confirm the speaker’s aim, the relationships between the speaker and listener, the setting, topic, linguistic context, etc. The speaker must also produce his utterance within severe constraints; he does not know in advance what will be said to him, yet, if the conversation is not to flag, he must respond quickly. The rapid formulation of utterances which are simultaneously “right” on several levels is central to the spoken communicative skill.

Q: Write down Five critical aspects of L2 speaking identifies by Johnson.

1. Enabling Skills

An important characteristic of competence is the ability to produce utterances that are grammatically accurate. Accuracy alone, however, is an insufficient, competent speaker need to use language for myriads functions to achieve a range of communication goals. They use various subskills that **enable** them to navigate the social elements at work in any interaction.

The main aim of skills in the conceptualization of speaking competence is demonstrated in various discussions of the construct of speaking in which a number of production and interaction skills have been identified. Goh and Burns (2012) have grouped speaking skills into four sets or clusters of skills, each with many sub-skills respectively that are appropriate for the learning and communication needs of learners.

2. Pronunciation Skills

The articulatory and phonological skills enable speakers to produce sounds at the segmental and suprasegmental levels. At the segmental level, learners need to articulate discrete sounds such as vowels, consonants and diphthongs, and clusters of these sounds through movement with and inside of their mouths to produce intelligible sounds through the articulatory tract. The suprasegmental level concerns overall sound patterns of utterances or parts of an utterance and are realised mainly but not exclusively through prominence (stress of selected syllables in key words) and tones (pitch movements in selected key words).

3. Speech Function Skills

We use speech to perform speech acts, that is to say we produce spoken language to get things done. To achieve this, speakers need to produce utterances that can convey desired communicative functions through a combination of appropriate language use, vocabulary choice and grammar

4. Interaction Management Skills

Some speech functions are directly related to the ability to manage an interaction or regulate the flow of conversations. Just as children learning their first language need to learn how to initiate and sustain face-to-face interactions, language learners need to develop skills to do so in another language.

5. Discourse Organization Skills

Most spoken interactions occur in the contexts where participants have equal or similar opportunities to talk. Very often, however, language learners may have longer turns and are required to produce extended pieces of discourse, for example, when giving a presentation, explaining or describing procedures and narrating an event or a story. They will therefore need skills to construct these spoken texts in ways that are consistent with the sociocultural conventions for the respective genres in the language being learnt.

Q: Describe Processes in Speech Production and Designing Activities in context of level's model.

L2 speaking models have been used to understand the speech production in cognitive psychology. The model that has been adopted in several L2 speaking discussions is Levelt's (1989) framework of conceptualization, formulation and articulation based on first language speakers (Bygate, 1998). Conceptualization is a speaker's mental planning process to determine what he or she intends to say. Information is selected and intentions of speech acts are activated at this stage. Such a mental concept or plan may exist as a general idea, but the message still has to be expressed in relevant words that are strung together grammatically.

Directions of Speech Processing

According to Levelt (1989), the processes of conceptualization, formulation and articulation often occur interactively, they can also take place in a linear manner. This is to say that one process may occur while another is still taking place, but it is also possible that speakers may engage with the processes separately before speech acts are performed through a demonstration of the individual or collective functions of the utterances. Interactive speech processing occurs more commonly in spontaneous speech production where speakers have to decide what to say, how to say and say it aloud. In L2 speaking this also presents the greatest challenge for learners and they have to resort to communication strategies. They also have to process their speech in such a manner that one process (for example, articulation) occurs only after another (for example, formulation) has completed.

Metacognitive Processes

In addition to these cognitive and articulatory processes, speech production also involves metacognitive processes. These are mental processes operating at a level beyond the direct manipulation of language and ideas. Metacognitive processes manage and regulate speech as it is processed cognitively and articulated physically. A primary metacognitive process is monitoring (Bygate, 1998). This happens when speakers check the accuracy and appropriateness of what is being said and how it is being said all the time. Another metacognitive process is evaluation which takes place following speech production. Speakers may review what they have just said and decide whether they have been effective in conveying their thoughts, ideas or information and the achievement of their communication goal. This may occur immediately after an utterance is articulated or at the end of a speech event. Another key metacognitive process is planning and this may overlap with the conceptualization phase in situations when speakers have plenty of time to think about what they want to say, for example in preparing for a presentation.

L2 Speaking Performance

Although language learners also engage in similar processes of speech production, they encounter various challenges that can affect their speech fluency. To explain L2 speaking performance, a multidisciplinary, cognitive science framework was proposed by Segalowitz (2010) that is informed by neurocognitive science and social psychology of bilingualism. It explains L2 speech performance in terms of the dynamic relationships among a number of variables or sources, which can variously exert demands on L2 learners' speech. These are cognitive perceptual systems that underlie speech production, utterance fluency features (e.g., speech rate, hesitation and pausing), motivation (e.g., willingness to communicate, beliefs, language and identity, and the concept of L2 self), the social or interactive communicative context, and fluency-relevant perceptual and cognitive experiences (e.g., exposure, opportunities for repetition practice). L2 fluency is therefore affected by many demands, such as a

limited cognitive processing capacity because conceptualization, formulation and articulation need to take place within constraints of limited content, language and discourse knowledge. Some learners may also be hampered by inadequate cultural knowledge that can otherwise enhance their oral communication and enhance their confidence when talking with English speakers from other countries.

Q: Write down some Classroom Speaking Tasks?

There are broadly three types of speaking tasks that encourage genuine communication among learners: **communication-gap tasks, discussion tasks, and monologic tasks** (Goh & Burns, 2012). In communication-gap and discussion tasks, learners interact with a partner or others in small groups to convey information and viewpoints to achieve a communicative outcome. There are many forms of ‘gaps’ in communication-gap tasks and these include missing information or details which one learner will have to describe, narrate or explain to their partner.

In comparison, discussion tasks create an even more authentic context for speaking and interaction because learners share their personal views with one another. When they have to discuss an open or controversial topic, for example, learners can draw on their own background knowledge, experience and beliefs. When a consensus or solution is required, they will have to negotiate with one another for an outcome that everyone can agree on. Sometimes, group discussions can also occur through simulations, which are classroom activities that reproduce or create a situation that is close to real life concerns. In simulations, learners are given scenarios in which they take on a role, such as a doctor, a Member of Parliament, a school counselor, and a parent to discuss an issue with others taking on other roles.

In contrast to these two kinds of tasks, monologic tasks require learners to present ideas, information and views individually to a single listener or a group of listeners. For example, they may give a talk, tell a story or present a report. They may also speak extensively on a topic or a theme without interruptions. They may be asked to give spontaneous and unedited talks or planned and rehearsed ones. These ‘performances’ can be done in front of the whole class, but doing them in small groups is preferable because it reduces anxiety for the speakers and enables peers to ask questions and give feedback in a less threatening environment. Teachers can plan different kinds of monologic tasks and vary the duration of the monologue according to learning objectives.

Q: Enhancing Second Language Speaking Performance and LTM

Speaking in a second language clearly presents many challenges to language learners. These challenges do not always get addressed in the classroom. Although students have opportunities to develop their confidence and fluency through oral activities, they do not receive much of the scaffolding they need for learning and improvement to take place during the instructional process.

These three strategies can enhance L2 learners’ speaking performance.

Pre-task Planning

Some researchers have investigated whether it was useful to give learners time to plan and prepare for a speaking task or how pre-task planning might have an impact on their fluency, accuracy and language complexity? Varying degrees of positive effects have been reported for all three dimensions of speech but the effect on accuracy is still inconclusive.

Task Repetition

Task repetition is the repeated use of the same or similar communication task or discourse sequences by learners with the same or different people (Bygate, 2001). Research has shown that when learners repeated a speaking task they produced more accurate and natural speech and demonstrated better framing of their narratives (Bygate & Samuda, 2005)

Metacognition Enhancement

Flavell (1976) described that metacognition is an individual’s ability to consider about his/her own thinking and learning. It encompasses knowledge of one’s own learning (person knowledge), the nature and demands of learning tasks (task knowledge) and how to approach these tasks (strategy knowledge), and the actual use of strategies for problem-solving as well as monitoring, regulating and orchestrating thinking and learning processes. The role of metacognition in learning has been discussed extensively in educational psychology.

Q: What are the major features of a spoken language during learning or teaching?

The following are some common features of spoken language (cf. Chafe, 1985):

- Spoken language is made up of different sounds. The sound is fleeting and transitory.
- Spoken language varies from person to person. When human beings speak, their accent, intonation, pitch, stress, volume and pace are varied, and they may choose different words to express the same ideas.
- When we listen, we do not hear every sound that is shown in reading because some letters may be silent in some words. For example, we do not hear the sound /h/ in hour or /gh/ in though.
- Often a foreign language learner may just hear a string of sounds linked together; for example, the phrase first of all may become 'firsdavall'. Word boundaries become indistinct due to phonological change; some sounds may be dropped or changed, and others may be added.
- Spoken language is syntactically simpler than written language and may contain incomplete sentences; idea units are shorter, and generally joined by coordinators, such as and, but, or so.
- Spoken language, particularly spontaneous speech, contains various disfluencies, such as fillers (you know, well, ok ...), hesitations, false starts, and self-corrections, which give the listeners more time to think about what has just been said if listeners understand those are fillers. If listeners cannot identify them, it may cause more difficulties.
- Compared to written language, spoken language contains more colloquial expressions, slang, and nonstandard grammar, which are considered unacceptable in writing.

Q: what are the factors that Affect L2 Comprehension?

Samuels (1984) classified L1 listening comprehension difficulties into external, medium, and internal factors. External factors refer to the learning environment (Rost 1994, 2005), practice opportunities (Boyle, 1984), and speaker factors, such as speech rate, accent and pronunciation, and effectiveness of a speaker's talk (Samuels, 1984). Medium factors relate to text type, task type and the context in which listening takes place (Anderson & Lynch, 1988). Internal factors are about listeners themselves, for example, their listening proficiency, motivation, background knowledge, physical condition.

Accordingly, listeners face a number of challenges, e.g., fast speech rates, unfamiliar accents, transient information, or colloquial usages and slang, which seldom appear in formal L2 textbooks.

Q: Discuss 'The Opportunities of Input' and 'Speaker Factors' as External Factors in listening context.

The Opportunities of Input: Two most important external factors are opportunities of input and speaker factors. Understanding our first language requires considerable cognitive development and constant exposure to different contexts over a period of several years; learning to listen in a foreign language is even more difficult because there are more challenges to confront. In a foreign language setting, communication is usually dominated by learners' first language, thus exposure to the target language may be very limited, often confined to the classroom.

The speaker factors: The two most salient and most heard speaker factor complaints involve speech rates and pronunciation or accent. The normal English speech rate is between 150 and 180 words per minute (Buck, 2001). Fast speech rates usually result in a significant reduction in comprehension (Griffiths, 1990; Renandya & Farrell 2011); however, conflicting evidence was also reported by (Derwing & Munro, 2001), and (Jensen & Vinther, 2003), whose studies did not support the proposal that slower speech enhanced listening comprehension. A possible reason for the inconsistent results could be that different text types have different 'normal' rates (Tauroza & Allison, 1990), while another reason could relate to participants' language proficiency. However, Griffiths (1990) found that low intermediate level students performed best when the speech rate was delivered at approximately 127 words per minute.

Other researchers considered that a standard accent in English is more easily understood than English spoken with a heavy local accent when speech rates are the same (Ortmeyer & Boyle, 1985). If a learner is exposed often to a variety of spoken English, it may not take long for him/her to become familiar with it.

Q: Discuss Text, Task, and Context as Medium Factors influencing the degree of listening difficulty?

Anderson and Lynch (1988) note that although there are some medium factors influencing the degree of

listening difficulty, they all fall into three categories: text type, task type, and the context in which listening takes place.

Text type: If the text contains only necessary information, it will be easier than one containing redundant facts. Texts involving fewer individuals and objects, and those which are clearly distinct from one another are also easier to understand. Furthermore, texts containing simple spatial relations and with the order of telling matching the order of events are easier to understand as well.

Task type: Different tasks may present the listener with varying degrees of complexity. Anderson and Lynch (1988) said that summarizing a message may be difficult because it is like an evaluative task, listeners have to weigh what is important, and what should be excluded from the summary. On the other hand, tasks requiring an immediate response, such as matching pictures or multiple-choice, tend to be easier than delayed recall tasks such as summarization.

Listening context: Listening context is embedded in the task type and involves three factors: ways of minimizing the information processing load, the provision of visual support, and group work. *The processing load is the amount of information that has to be processed and the amount of time available to finish the task.* Finally, the provision of visual support can assist the listener to interpret the information, or when the environment contains objects to which the listener can refer, comprehension is facilitated.

Q: Discuss Language Proficiency and Background Knowledge in context of listening comprehension.

In the previous section, we found that some research results concerning certain factors, e.g., text type on comprehension, were inconsistent, which may imply that one variable does not affect the difficulty of listening comprehension in isolation. Other variables, such as listeners' language proficiency, may come into play. Now, let us turn to some internal factors, which are variables relevant to listeners themselves (for examples see Samuels 1984), such as language competence (being able to automatically decode linguistic elements or having the ability to comprehend concepts) or emotional and physical issues (e.g., anxiety, nervousness, being tired or hungry), and above all, listeners' topical/background knowledge and strategy use. The former relates to a particular area, such as topical knowledge of a discipline or background knowledge of a particular culture. The general findings indicate that topic familiarity has a significant effect on listening comprehension (Chang & Read, 2006; Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Jensen & Hansen, 1995; Long, 1990; Markham & Latham, 1987; Schmidt & Rinehart, 1994). The strategy use concerns whether listeners are able to apply listening strategies that suit their language proficiency and listening purposes. For example, the most frequently mentioned metacognitive pedagogical model proposed by Vandergrift and Goh (2012) aims to help L2 listener to become self-regulated listeners.

Q: What is the Format of a Well-Designed Listening Lesson?

An important task for language teachers is how to teach L2 listening efficiently? A theory-based listening lesson involved three stages: pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening.

The Pre-listening Phase

The pre-listening phase is a particularly important stage for beginner listeners. If a teacher can prepare students well before a listening task begins, then the students are more likely to experience feelings of success. The L2 teacher can use one or more of the following pre-listening activities.

Establish the purposes for listening activities:

- Activate necessary background knowledge for comprehending the text that the students are going to listen to: Class discussion:
- Provide linguistic support:
- Set up a listening goal for the comprehension level.

The While-listening Phase

1. Do simple easy tasks that require little writing or reading:
2. Do graded tasks:
 - 1st listening:
 - 2nd listening:
 - 3rd listening:

The Post-listening Phase

The post-listening phase can serve some useful purposes: to confirm comprehension, clarify uncertain points,

and reflect on listening problems. If the purpose of the listening is to acquire some linguistic elements, then post-listening activities can direct students' attention to the language of texts with so-called acquisition-focused activities (Richards & Burns, 2012). Post-listening activities can also serve as remedial work on learners' problems (Field, 2008). These can include:

1. Reviewing the transcript of the recording by reading while listening or reading alone. Reading the transcript of the recording allows students to confirm their comprehension or to clarify unknown points from the previous stage.
2. Evaluating the process of the while-listening phase. Students can reflect on the difficulties they encountered (if any) during the listening stage by evaluating whether the difficulties come from personal factors, e.g., cannot concentrate, forget what was heard; or from external factors, such as fast speech rate, an unfamiliar accent; or medium factors, for example, the text being too difficult, or the task questions too tedious. Through the reflection, students may discuss ways to deal with these difficulties in the future.

Q: What are the suggested Approaches to Listening Practice?

A number of listening difficulties have been revealed by researchers and many suggestions have been made to improve listening instruction efficiency; however, simply relying on teachers' instruction in the classroom is not sufficient to improve one's listening competence. Therefore, teachers should give their students guidance on doing listening practice outside class. **Three approaches: narrow listening, repeated listening, and reading while listening, are suggested.**

Narrow Listening

Narrow listening originates from narrow reading, and has been found to be helpful for language acquisition (Krashen, 1981). Narrow listening means that learners focus on one topic, e.g., weather or sports, or one author, like Conan Doyle or Agatha Christie, and do a great deal of listening in the area they choose.

Repeated Listening

Repeated listening also derives from an L1 source, repeated reading. Repeated reading is one of the most common methods for developing reading fluency. It was developed by Samuels (1979) as a pedagogical application to use with L1 readers who have reading difficulties. The theory underlying repeated reading is to make word decoding more efficient through repeatedly practicing the same text. It is assumed that if much attention is paid to decoding word meanings, then little time is left for comprehending text meaning.

Simultaneous Reading and Listening

Simultaneous reading and listening is also termed "reading while listening" if the focus is on listening. Reading and listening at the same time can help beginner learners to develop awareness of form-meaning relationships and word recognition skills. However, it has to be noted that the post-listening phase in a listening lesson also involves reading while listening, but their purposes are different. Reading while listening at the post-listening stage is to confirm or clarify what one hears during the listening stage. Reading while listening after class is to enjoy reading and listening to all sorts of materials. Some empirical studies have also found that reading while listening improves students' comprehension (Chang, 2009; Chang & Millett, 2014).

Q: Write a short note on reading and viewing in context of LTM.

Reading is usually understood as a process of deriving meaning from the printed words, sentences, paragraphs, or a whole text. Similar to reading in terms of the goals students have, viewing, as a processing skill, can be defined as the viewer's effort for meaning making, but the media through which the act of meaning is actualized are not print-based. As a comprehension process and an act of understanding what is being seen, viewing usually involves the use of the computer or its equivalent such as smart phone or other digital tools for acquiring and processing information presented to the viewer in multi-modalities (concurrent appearance of video, audio, and images mingled with words, sentences or paragraphs) requiring multi-literacy skills. In many ways, readers and viewers have to be equipped with the essential vocabulary. In the case of viewing, viewers need to have developed a listening ability to have a successful viewing experience despite the images and sound effects offering further stimuli that might facilitate or disrupt comprehension.

Q: What kind of three variables affects reading and viewing?

Understandably, the reading or viewing act itself for meaning-making is determined and affected by at least three important variables:

- Text (including multimodal texts, images, visuals and sounds) characteristics;
- Reader/viewer characteristics; and
- Social context.

Q: What are the views on Reading and Viewing by behaviorists in Classroom Activities?

Reading as a field of academic and educational inquiry in cognitive psychology and educational psychology has different research foci. It is noted that during the era of behaviorism, especially in the USA and Canada, reading was once banned as a research agenda for psychologists. One of the main reasons is that the reading process was too mentalistic to be accurately measured by any psychometric system. Emanating from this behaviorist doctrine anything mentalistic in nature had to be clearly outlawed by the academia. Therefore, theoretical models thrived after the ban disappeared with the gradual unpopularity of behaviorism in mainstream psychology.

Q: In context of reading and viewing, there are three groups of model. Elaborate them.

There are three main groups of models, Top-Down, Bottom-Up, and Interactive models. Our understanding of viewing is greatly influenced by our understanding of reading.

Top-Down Models

Reading can be regarded as a process where the centrality of meaning is almost axiomatic (Goodman, 1996), or as a process where the primacy of decoding is emphasized (Samuels, 2004; Stanovich, 2000). Viewing can also be theorized in a similar fashion. The former is known as taking a ‘top-down’ approach, where the meaning-driven or reader-driven nature is explicit. As Goodman (1996) states, reading is ‘a psycholinguistic guessing game,’ where much of the meaning resides in the reader, who needs to interpret the text to derive it. He argues that readers’ top-down processing is essential to successful reading, and that in many instances, reading involves readers’ existing schematic knowledge. Such a view is also widely shared among L2 researchers on bilingual readers because there are non-decoding factors that contribute to reading success (Yorio, 1971; Zhang, Gu, and Hu, 2008).

Bottom-Up Models

‘Bottom-up’ models view reading as a process in which the reader has to go through the text in a more linear fashion, starting from the smallest unit in print. Frequently, such a process is mainly text-bound, without any opportunity of the reader actively interpreting the text meaning. In this view, meaning is self-evident as soon as you are able to decode all the words. Bottom-up and top-down models of reading are two polarities of the reading models mentioned above (Ehrich et al., 2013).

Interactive Models

In his ‘interactive-compensatory model’ Stanovich (2000) argues that, although top-down processing is necessary, bottom-up processes play a significant role in reading, especially for beginning readers. In fact, both processes are very important in learning how to read. He points the reason why poor readers do not guess as accurately as skilled readers. The skilled readers possess accurate and automatic perceptual abilities in word recognition that they do not usually need to guess; whereas poor readers usually guess, and their guessing is frequently short circuited by their limited linguistic proficiency. Following this line of explication, one can see clearly that learning to read becomes a matter of developing highly accurate decoding skills. This means that there is a ‘short-circuit’ effect for L2 learners whose linguistic proficiency is too low to make efficient reading activity (Yorio, 1971). Interactive models of reading in their broad sense have also been advocated for L2 reading instruction (Carrell, 1988) despite controversies over their practicality and their technical nature that detaches them from practical applications.

Q: Share some Sociocultural Perspectives on Reading and Viewing.

Sociocultural perspectives on reading have become prominent in recent times. Neither cognitive nor educational psychologists have given sufficient attention to them. It is a perennial concern for many researchers and educators to go beyond understanding reading and viewing purely as cognitive mechanisms. They stress the importance of sociocultural contexts in which reading and viewing take place and learners’ live experiences might possibly shape their interpretation or comprehension of texts (written texts or multimodal texts). The processes of reading and related factors such as reader variability need to be contextually understood as well. So, learning as

‘situated’ acts characterizes both the reading/viewing process and the reading/viewing product.

According to Heath (1996) reading and viewing are multi-literacy practices and as ‘literacy events’ carry social meanings that causes human development and social change. The critical reading and viewing pedagogy has a similar concern. The reason, why sociocultural perspectives have direct implications for critical pedagogy, is their relationships with real issues that learners face in life outside the classrooms. Critical pedagogy invites learners to approach the learning materials with an attitude to question the text and its author.

Different ideologies and political motifs are the driving force for the writer to compose, so readers and viewers are not exempted from being subjected to a particular condition (Gee, 2004)

Q: Write Factors Affecting Reading and Viewing Success in a Language Classroom.

Three important variables affect reading or viewing in both L1 and L2 contexts are:

(1) Text characteristics; Text characteristics vary according to the different text types with which a reader is familiar. If the text is a narrative, its specific characteristics include organizational structure (e.g., orientation, events description ,complication, resolution, conclusion and linguistic features (dominant past tense use, descriptive adjectives, action verbs, sentence structures that are different from those used in argumentative texts, use of indirect and direct speech). Expository text has plainly dissimilar structure as compare to the narrative text. Its major exposition moves are compare-contrast, problem-solution, listing, cause- effect, and so on.

(2) reader/viewer characteristics; Different readers and viewers approach the same text in different ways due to diverse metacognition, repertoires of reading/viewing strategies, lived experiences, social and world knowledge, linguistic proficiency, reading competencies, gender, and attitudes toward reading/viewing and socioeconomic backgrounds. Because of the different reader/viewer characteristics, teachers’ instruction in reading/viewing needs to take into account such diversity when designing lesson plans

(3) social context: The studies highlighted that different sociocultural contexts in which students learn to read and view and read or view to learn require different reading/viewing strategies. Readers and viewers derive the meanings on the basis of their cultural models and knowledge. The sociocultural schemata they bring into the reading and viewing event can be strengthened if properly utilized.

Q: Approach to writing instruction was introduced to help students acquire the mastery in order to succeed in writing about specific topics. Write three name of any genre approach depends on genre traditions.

- English for Specific Purposes (UK),
- New Rhetoric (USA),
- Systemic Functional Linguistics (Australia).

Q: How can we produce good writing successfully?

What makes an essay successful? In a study on ways to write good essays, Crossley et al. (2014) suggest that “Successful writing cannot be defined simply through a single set of predefined features. Rather, successful writing has multiple profiles”. Specifically, some successful writers compose longer essays with more infrequent vocabulary and fewer grammatical, spelling, and punctuation errors. Other successful writers produce essays with more syntactically complex sentences and with a better control of text cohesion (Crossley et al., 2014). Besides a basic goal to write texts accurately, free of grammatical errors, student should consider stylistic factors such as choice of words, sentence complexity, text cohesion, and length of their essays. In fact, achieving good composition is a complex and difficult task for both native and non-native speakers of English. If one writes in one’s own language, discipline is requisite for precision and form. Widdowson (1983) pointed out to achieve the mastery of words even if one is familiar with these words.

Q: How one can be a good writing teacher?

In order to teach writing effectively, teachers must be explicitly aware of the skills and processes involved. This view treats writing as a profession, a qualification to be attained with discipline and hard work, rather than an innate ability or subconscious habit. Indeed, “even in one’s native language, learning to write is something like

learning a second language. No one is born with writing proficiency. Everyone learns to write at school (Leki, 1992). If students want to write well, they need to learn the skills explicitly and adopt deliberate strategies to enhance their writing competence. There are some basic skills for writing competence.

Q: How to write a good Paraphrase by using Direct Quotation?

Paraphrase is to present an original writer's ideas with different word choices and rearrangements of word/sentence order from an original text. Direct quotation is used when students want to retain the original wordings of the quoted texts. Students should be explicitly taught that while paraphrasing the meaning conveyed by the original author must be apprehended in real essence and not distorted. Whenever students paraphrase or directly cite an original text, they need to acknowledge the original source both in the body of the essay and the reference list. Students should not only include the last name of the author and the year of the publication, but also the page numbers if available. They should put direct quotation marks around the original texts. Students should be taught the reasons to cite or paraphrase in a particular context, to define key terms, to establish common ground between the reader and writer, to back up their own position, or to substantiate opinions on a particular topic.

Q: What is the role of Lexical Variety in writing?

Lexical variety refers to “interesting word choice or effective use of vocabulary in writing” (Ferris 2014, p. 89). Lexical variety is an important part of successful writing because it can make an essay sophisticated and interesting. Texts with greater lexical variety tend to score higher and leave a better impression for the readers. Students can consult a built-in thesaurus and dictionary in word processing software regarding the sentence context and maintain a consistent level of formality in their writing (Ferris 2014, p. 100–103). However, lexical variety alone is insufficient for creating a good essay, other aspects as content, development of ideas, quality of argumentation, correct use of grammar, and mechanics are equally important.

Q: For what two reasons Passive Voice is preferred in writing?

Teachers usually advise their students to use the active voice rather passive one. However, the passive voice can be preferred for two reasons in academic writing. First, appropriate use of the passive voice can enable writers to focus on a specific object for its importance, away from the actors who play a secondary role. Ferris (2014) draws the reader's attention to the experiment as a cornerstone of noteworthy results, independent of the actors who carried it out. A second reason for the use of the passive voice is to let writers deliberately distance themselves from their statements. By downplaying their identities through the passive voice, they could increase the statements' objectivity, which is significant in scientific writing.

Q: Elaborate Structuring and Developing Argument at the Macro and Micro Levels in context of Toulmin Model of Argumentation

We have learnt in the previous section that an awareness is necessary to include suitable information at the macro rhetorical goal to structure and develop arguments in an essay. Apart from developing argument at the macro level, the **Toulmin Model of Argumentation** highlighted to structure arguments at the micro level. The elements in this model of argumentation include (i) claim – a statement that the arguer wants to show is true; (ii) data – the evidence offered in support of the claim; (iii) warrant – an assumption that underlies the claim; (iv) backing – evidence for the warrant; (v) qualifier – something which is added that in some way limits the applicability of scope of the claim; and (vi) reservation – a statement or a situation which, if true, renders the claim invalid (Toulmin, 1958). Teachers need to teach students explicitly how to structure and develop arguments at both macro and micro levels in their essays.

Q: Write four writing process proposed by Paltridge et al. (2009).

Traditionally, writing teachers explain the writing process as a linear process (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). Paltridge et al. (2009) identifies four distinct sub-processes in writing.

- First, in the conceptualizing stage, writers generate and select ideas that can be used in their writing, and then organize the ideas in an ordered way (e.g., an essay must have an introduction, body, and a conclusion).

- The second sub-process is called formulating, putting ideas into sentences.
- The third sub-process is revising, where writers rewrite and improve the essays. The revisions can be related to the content, grammar, and mechanics.
- The fourth sub-process is reading. Writers read the essay's instruction and gather information for the essay topic. They re read their writing to make sure that they are answering the essay's prompts.

The linear process model may under-conceptualize and oversimplify the writing process (Emig, 1971, p. 98). This oversimplification may be problematic because it can be inflexible and limits the freedom to explore, whereas writing in practice could be an unstructured process of self-discovery. Recently, some writing scholars suggest that writing is a recursive, nonlinear activity. Clark and Ivanič's (1991) highlighted that both novice and experienced writers go through various stages of the writing process several times and may not follow a fixed and particular order.

Q: Write down stages of the writing process identified by Clark and Ivanič (1991).

Clark and Ivanič (1991) identify 16 (equally important and inter-related) stages of the writing process, involving the following: accumulating knowledge and opinions (e.g., doing the necessary reading to gather information about a particular topic, or gathering primary data through surveys and interviews to find out the participants' opinions on a particular topic); decide how to take responsibility: whether to mask or declare the writer's own position (e.g., using first person pronouns vs. passive constructions in presenting the writer's view); analyzing the assignment (e.g., the question prompt and the instruction words, and the purpose of writing the assignment); planning (e.g., information to be included in the assignment so as to achieve the macro-rhetorical goal of the paper); establishing goals and purposes (e.g., setting the macro-rhetorical goal of the essay, and the goal of each paragraph); establishing the writer identity (e.g., showing the writer's commitment to a particular position/argument); drafting (e.g., putting together the ideas to construct an argument); considering constraints of time and space (e.g., deadline of submission of work and the word limit); formulating the writer's own ideas (e.g., the writer's own opinion on that particular topic); experiencing panic, pain, and anguish (e.g., going through the complicated and difficult process of writing); experiencing pleasure and satisfaction (e.g., finishing the assignment, and learning something new from the writing experience); revising (e.g., making sure that the arguments are persuasive, and the macro-rhetorical goal is achieved); considering the reader (e.g., making the writing reader-friendly and anticipating possible counter-arguments from the reader); clarifying writer commitment to his/her idea (e.g., confirming the writer's stance about a particular issue); putting knowledge of the language to use (e.g., choosing language that can help the writer achieve the macro-rhetorical goal of the paper); and making the copy neat (e.g., checking the overall presentation of the paper).

Q: Elaborate the Use of Technologies to Enhance the Teaching of Writing by three stages of Australian 'teaching and learning cycle'

The Australian 'teaching and learning cycle' for genre instruction outlines the teaching of writing in three distinct stages: modeling, joint construction of text, and independent construction of text (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993).

At the modeling stage, teachers introduce the text type, purpose, audience, context of the text, as well as the vocabulary, grammar, and organizational structure, which are used in realizing that particular text type. For example, when teaching the genre of a complaint letter, teachers can make use of a short authentic letter from a local newspaper. Teachers can jumble the paragraphs, and then ask the students to rearrange the paragraphs and write down the proper order of a jumbled text following the situation-problem-solution- evaluation structure. Students can undertake this task individually if the class size is small, or in small groups with large class size.

After the modeling phase, teachers move on to another stage called the joint negotiation of text. This stage includes negotiation of ideas between teachers and students. Teachers can include activities such as class discussions and role plays, so as to help students brainstorm and gather possible ideas for writing.

Using Weebly <http://education.weebly.com> or Wikipedia <http://www.wikipedia.org>, for example, teachers and students co-construct an essay in the same genre that they learned earlier in the modeling stage. Teachers may

also use Google Docs <http://www.google.com/docs> to give students quick written feedback.

The stage of independent construction of text comes after the joint negotiation of text. Teachers should explicitly tell students the purpose of writing the particular essay, which may be neglected by some novice teachers. After brainstorming some ideas on the essay topic, students will independently compose their own essays. When the first draft is completed, students may make use of an automated essay system (e.g., Criterion @ <https://www.ets.org/criterion>) to receive feedback on mechanics and grammar.

Q: How one can Enhance Second Language Writing Performance?

Students who are determined to improve the quality of their academic writing should be prepared to change their habitual approach to writing (Chandrasegaran, 2001, p.6). In other words, some students would need to move away from the information focused approach to writing (i.e., merely giving information about what they know about the topic without considering the readers). Instead, they need to adopt an alternative approach to writing that emphasizes an awareness of the purpose and audience of the writing. Students would need to learn to become aware of the thinking processes that take place in the writing. Recent research has indicated that the socio-cognitive approach to writing can be effective in enhancing student performance in writing English as a second language. These practical strategies can be used by teachers to improve the students' performance in writing.

Q: What are the features that make a Text Coherent?

Knowledge of coherence is an important factor in the students' ability to produce coherent texts (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). Research studies have shown that teachers need to help students understand the meaning of coherence from a narrow sense (i.e., connectedness between sentences) to a broader sense (i.e., linking the ideas in a text at a discourse level to create meanings for the readers) (Johns, 1986; Lee, 2002). Coherence may seem like an abstract concept that is difficult to teach and learn. However, it is possible to describe coherence in a structural framework. It has **five common features**: Macro-structure, information structure, proposition development, cohesive devices, and meta-discourse markers (Lee, 2002). Macrostructure is about the outline of a text. For example, the outline of a complaint letter is situation-problem-solution-evaluation. The outline of a story is onset complication- resolution. Information structure is about presenting old (given) information before introducing new information. For example, teachers can show two sentences to students: (a) Peter has two children. (b) They are John and Mary. In this example, the writer should present the sentence with "two children" (given information) before introducing "John and Mary" (new information) to refer to the "two children." Proposition development can be challenging too many ESL students, as they tend to state the proposition without elaboration of ideas. For example, "Free public transport is good to the residents." This statement is a proposition without elaboration of ideas. Student writers are advised to add support to the statement such as "With money saved on transport, residents can now spend more money on other goods and services." Cohesive devices help establish relationships between different sentences. Examples of cohesive devices include pronouns, conjunctions, repetition, superordinate/hyponymy (e.g., animals/cats), and synonyms/antonyms. Another feature that can be used to develop coherence in writing is meta-discourse markers, which some students commonly confuse with cohesive devices. Meta discourse markers are used to help readers organize, interpret, and evaluate information. Examples of meta-discourse markers include logical connectives (e.g., therefore, but), sequencers (e.g., firstly, secondly, finally), certainty markers (e.g., certainly, no doubt), and hedges (e.g., can, may, it could be the case that).

Q: What are the Good Editing Strategies?

First, students should try to finish their writing earlier rather than wait until the last minute before starting. It is because good writers rely on effective editing and will allow sufficient time for it. Second, it is advisable to read the composition aloud. When writers read aloud their texts, they are more likely to detect problematic sentences, e.g., those containing missing words or unneeded repetitions of ideas. Third, students may consider using a word processor's editing tools to check for grammatical, spelling, and typographical errors. These word processors can identify some of the surface level errors effortlessly. Students may consider the software's suggested corrections. If they are not sure about certain corrections, they can check the dictionary or other tools. Lastly, for long term writing development, students are advised to keep track of their error patterns. They can keep a log book and record their recurring errors.

Some Important point to remember:

- Traditional approaches to teaching L2 writing – the controlled composition approach, the rhetorical function approach, the process-approach, and the genre approach – have strengths but may not be sufficiently effective as writing pedagogy.
- The more recent socio-cognitive approach is a comparatively strategic approach to teaching writing, which highlights the importance of explaining the purpose of writing to the students in terms of social impact.
- When students plan, organize, write/ revise, they need to ensure that the relevant information helps them achieve the macro-rhetorical goal. By adopting the socio-cognitive approach to writing, students consciously define their goal as impact on the intended readers
- It is also very important for students to adopt self-editing strategies in all their written work. They can read aloud their writing so that they can detect the problematic parts of their writing.
- The results of the related studies indicate that peer feedback leads to better texts and improves the quantity and quality of peer talk. The peer feedback helps students to clarify any possible confusion the readers may have, and help refine the language used in the writing.

Q: What does Integrating Language Skills Mean?

The primary skills of language identified as listening, speaking, reading, and writing are connected with one another. We integrate these skills during every day conversation. It is rarely noted when we only listen, or only speak, or only read, or only write. It is artificial and tiresome if, we decide to separate these skills and use only one for a specified period of time for some peculiar reason,. Such an artificial separation of language skills is quite normal in most language schools. In North America, and several other countries, colleges and universities' language institutes offer classes based on isolated skills and proficiency levels with course titles as 'Beginning Reading', 'Intermediate Listening', or 'Advanced Writing'. Curriculum designers and textbook writers have long been using the separation of skills as a guiding principle for syllabus construction and materials production. They even try to hardly link a particular skill with a particular set of learning strategies. They talk about reading strategies, listening strategies, speaking strategies, and writing strategies. Oxford (2001, p. 19), has done extensive research on learning strategies, asserts, "Many strategies, such as paying selective attention, self-evaluating, asking questions, analyzing, synthesizing, planning and predicting are applicable across skill areas."

Some Important point to remember:

- During the 1950s and 60s, before the advent of communicative approaches, proponents of audio-lingual method believed that language is basically aural-oral.
- Not only the audio-lingualists divided the language into four skill areas but they also recommended a strict sequencing of them: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
- audio-lingualists divided the four language skills into two categories: active and passive.
- Eventually, the terms *active* and *passive* were replaced by *productive* (speaking and writing) and *receptive* (listening and reading).
- It is now generally agreed that effective listening and reading require as much attention and mental activity as speaking and writing
- Taking an empirical look at the separation of skills, and finding no substantial supportive evidence for any pedagogic decisions based on such a separation, Selinker and Tomlin (1986) call such decisions a "pedagogical artifact" (p. 230).
- Its inadequacy arises because language skills are essentially interrelated and mutually reinforcing.

Q: Define some microstrategies for integrating language skills

For instance, in performing a well-planned integrated activity, learners may adopt the following microstrategies for integrating language skills;

- try to understand the teacher's directions, seek clarifications, and take notes (listening, speaking, and writing)
- brainstorm, in pairs or in small groups, and decide to use library resources or the internet to collect additional information (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)

- engage in a decision-making process about how to use the collected information and proceed with the activity (listening, speaking, and reading)
- carry out their plan of action (reading, writing, speaking, and listening)
- use the notes taken during their group discussion, and present to class what they have accomplished (reading, speaking, and listening)
- finish the activity with a whole class discussion (listening and speaking).
- The following microstrategies, as well as exploratory projects, show how communication channels, newspapers, radio, TV, and the internet can be used effectively for integrating the language skills.

Q: What are the Exploratory Projects for Skill Integration?

The following exploratory projects are aimed at providing a general plan for designing microstrategies to integrate language skills. You need to decide what to do and how exactly you wish to do it.

Project: Comic Situations

Apart from the newly introduced reality shows, television everywhere has traditionally shown sitcoms (situation comedies), brief episodes that humorously bring out the strengths and weaknesses of human beings. These sitcoms are loaded with cultural and subcultural beliefs and value systems. Sitcoms produced in North America, depict the lives and loves of people of different ethnic communities.

- Select any currently popular sitcom, one that you think is suitable for your class. Videotape an interesting episode.
- Watch the selected episode again, closely. Jot down questions that you might want to ask your learners before showing the video so that they will know what to anticipate.
- Divide the episode into three or four segments and, focusing on each segment, think of listening comprehension questions that you can ask to help your students to understand the episode.
- Focus on and prepare questions about conversational features.
- Focus also on characterization to help learners identify any strong views or mannerisms or behavior patterns that are unique to a particular character in the episode.
- Finally, try to implement your microstrategy in class and monitor how it develops. Reflect, revise, and reuse.

Project: Radio Days

In learning/teaching environments where internet surfing and videotaping are difficult, radio broadcasts can offer unlimited resources for language related activities. Local or international radio broadcasts in certain target languages, particularly English, are readily available in many countries. Generally, radio broadcasts offer a variety of programs including songs, music, news items, speeches, interviews, and sports commentaries. Depending on the interest and proficiency level of your learners, select any of these programs for designing a microstrategy to integrate language skills. Here's one possibility.

- Select an evening news broadcast from a popular radio station. Audiotape it. Listen to it again.
- Normally, news broadcasts begin with headlines.
- Focusing on each of the main news stories, think of listening comprehension questions that you can ask to help your students understand the day's news.
- Think of any prior knowledge of political or social events that is needed for learners to fully understand.
- Focus also on difficult lexical and grammatical structures.
- Think of a project in which the learners consult the library or surf the Internet to gather more information about any news item discussed in class, write a brief report, and present it in class.

Q: What is a Lesson Plan?

A lesson plan is a teacher's detailed description of the course of instruction or "learning trajectory" for a lesson. A daily lesson plan is developed by a teacher to guide class learning. Details will vary depending on the preference of the teacher, subject being covered, and the needs of the students. There may be requirements mandated by the school system regarding the plan.

A lesson plan is the teacher's guide for running a particular lesson, and it includes the goal (what the students

are supposed to learn), how the goal will be met (the method, procedure) and a way of measuring how well the goals were met (test, worksheet, homework etc.).

Q: What does a well-developed lesson plan reflect?

A well-developed lesson plan reflects the interests and needs of students. It incorporates best practices for the educational field. The lesson plan correlates with the teacher's philosophy of education, the self-reflective beliefs about educating the students.

Q: What is the difference between Unit plan and a lesson plan?

Unit plans follow much the same format as a lesson plan, but cover an entire unit of work, which may span several days or weeks. Modern constructivist teaching styles may not require individual lesson plans. The unit plan may include specific objectives and timelines, but lesson plans can be more comprehensive as they address student needs and learning styles.

Q: What is the main aim of lesson planning?

The main aim of lesson planning is scientifically tested organization of the educational process and achievement of successful acquisition of the language in question. At the beginning of the course teacher should predict how to organize the whole process and be aware of the results, which have to be achieved at the end of it. Foreign language teacher needs two to three kinds of plans to work successfully.

Q: Provide a sample structure for academic year plan?

Sample structure of the academic year plan should include:

- **Number of lesson:**

Topic/subtopic of lesson;

Language work (grammar structures, pronunciation, lexical material); Objectives concerning skills development;

- **Homework:**

The daily plan often contains two parts:

- 1) an outline of the procedures of the lesson (i.e. the description of the activities, their order and predicted timing);
- 2) background information (i.e. aims/objectives for the lesson, target language, materials used, predicted problems, etc.).

Different scholars and teacher trainers suggested keeping lesson plan simple and easy to read, with clear numbered sections and underlined or colored important elements to draw attention. Prose descriptions should be cut out; there is no need to script the whole lesson. However, some aspects should be written down precisely: a model sentence, or a set of complicated instructions, or some questions to check students' understanding of a given text or a language point. What should be included in a lesson plan? What are there some general areas to consider when planning?

- **Learners:** It is necessary to take into account their interests, motivation to learn, age, attitudes, abilities. Will they enjoy doing the lesson? Will they get benefit from it?
- **Aims and objectives:** Teacher begins by stating the aim/aims or objectives of each class-period. The main aim / objective should be detailed, it might include specific sub-skills for specific language learners to use and develop. Learners, who attend the lesson, should know what they have to do during the lesson, what performance level is required from them, and how it can be achieved.
- **The teacher point/personal aims or objectives:** For any particular lesson, in addition to the learning aims for the learners, the teacher may set a personal aim to pay particular attention to some aspects of teaching.

E.g.: To talk less myself and involve the students more.

- **To make my instructions clearer.**
- **To involve computer software presenting new structures.**
- **Procedure:** This part lays out the stages of lesson to ensure that the aim(s) is achieved. Teacher should indicate the plan *what* will be done at each stage and *why* (the stage aim); approximate *time*; *materials* used; perhaps details of any *complex instructions* the teacher is going to give or *questions* he/she plans to ask. In order to do this teacher has to arrange the *stages* and the *approach(es)*, *activities*, and *materials* that will be used at each stage in

an order.

- **Activities:** While planning activities and tasks for learners, teacher has to answer the questions like: How to present or revise a language item: through a problem-solving activity, through a visual or oral context (dialogue, pictures, etc.), or through a text? How to develop skills? How to check students' understanding?

What type of practice activities to set up: speaking, pair work, and/or writing? Teacher should think over a *balance* and a variety of activities and materials. The activities should be arranged in such a way that an easy activity must be followed by a more difficult one; a very active one with a passive one, etc. The activities should be ordered logically; from more controlled to autonomous one. Each stage after some set of activities should be supported by an appropriate feedback which is given for mutual understanding.

Q: What are the functions of a Lesson Plan?

- A lesson plan is designed to communicate with the teacher.
- It functions as a guide for the teacher.
- It provides a map for organizing teacher's materials.
- It provides a road map to the teacher to help students achieve their learning outcomes.
- A lesson plan enables a teacher to set objectives clearly.
- It provides a statement of purpose for the whole lesson. An objective statement itself should answer what students will be able to do by the end of the lesson. The objective/s drive the whole lesson.
- It enables the teacher to carefully design the lesson according to the skill level of the learners.
- It gives a kind of consciousness on what information/ knowledge the teacher wishes to impart and how to impart that.

Q: What is the Significance of Daily Lesson Plans?

Daily lesson planning is as essential as planning the general course. The teacher should think of planning for the day's lesson with the coordination and integration of course planning. When the course is carefully planned, many important aspects of lesson planning will be anticipated. The major aspects of objectives, content, and sequence should be broadly determined. The general procedures for dealing with learning are predicted to a considerable degree, for the guidance of the teacher.

Q: How to develop a lesson plan?

There are different formats of lesson plans. But, the following aspects or items are commonly found in most lesson planning:

- Title and sub titles of the lesson,
- Time given for the lesson,
- List of learning resources,
- List of specific objectives (based on Bloom's taxonomy),
- Methodology (teaching/learning activities),
- Strategies applied,
- Recapitulation,
- Self-study exercises etc.

Q: What are the eight lesson plan according to Cunningham?

According to Cunningham, there are eight lesson plan phases to provide opportunities for teachers to recognize and correct students' misconceptions while extending understanding for future lessons. These phases are: Introduction, Foundation, Brain Activation, Body of New Information, Clarification, Practice and Review, Independent Practice, and Closure.

Q: Give contrast between Herbartian Method and Madeline Hunter's Method for a Lesson Plan:

<u>Herbartian Method</u>	<u>Madeline Hunter's Method</u>
Preparation	Anticipatory Set
Presentation	Objectives
Association	Instruction
Generalization	Check for Understanding, Ask Questions
Application	Guided Practice, Modeling
	Independent Practice
	Closure

Q: Write down a good lesson plan in detail.

Here is a detailed good plan to follow:

Phase 1: Introduction

- **Set a purpose.** Describe the overarching reason for this lesson.
- **Introduce the key concepts, topic, and main idea.** Get students on the right track. This step may be a note on the board, a diagram, or a probing question of the day's lesson focus.
- **Pull students into the excitement of learning.** Seize students' attention with items like an amazing fact, a funny quirk, a challenge, or other mind tickler.
- **Make the learning relevant.** Explain how this lesson extends past learning and leads to future learning that is, the significance of the concepts, skills, and focus of the lesson.

Phase 2: Foundation

- **Check on previous knowledge.** Verify what students already know.
- **Clarify key points.** Double-check on learning from the past.
- **Focus on specific standards, objectives, goals.** Link the lesson to the standards, and let students know exactly what they will know and be able to do as a result of this lesson.
- **Check for correctness and add to background knowledge.** Add extra information for the day's learning and beyond—just enough to launch into the main lesson.
- **Introduce key vocabulary.** See it; say it; read it; write it.

Phase 3: Brain Activation

- **Ask questions to clarify ideas and to add knowledge.** Engage students in the learning and build background with probing questions.
- **Brainstorm main ideas.** Fill students' heads with ideas, concepts, possibilities, allow them to expand and clarify their thinking.
- **Clarify and correct misconceptions.** Engage students in activities that inform you whether students are confused or have incorrect ideas, so corrections can be made before the misconceptions become worse or detrimental to learning.

Phase 4: Body of New Information

- **Provide teacher input.** Lecture, add key points and new information, read the text or articles, and solve problems. Present the body of the lesson. This may be a whole-class lecture, a small-group activity with teacher supervision, or a partner activity with teacher supervision. The learning is active (not silent reading without specific goals or mindless completion of a worksheet).

Phase 5: Clarification

- **Check for understanding with sample problems, situations, questions.** Have students practice with the information just taught. Guide the learning.

Phase 6: Practice and Review

- **Provide time for practice and review.** Allow students time to practice under your supervision. You and the students work together.

Phase 7: Independent Practice

- **Supervise students' independent practice.** Select additional strategies for small groups of students who still do not "get it." Other students may begin to work independently, with the final goal being that all students can work on their own. This practice prepares students for successful homework, and it prepares them for future learning.

Phase 8: Closure

- **Bring the lesson to closure.** Link the lesson phases and information together. Summarize the learning of the day, and discuss how it fits into the meaningful learning. Did students demonstrate what they learn by writing a brief note; the note may include questions, problems, or ideas on the learning. Alternatively, they may write in their journals or explain their understanding to a partner.

Q: Define Lesson Planning in Pakistani context?

Teaching is a collection of best teaching practices, intricate lesson plans, and the expertise of the teachers' guide. It is exhausting and exhilarating for the new teachers. Those who remain in the profession over time develop a tremendous knowledge and understanding of children, their perceptions, and how their minds work. An effective lesson plan increases knowledge and understanding.

When it comes to Pakistan we need to consider:

- Pakistani education system
- Status of government schools
- Status of Teaching of English in Pakistani schools

Some Imp Notes:

Yet, most of these courses teaching English as a Foreign language, still seem to be developed as though their users need to communicate with the native speakers of English which means they interact with people in English speaking countries i.e. UK and USA. For example, Tomlinson and Masuhara (2013) reviewed six current EFL courses published in the UK and concluded that most of the texts illustrate a 'correct' version of English as it is written and spoken by native speakers interacting with each other.

The materials developed for learners of EIL (English as an International Language) are substantially different from the materials traditionally used to teach EFL. In fact, global course books are criticized for not meeting the learners' needs of English as a global language. We need to think about the ways in which new materials could meet the learners' needs to communicate with non-native speakers than with native speakers of English. There is a need to make use of authentic texts and authentic tasks to provide maximum exposure to English language used for international communication purposes.

One characteristic of English used in international settings is its heterogeneity.

EIL as though a uniform and homogeneous entity, in practice, implicit rules about appropriate forms and usage of English are negotiated for each communicative event and thus there is a great deal of formal and pragmatic variation across the situations

Q: Criteria for Evaluating Teaching Materials: Which Variety of English is the Material Based on? Is it the Variety my Students Should Learn?

Multiple varieties of English are used successfully in international communication contexts, which imply a wide variety of Englishes to choose from when selecting an instructional model for English instruction. The dominant instructional model(s) of the course should be selected according to the goal of the curriculum and the needs of students, and the varieties of English represented in the teaching materials should match the focus of the

course. For instance, if the central goal of the course is to prepare students to study in the UK, the textbooks and other materials must introduce students to British (academic) English and its culture(s). Similarly, if the course is to prepare business professionals to relocate to Hong Kong, ideal materials would expose learners to a kind of Hong Kong English used in business as well as for social purposes (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011).

In many cases, American or British English, the two most popular choices for instructional models may be a reasonable choice. They are considered legitimate and respected in many international contexts i.e., they may not be the most preferred in all contexts but are acceptable in many. After all, there is nothing with these varieties. One key issue here, is that such a selection must be made after consideration and should not disregard the need for students to be aware, appreciative and somewhat prepared for the encounter with other varieties. And in unfortunate cases where such consideration has not already taken place as part of the curriculum design, such gaps may be filled through careful selection and development of teaching materials.

Q: Does English Represent a Variety of Speakers?

Graddol wrote in his book, *The Future of English*, “Native speakers may feel the language ‘belongs’ to them, but it will be those who speak English as a second or foreign language who will determine its world future” (p. 10). Widdowson (1994) also wrote, *How English develops in the world is of no business whatever native speakers in England, the United States, or anywhere else. They have no right to say, to intervene or pass judgement in the matter* (p. 385). In other words, the process of learning to use EIL involves a process of claiming ownership of the language.

Q: Whose Cultures are represented In context of English as lingua franca??

In general English courses, where learners are preparing themselves for the use of English in international contexts, culture is defined much more broadly. And for teaching materials to capture such broadness, their cultural content must be drawn from multiple sources. The first source of cultural content is global cultures, which includes topics beyond national boundaries and are relevant to the global society as a whole. Topics as ‘world peace’ and ‘environment’ are already popular in ELT teaching materials, and they provide appropriate content for readings, class discussions, and course assignments in EIL classrooms, they help in fostering the sense of global citizenship among students. This is particularly useful in contexts where inter-subject/departmental collaboration and coordination is encouraged

The second source would be the culture(s) of their future speakers. In today’s global world where English is the most common lingua franca, a person from any culture who uses English becomes a part of the English-speaking world. The challenge here is that those speakers who are unknown to English culture, it would be impossible for them to touch upon every culture within English speaking countries. The way to address this challenge is to diversify the content and include countries and regions from various parts of the world in their teaching materials. This illustrates not only the geographical spread but also the functional diversity of the language.

The third possible source of cultural content for EIL materials is the learner’s own culture. When English was considered as the language of the UK and the US and merely as a tool to access information, knowledge, and resources only available in the language; the knowledge of a narrowly defined “English-speaking culture” may have been adequate. Today’s use of EIL is not limited to exchanges between native and non-native speakers of English, there is often a desire to establish and maintain an equal, mutually-respectful relationship with others. In such cases, the ability to perceive and analyze the familiar culture from an outsider’s perspective is critical. Culture is not limited to traditional and often stereotype culture, such as ‘sushi’ for Japan and ‘soccer’ for Brazil. The beliefs and practices of students’ experience of school, family, community also constitute local culture. From this perspective, any materials that engage students to explain local culture, to critically reflect upon what they take for granted, and to work on skills for describing local culture in English can be legitimately incorporated into EIL classrooms.

Q: Is it true that western teaching methodologies are appropriate for all types of local contexts?

Some scholars have argued that we cannot automatically assume certain teaching methodologies that are well received in the western contexts work equally well with students and teachers in other parts of the world (e.g., Hino, 1988b; Hu, 2002). Every culture has its own way of teaching and learning in the local context. Although there is nothing wrong with introducing a new pedagogical approach, this cannot be expected to work well without any adjustments in a new context and should not be assumed to be more effective or better than the local practices. The same argument applies to the appropriateness of teaching materials. That is, materials should be based on the familiar ways of teaching and learning, and should attract approaches which are already accustomed to teachers and learners. Thus, values represented in teaching materials could potentially come into direct conflict with teachers and students. as educational research suggests that students learn better when they find the material real and meaningful to themselves

Q What are the Needs and Wants of Learners to Learn English as a Lingua Franca

The learners of English as a lingua franca need primarily to develop their ability to:

- understand English when it is written or spoken by non-native speakers of English from different regions of the world
- make them understood in speech and writing to non-native speakers of English
- interact effectively with non-native speakers of English
- In addition, they need to pass the examinations for progress academically and/or professionally progress. The major examinations of English proficiency still assume that the model is a standard variety of native speaker English, and they assess candidates in relation to their approximation to native speaker norms (Tomlinson, 2010).
- The wants of learners regarding English as a lingua franca are very similar to those of English learners for any other purposes. They want to express them as human beings, to communicate their feelings and ideas, to become humorous and interesting in English.

Q: Elaborate prescribed materials for use of Spoken Interactions of Native and Non-native Speakers.

1. The Use of Authentic Texts

Meaningful engagement with authentic lingua franca texts is a prerequisite for the development of communicative and strategic competence when using English as a lingua franca. Such texts can be collected and kept in libraries ready to use in materials development and can also be created by interactive negotiation between lingua franca learners. The latter is perhaps the best way of collecting texts for lower level learners.

The internet and the mobile phone offer great opportunities for materials writers and teachers to find authentic lingua franca interactions to use as materials and for students to interact with native and with non-native speakers in the same or other countries both as a means of providing experience of lingua franca communication and of providing texts for use as materials with the same or with other students.

2. The Use of Authentic Tasks

Tomlinson (2012) defines an authentic task as “one which involves the learners in communicating to achieve an outcome, rather than to practice the language”. Authentic tasks can be realistic and they replicate in the classroom with real communicative demands.

Contexts of EIL communication which can be used to design spoken activities:

- a foreign visitor seeking information/directions/assistance from a local resident in a non-English speaking country
- a foreign visitor giving directions to a local taxi driver in a non-English speaking country
- a foreign resident seeking and giving information to a local official in a non- English speaking country
- travellers from different countries interacting at an airport/on a plane/on a train
- business men from different countries negotiating a contract

3. The Use of Spoken Interactions between Non-native Speakers

Listening to and replicating dialogues between idealized native speakers provide rich, varied and extensive experience of listening to non-native speakers of English. Ideally, they need experience of interacting themselves

with non-native speakers of English from different parts of the world.

4. Pragmatic Awareness Activities

The EIL learners need to develop sensitivity towards different cultural norms and be able to accommodate their pragmatic norms towards those speakers. Obviously, EIL learners cannot become proficient in communicating with people from all regions and cultures. They can develop their ability to become sensitive to different ways of greeting people, inviting people, declining invitations, seeking information, seeking clarification, giving opinions, expressing agreement, expressing disagreement, and expressing gratitude. They can also develop ability to vary the way according to speech acts.

Q: What is the role of digital media in the EIL Classroom?

Digital media offer a number of ways to enhance materials development and learner feedback across the traditional skills (for an extended discussion, see Levy, 2009). Chun (2006) reviewed a number of technologies available to support reading in a second language, some of which are available non-commercially such as electronic and online dictionaries, hyperlinks to vocabulary words that are embedded within many online texts, or the use of the Internet to obtain a wider range of sources. She also points towards software that can provide annotations through multimedia and promote word recognition.

Digital media provide numerous options to support writing when the focus is primarily on formal features of written language in traditional classrooms. For grammar instruction, teachers can access any number of websites that provide individualized practice of grammar (cf., Purdue Online Writing Lab, <http://owl.english.purdue.edu>), or they can create their own vocabulary and grammar activities using freeware such as Hot Potatoes (<http://hotpot.uvic.ca>), which allows instructors to create different types of online activities (e.g., multiple choice, short answer, jumbled text, crossword) and post them to the Internet. Even as word processing has become more commonplace in the classroom, features such as track changes and embedding comments are better options for teacher or peer feedback (Ho & Savignon, 2007). Automated writing evaluation software programs offer options for individualized, immediate feedback to students as they learn to revise their essays (Warschauer & Ware, 2006); such programs are designed to promote formal writing within a relatively narrow range of genres and organizing structures, which may be more or less appropriate in different contexts and will manifest differently depending on the degree of integration into instruction (Warschauer & Grimes, 2008).

Q: What is Learner Autonomy?

The term 'autonomy' is derived originally from the fields of politics and moral philosophy and is widely confused with self-instruction and independent learning (Benson, 2001, 2007). The concept of learner's autonomy has first developed in the early 1970's in France. In educational circles, autonomy is considered a worthy goal for philosophical as well as for psychological reasons. From a philosophical point of view, one of the desirable goals of general education has been to make individuals autonomous who think independently and act responsibly. In this changing world where instant decision making is a prerequisite for successful functioning, helping learners to become autonomous is one way to maximize their chances for success.

A review of the literature on learner autonomy in L2 education reveals a diversity of ideas as well as terms. Some of the terms that are widely used in the context of learner autonomy are: self-instruction, self-direction, self-access learning, and individualized instruction.

- Self-instruction refers to situations in which learners are working without the direct control of the teacher.
- Self-direction refers to situations in which learners accept responsibility for all the decisions concerned with learning but not necessarily for the implementation of those decisions.
- Self-access learning refers to situations in which learners make use of self-access teaching material or instructional technology that is made available to them.
- Individualized instruction refers to situations in which the learning process is adapted, either by the teacher or by the learner, to suit the specific characteristics of an individual learner (Leslie Dickinson, 1987, p. 11)

Q: What are the scholar's views on autonomy?

While scholars tell us what learner autonomy actually is and what it is not:

- Autonomy is not independence, that is, learners have to learn to work cooperatively with their teachers,

peers, and the educational system;

- Autonomy is not context-free, that is, the extent to which it can be practiced depends on factors such as learners’ personality and motivation, their language learning needs and wants, and the educational environment within which learning takes place; and
- Autonomy is not a steady state achieved by learners, that is, autonomous learners are likely to be autonomous in one situation, but not necessarily in another, and they may very well choose to abdicate their own autonomy and look for teacher direction at certain stages in their learning.

Q: What are the Learning Strategies for Learner Autonomy proposed by Rebecca Oxford (1990).

A taxonomy that offers a comprehensive system of learning strategies is the one proposed by Rebecca Oxford (1990). Her system consists of six strategy groups, three direct and three indirect.

Direct strategies are those that directly involve the target language. They are composed of memory strategies for remembering and retrieving new information, cognitive strategies for understanding and producing the language, and compensation strategies for doing with the limited, still-developing proficiency in the target language. They are all considered direct strategies since they require mental processing of the target language. Indirect strategies are those that support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language. They are composed of metacognitive strategies for coordinating the learning process, affective strategies for regulating emotions and attitudes, and social strategies for learning and working with others.

Figure 6.1 captures the salient features of the Oxford strategy system. Notice that many of the strategies suggested by Oxford are learner-centered, that is, they represent actions taken by learners to maximize their learning potential.

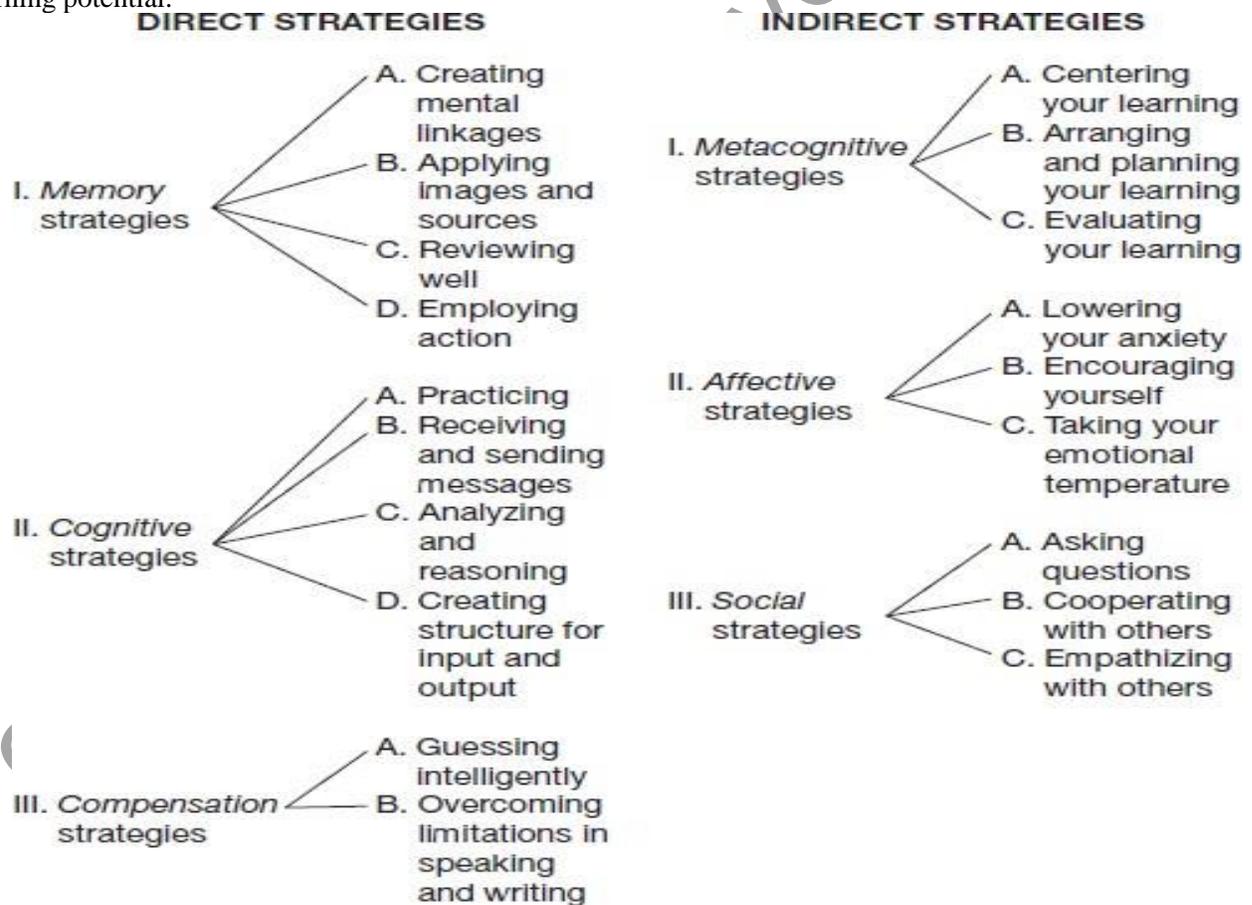


Figure 6.1 Oxford’s Strategy System

Q: What Teachers Can Do in learner training?

According to Ellis and Sinclair (1989, p. 10), teachers can play an instrumental role in learner training by:

- negotiating with learners about course content and methodology, if appropriate;
- sharing with learners, in a way that is accessible to them, the kind of information about language and language learning that teachers have but that is not always passed on to learners;
- encouraging discussion in the classroom about language and language learning;
- helping learners become aware of the wide range of alternative strategies available to them for language learning;
- creating a learning environment where learners feel they can experiment with their language learning;
- allowing learners to form their own views about language learning, and respecting their points of view;
- counseling and giving guidance to individual learners when possible.

Q: How can we make learners training truly meaningful?

In order to carry out objectives and to make learner training truly meaningful, Wenden (1991, p. 105) suggests that learner training should be:

- Informed. The purpose of the training should be made explicit and its value brought to the students' attention.
- Self-regulated. Students should be trained how to plan and regulate the use of the strategy, and also how to monitor the difficulties they may face in implementing it.
- Contextualized. Training should be relevant to the context of the subject matter content and/or skill for which it is appropriate. It should be directed to specific language learning problems related the learners' experience.
- Interactive. Learners should not be merely told what to do and when to do it and then left on their own to practice. Rather, until they evidence some ability to regulate their use of the strategy, teachers are expected to continue to work with them.
- Diagnostic. The content of the training should be based on the actual proficiency of the learners. Therefore, at the outset of any strategy training, information on which strategies students use and how well they use them should be collected.

Q: What are the degrees of Learner Autonomy?

The teachers and learners face a challenge to determine the degree of appropriate autonomy for their specific learning and teaching context. Generally, researchers advocate a gradual and guided introduction of autonomy over pedagogic choices related to the aims, outcomes, tasks, and materials of learning and teaching. At the initial stage of autonomy, the emphasis is simply on raising the learner's awareness of the reasons behind the teacher's choice of goals, tasks, and materials. At the intermediate stage, the emphasis is on allowing the learner to choose from a range of options given by the teacher. Finally, at the advanced stage, the emphasis is on learner determination of his/her goals, tasks, and materials. It certainly makes sense to start with a modest beginning and gradually move toward greater challenges. However, it would be a mistake to try to correlate the initial, intermediate, and advanced stages of autonomy. In fact, teachers and learners can follow different stages of autonomy depending on the linguistic and communicative demands of a particular task in a class.

Q: Elaborate Learner Autonomy in Pakistani context.

We need to consider the Pakistani context from following perspectives:

- Pakistani education system
- Large classes
- Teacher centered classes
- Lack of teacher training
- Socio-cultural factors

Q: Definition of Syllabus

- A syllabus is an academic document that communicates course information and defines expectations and

responsibilities. It is descriptive (unlike the prescriptive or specific curriculum). A syllabus may be set out by an exam board or prepared by the professor who supervises or controls course quality.

- A syllabus is a document that describes what the contents of a language course will be and the order in which they will be taught. The content of a syllabus normally reflects certain beliefs about language and language learning.

Q: What is a Curriculum?

- Curriculum refers to all those activities in which children engage under the auspices of the school. This includes not only what pupils learn, but how they learn it, how teachers help them learn, using what supporting materials, styles and methods of assessment, and in what kind of facilities.
- Curriculum is a theoretical document and refers to the programme of studies in an educational system or institution.
- Curriculum deals with the abstract general goals of education which reflect the overall educational and cultural philosophy of a country, national and political trends as well as a theoretical orientation to language and language learning.
- A curriculum provides the overall rationale for educating students.

Q: Curriculum vs. Syllabus?

A curriculum is concerned with making general statements about language learning, learning purpose, and experience, and the relationship between teachers and learners. A syllabus is more localized and is based on the accounts and records of what actually happens at the classroom level as teachers and students apply a curriculum to their situation. The two terms are often used interchangeably although they may indicate a hierarchical relationship where curriculum refers broadly to all aspects of language policy, language planning, teaching methods, and evaluation measures, whereas syllabus relates narrowly to the specification of content and the sequencing of what is to be taught. There are various essential components to an academic syllabus: Instructor information, General course information, Course objectives, Course policies, Grading and evaluation, Learning resources, the Course Calendar etc.

Q: What is the purpose of a Syllabus in Language Teaching?

The syllabus ensures a fair and impartial understanding between the instructor and students on policies relating to the course, setting clear expectations of material to be learned, behavior in the classroom, and effort on student's behalf to be put into the course, providing a roadmap of course organization relaying the instructor's teaching philosophy to the students, and providing a marketing angle of the course such that students may choose early in the course whether the subject material is attractive.

A syllabus will often contain a reading list of relevant books and articles that are compulsory or optional for students to read. In fact one of the essential components of any language teaching program is *syllabus* or *curriculum*, which specifies the content of language learning and teaching.

Q: What are the Characteristics of Syllabus?

A well-designed language teaching syllabus seeks mainly:

- To clarify the aims and objectives of learning and teaching, and
- To indicate the classroom procedures the teacher may wish to follow. According to Breen (2001, p. 151), any syllabus, should ideally provide the following:
 - A clear framework of knowledge and capabilities selected to be appropriate to overall aims;
 - Continuity and a sense of direction in classroom work for teacher and students;
 - Record for other teachers of what has been covered in the course;
 - Basis for evaluating students' progress;
 - Basis for evaluating the appropriateness of the course in relation to overall aims and student needs, identified both before and during the course;
 - Content appropriate to the broader language curriculum, the particular class of learners, and the educational

situation and wider society in which the course is located.

Education scholars and university teaching and learning centers emphasize the importance of a well-written syllabus and conceptualize the document in various ways ranging from a logistical handout to a course manifesto as described below. Ideally, a syllabus draws upon several of these characterizations.

- Contract: explicitly stated expectations, policies, procedures, prerequisites.
- Manifesto: sets tone for the course, offers support, explains teaching philosophy.
- Invitation: shares enthusiasm for the subject matter, emphasizes relevance to students.
- Road map: helps students self-regulate their learning through resources and advice.
- Scholarship: distills course goals and content for colleagues, summarizing the best teaching literature on a topic.
- Reference: notes logistical information for students and university staff.

Q: Write down Syllabus Classifications?

Wilkins (1976) proposed two broad classifications of syllabus: synthetic syllabus and analytic syllabus. The underlying assumption behind the synthetic syllabus is that a language system can be

- analyzed into its smaller units of grammatical structures, lexical items, or functional categories;
- classified in some manageable and useful way; and
- presented to the learner one by one for their understanding and assimilation.

The learners then are expected to synthesize all the separate elements in order to get the totality of the language. Because the synthesis is done by the learner, the syllabus is named synthetic. The language-centered as well as learner-centered methods follow the synthetic syllabus. Language-centered pedagogists devised suitable classroom procedures for teachers to present, and help learners synthesize, discrete items of grammar and vocabulary while learner-centered pedagogists did the same, adding notional and functional categories to the linguistic items.

In the analytic syllabus, the language input is presented to the learner, not piece by piece, but in fairly large chunks. These chunks will not have any specific linguistic focus; instead, they will bring the learner's attention to the communicative features of the language. They are connected texts in the form of stories, games, problems, tasks, and so forth. It is the responsibility of the learner to analyze the connected texts into its smaller constituent elements, term analytic. Learning-centered methods adhere to the analytic approach to syllabus construction.

Q: What kind of two basic types of syllabus are depending on the nature and purpose of syllabus?

There are two basic types of syllabus depending on the nature and purpose of syllabus: product-oriented and process-oriented syllabuses.

Product oriented syllabuses are those in which the focus is on the knowledge and skills which learners should gain as a result of instruction, while process syllabuses are those which focus on the learning experiences themselves. Process oriented, as the name indicates, is more focused on the process than the product.

Q: The Handbook for Instructors of Undergraduates in Yale College describes two functions for a course syllabus: What are those?

The Handbook for Instructors of Undergraduates in Yale College describe two functions for a course syllabus:

- To inform students about the "scope, procedures, bibliography, and examination or paper requirements of a course," and
- To convey the "instructor's expectations about academic integrity."

Q: What is Assessment?

It is defined as a process of appraising something or someone, i.e. the act of gauging the quality, value or importance. Assessment is defined as a methodical way of acquiring, reviewing and using information about someone or something, so as to make improvement where necessary. The term is interpreted in a variety of ways, i.e. educational, psychological, financial, taxation, human resource and so on.

In general, assessment is an ongoing interactive process, in which two parties (assessor and assessee) are involved. The assessor is someone who assesses the performance based on the defined standards, while assessee is someone who is being assessed. The process aims at determining the effectiveness of the overall performance of the assessee and the areas of improvement. The process involves, setting up goals, collecting information (qualitative and quantitative) and using the information for increasing quality.

Q: Define Evaluation?

The term 'evaluation' is derived from the word 'value' which refers to 'usefulness of something'. Therefore, evaluation is an examination of something to measure its utility. Evaluation is a systematic and objective process of measuring or observing someone or something, with an aim of drawing conclusions, using criteria, usually governed by set standards or by making comparisons. It gauges the performance of a person, completed projects, process or product, to determine its worth or significance.

The evaluation includes both quantitative and qualitative analysis of data and undertaken once in a while. It ascertains whether the standards or goals established are met or not. If they are met successfully, then it identifies the difference between actual and intended outcomes.

Q: What are the differences between Assessment and Evaluation?

Assessment is defined as a process of appraising something or someone, i.e. the act of gauging the quality, value or importance. **Evaluation** focuses on making a judgment about values, numbers or performance of someone or something. Assessment is made to identify the level of performance of an individual, whereas evaluation is performed to determine the degree to which goals are attained.

The basic difference between assessment and evaluation lies in the orientation, i.e. while the assessment is process oriented, evaluation is product oriented.

Assessment vs. Evaluation

Basis for comparison	Assessment	Evaluation
Meaning	Assessment is a process of collecting, reviewing and using data, for the purpose of improvement in the current performance.	Evaluation is described as an act of passing judgment on the basis of set of standards.
Nature	Diagnostic	Judgmental
What it does?	Provides feedback on performance and areas of improvement.	Determines the extent to which objectives are achieved.
Purpose	Formative	Summative
Orientation	Process Oriented	Product Oriented
Feedback	Based on observation and positive & negative points.	Based on the level of quality as per set standard.
Relationship between parties	Reflective	Prescriptive
Criteria	Set by both the parties jointly.	Set by the evaluator.

Measurement Standards	Absolute	Comparative
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Q: How Traditional Tests are different from Performance based Tests?

Puppin (2007) argues that traditional tests like Board examinations are one-shot tests, based on textbooks, that give inauthentic and de-contextualised testing tasks, have subjective grading and correction and lead to negative wash back. On the other hand, performance based testing is continuous assessment, has contextualised test tasks and standardised scoring criteria (Davies, 1990). McNamara (1996) also believes that traditional tests do not contribute to students' learning in a positive way. Bailey (1998) suggests that in contrast to traditional tests, performance tests are designed with a special care to present real life tasks which test learners' sociolinguistic ability and competence to ensure their progress in language.

Q: What are the measures for a good test?

A good test should have construct validity, reliability, authenticity, interactivensess, impact and practicality to foster creativity and independent learning (Brown & Pickford, 2006). Bachman and Palmer (1996, p.19-26) define construct validity as 'meaningfulness and interpretation of the scores to be achieved', reliability is 'the consistency of scores', authenticity is 'the degree of correspondence between a given test task and the target language use', interactivensess is 'the involvement of test taker's characteristics', impact means 'the effect of the test on society, educational systems and upon the individual within those systems' and practicality means 'available resources'.

Q: What are the different types of assessment? (Important Question)

Following are different types of assessment. The understanding of these types would leave to our understanding how choices can be made when it comes to the assessment in SL:

The selected-response type requires students to listen and/or read and then select the correct answer (by circling, making a mark). Items in this category are suitable for testing the receptive skills of reading and listening and passive knowledge of subjects like grammar and vocabulary. Such items are relatively quick and easy to administer and score, and scoring them is considered objective. True/False items most often ask students to read or listen to statements and determine if they are true or false (for more, especially on handling the guessing factor that is uniquely problematic for these items (Brown & Hudson 2002 , pp. 65–67).

These items can be used to test a wider range of language learning points than true-false or matching items and have a relatively low guessing factor (e.g., about 25 % for four-option items).

The constructed-response type differs fundamentally from the selected response category in that, while students are often required to listen and/or read, they are also expected to produce either written or oral language (ranging from single words as in fill-in items to entire oral presentations as in performance assessment).

Thus, this category allows for the assessing of productive language use, active knowledge, as well as interactions of receptive (reading/listening) and productive (writing/speaking) skills. In addition, this category typically has a very small guessing factor

Conference assessment usually involves teachers meeting with single student or small groups of students and going over various language points that need review or practice (Brown & Hudson 2002, p. 78–81). Teachers can use conference assessment to elicit and give feedback on specific skills, tasks, functions, and grammar points that students need to review and practice.

Portfolio assessment requires students to collect work of their own choice that they have done throughout a course, as well as reflect on that work and display the portfolios for a particular audience (Brown & Hudson 2002, p. 81–83). Such assessment is particularly useful for enhancing learning and get into the assessment process because students are creating their own personal portfolios. If properly structured, portfolio assessment can also reduce the teacher's role in the assessment process and encourage student autonomy and learner motivation.

Self / peer - assessment type involves students scoring or rating their own work or their peers' work (Brown and Hudson 2002, p. 83–86). Such assessment can take less time than teacher scoring if well organized. It also combines well with performance, conference, or portfolio assessment. Since self/peer assessment involves

students directly and intimately in the assessment process, it helps them understand that process and encourages student autonomy and motivation.

The individualized-response type is even more learner-focused than the personal-response category in that the assessment and feedback are tailored to the individuals. The assessment types in this category are the best tailored to a specific curriculum. Indeed, since they are tailored to individual students, they can be used to precisely examine the learning processes that the students are going through.

Continuous assessment type turns most or all learning activities into assessment activities by providing feedback in a constant, cyclical, and cumulative way (Puhl, 1997). Such assessment is integrated in the curriculum as well as in the grading process for the course. Creating a constant assessment feedback also increase learning and learner motivation. In many instances, continuous assessment could be implemented by simply adding a feedback component to existing classroom.

The Personal-response type adds a learner-focused dimension to the assessment process by getting students to use the language to create meanings personally important to them, by getting them personally involved in the assessment process, and/or by simulating authentic language use.

Differentiated assessment requires teachers to first assess students' learning style preferences using an instrument like the Visual, Auditory, and Kinesthetic Learning Styles questionnaire at http://www.businessballs.com/freepdfmaterials/vak_learning_styles_questionnaire.pdf and then provide different assessment procedures to suit the preferences of different groups of students (Stefanakis & Meier 2010). Such assessment is tailored to the visual, auditory, or kinaesthetic learning style strengths of individual students, a practice that is fairer than traditional testing methods. One way to think about differentiated assessment is that it allows students to demonstrate their learning or skill getting in the way that best suits their abilities.

Dynamic assessment involves integrating teaching and assessment by predicting learner problems and prearranging mediation, called the interventionist strategy, or by supporting learner development through assessment and feedback, called the interactionist strategy (Poehner, 2008). Such assessment tailors teaching and assessment to the learning of individual students as they develop, which considered socio-linguistically fairer and more effective than traditional assessment practices. Since the assessment is directly integrated into the learning processes that are designed/tailored for each individual student, it may increase learning and learner motivation.

Q: What is the importance of Assessment in English Language Teaching?

Generally, assessment is an essential component of an education system. It has a strong impact on teachers and pupils (Hughes, 2003). The purpose of testing is to provide information about the achievement of learners without which rational educational decisions could not be made (Schellekens, 2007). Therefore, Williams (1998) believes English teachers should be trained to construct and mark students' papers because assessing student papers is one of the most important things the teachers do, as their decisions about grades can affect students' lives.

Q: Write down various types of tests?

There are various types of English language tests. According to Hughes (2003), an **achievement test** is conducted at the end of the year. A **proficiency test** is designed to measure people's ability in a language regardless of any training they may have had in that language. A **placement test** is used to place pupils at different levels of education. Finally, a **diagnostic test** is employed to know the weaknesses and strengths of the learners in a language. In Pakistan, all Board and University examinations are **achievement tests** which are not very helpful to understand the strengths and weaknesses of students. There are some proficiency tests such as IELTS, TOEFL which Pakistani students need to qualify for admission in higher education in English speaking countries.

Q: Describe English Language Assessment in Pakistani context?

In Pakistan, the public examinations are often perceived as a source of dissatisfaction that do not reflect students' actual potential or measure language proficiency (Khan, 2011, 2012). Siddiqui (2007, p.189) believes 'in Pakistan assessment system excludes creativity and critical thinking out of its legitimate boundaries' because English examinations test knowledge of literature and knowledge of language, rather than use of language. Siddiqui (2007, p.164) says that the students memorize the readymade answers of short stories, essays, plays, poems etc., because assessment system encourages rote learning and the examination requires the students to

reproduce what they have learnt by heart'. Further, all examinations held in English in Pakistan have subjectivity in setting and marking and they cover only reading and writing skills and measure pupils' knowledge of the language rather than their performance (Warsi, 2004). Thus, to quote, 'we are caught in a vicious circle; the cycle begins at a badly constructed syllabi and ends at a rag bag system called examination' (National Education Policy (1992, p.69). National Education Policy (2009, p.38) states, 'the public examinations in Pakistan are invalid and unreliable as they encourage cramming'. In Pakistan, it is seen that, assessment has a direct relationship with teaching in the classroom.

Q: What are the Wash-back effects of examinations?

Hughes (2003) describes wash-back as an effect of testing on teaching and learning. Bachman and Palmer (1996, p.27) define wash-back to be an aspect of impact on processes of learning and instruction. According to Hughes (2003) a test could have either beneficial or harmful wash-back. A test has beneficial wash-back if it is based on the language needs of the learners but if the test content and techniques are at variance with the objectives of the course, it is unreliable and likely to have harmful wash-back. The public examinations have negative wash-back effect in Pakistan. The negative wash-back effect on teaching is of two kinds: explicit and implicit. In the Pakistani context, explicit effect is shown in the apparent tactics the teacher uses to help students get good grades.

What is Teacher Training?

Teacher training refers to the policies, procedures, and provision designed to equip teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviors, and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the classroom, school, and wider community.

Sometimes the term **Teacher education** is used instead. In fact there is a longstanding and ongoing debate about the most appropriate term to describe these activities. The term 'teacher training' (which may give the impression that the activity involves training staff to undertake relatively routine tasks) seems to be losing ground, at least in the U.S., to 'teacher education' (with its connotation of preparing staff for a professional role as a reflective practitioner).

Q: What is the Significance of Teacher Training?

Teachers play a crucial role in supporting the learning experience of young people and adult learners. They are key players in how education systems evolve and in the implementation of the reforms which can make the European Union the highest performing knowledge-driven economy in the world.

Their profession, which is inspired by values of inclusiveness and the need to nurture the potential of all learners, has a strong influence on society and plays a vital role in advancing human potential and shaping future generations.

Q: What are the three stages of teachers' education?

Teacher education is often divided into these stages

- initial teacher training / education (a pre-service course before entering the classroom as a fully responsible teacher);
- induction (the process of providing training and support during the first few years of teaching or the first year in a particular school);
- Teacher development or continuing professional development (CPD) (an in-service process for practicing teachers).

Q: Write down Curriculum prescribed for Teacher Training?

Generally, Teacher Education curricula can be broken down into four major areas:

- Foundational knowledge in education-related aspects of philosophy of education, history of education, educational psychology, and sociology of education.
- Skills in assessing student learning, supporting English language learners, using technology to improve teaching and learning, and supporting students with special needs.
- Content-area and methods knowledge and skills often also including ways of teaching and assessing a specific

subject, in which case this area may overlap with the first ("foundational") area. There is increasing debate about this aspect; because it is no longer possible to know in advance what kinds of knowledge and skill pupils will need when they enter adult life, it becomes harder to know what kinds of knowledge and skill teachers should have.

- Practice at classroom teaching or at some other form of educational practice usually supervised and supported in some way, though not always. Practice can take the form of field observations, student teaching, or internship.

Q: How Teacher get Training of Language? Elaborate in context of International Practices.

Initial Teacher Education takes place largely or exclusively in institutions of Higher Education. It may be organized according to two basic models in many countries. In the 'consecutive' model, a teacher first obtains a qualification in one or more subjects (often an undergraduate bachelor's degree), and then studies for a further period to gain an additional qualification in teaching (this may take the form of a post-baccalaureate credential or master's degree).

In the alternative 'concurrent' model, a student simultaneously studies both one or more academic subjects, and the ways of teaching that subject, leading to a combined bachelor's degree and teaching credential to qualify as a teacher of that subject. Other pathways are also available. In some countries, it is possible for a person to receive training as a teacher by working in a school under the responsibility of an accredited experienced practitioner. In the United Kingdom there is a long tradition of partnerships between universities and schools in providing state supported teacher education.

Q: What are the various programs to help beginning teachers during their first years in the profession?

A number of countries and states have comprehensive systems of support to help beginning teachers during their first years in the profession. Elements of such a programme can include:

- Mentoring: the allocation to each beginning teacher of an experienced teacher, specifically trained as a mentor; the mentor may provide emotional and professional support and guidance; in many U.S. states, induction is limited to the provision of a mentor.
- A peer network: for mutual support but also for peer learning.
- Input from educational experts (e.g. to help the beginning teacher relate what she learned in college with classroom reality).
- Support for the process of self-reflection that all teachers engage in (e.g. through the keeping of a journal).

Q: What is Continuous Professional Development?

Continuous Professional Development (CPD) is the process by which teachers (like other professionals) reflect upon their competencies, keep them up to date, and develop them further. The extent to which education authorities support this process varies with the effectiveness of different approaches.

Q: What are the Common European Principles?

The Common European Principles are as Follows:

A well-qualified profession: high quality education systems require that all teachers are graduates from higher education institutions and those working in the field of initial vocational education should be highly qualified in their area and have a suitable pedagogical qualification.

A profession placed within the context of lifelong learning: teachers should be supported in order to continue their professional development throughout their careers. They and their employers should recognise the importance of acquiring new knowledge, and teachers should be able to innovate and use evidence to inform their work.

A mobile profession: mobility should be a central component of initial and continuing teacher education programmes. Teachers should be encouraged to participate in European projects and spend time working or studying in other European countries for professional development purposes.

A profession based on partnerships: institutions providing teacher education should organise their work collaboratively in partnership with schools, local work environments, work-based training providers and other stakeholders

Making it work: the key competencies: Teaching and education add to the economic and cultural aspects of

the knowledge in society and should therefore be seen in their societal context.

Q: Describe Teacher Training and Language Teaching in Pakistani context?

Teachers play a crucial role in the system of education. It is important that these teachers are equipped with proper knowledge, skills and attitudes in carrying out the goals of education and fulfilling their obligations. Teachers training have certain levels which correspond with the general education ability of the teachers. There are three levels of teachers training in Pakistan.

Teachers for the primary schools are trained, and must have passed Secondary School examination. They are provided one year training. After completion of this training they are awarded a certificate called Primary Teacher's certificate (PTC). Those who possess FA/F.Sc certificate are given one year training and awarded a certificate called Certificate in Education (CT). PTC and CT training is provided by the Government Colleges of Elementary Education (GCEE). Those who possess BA/.Sc degrees are provided one year training called "Bachelor of Education" (B.Ed) at the Government Colleges of Education

Those who further want to specialize in the subject of education undergo one year course called Master in Education (M.Ed). Teachers also do M.Phil and Ph.D in Education from the universities. At the University level Ph.Ds are employed to train teachers.

There are few problems in the teacher-training programme which include non-availability of qualified teaching faculty for the Colleges of Education, quality training programmes, financial problems of the Training Institutions, lack of quality material for training and lack of effective system of management and supervision. But the most serious problem is that the teachers do not use those teaching skills and methods in their classes which were taught to them in the training institutions.

Science and technical teaching has been given special emphasis by the federal government. Thus, Islamabad's Institute for the Promotion of Science Education and Training (IPSET) and National Technical Teachers Training College (NTTTC) have been doing excellent work in upgrading the knowledge base of secondary school and junior college science teachers as well as instructors in technology colleges and polytechnics. For educational administrators there is the Academy of Educational Planning and Management (AEPAM) at Islamabad, providing courses and in-service training for school and college principals, district education officers, and regional directors.

Q: What is research?

Research is the systematic inquiry with the goal of understanding a phenomenon in the world through the systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of data in order to establish facts and reach new conclusions.

Q: Why to Conduct Research in Language Teaching?

Engaging in research allows you to learn about a range of perspectives on certain issue. Research can allow you to have a clear rationale for your teaching choices. Conducting research can have a direct, impact on your classroom, your students, and your teaching. It can also help you to refine your teaching philosophy and pedagogical approach. In addition, research provides you with an opportunity to become part of a teacher-researcher community of practice, which provides you with connections and networks to get prior information and contribute.

Q: What are the benefits of research in language teaching?

The benefit of research in language teaching is that it is **Applicable** (to your language classroom), **Collaborative** (integrating you into a teacher-researcher community practice), and **Empowering** (for you and the participants in your research).

Q: How we make Classification of Research in Language Teaching? (Very important)

There are different ways of classifying research studies in terms of the type of research design used, such as descriptive, experimental and correlational studies. **Descriptive** research is to describe the phenomenon in its naturalistic context, whereas **experimental** research manipulates variables under controlled conditions. **Correctional** research examines associations between or among variables. Studies can also be classified in terms of their data collection methods. In this respect it can be **quantitative**, **qualitative**, and **mixed methods research**.

Quantitative research involves numerical data collected through various quantitative measures and analysis of those data through statistical procedures. **Qualitative** research consists of verbal data or data that involve texts and the analysis and interpretation of those texts. **Mixed methods research** involves a combination of both types of data. The terms qualitative and quantitative are also used to differentiate between studies in terms of their philosophical points of view with qualitative research valuing subjective judgments, whereas quantitative research stressing objectivity, control, and distance from the research. A third way of classifying research studies is in terms of their objectives. Studies can be exploratory or explanatory in their objectives. Exploratory research aims to discover ideas or to understand the phenomenon by attempting to generate new perspectives or hypothesis from the data. Explanatory research, however, aims to provide explanations for the relationship among variables by identifying the causes. Finally, studies can be classified in terms of the time frame for data collection. Hence they can be either cross-sectional or longitudinal. Cross-sectional studies involve data collected at a particular point of time or during short periods of time. Longitudinal studies involve data collected over an extended period of time with the aim of describing or tracking development or change over time.

Q: What are the traditional ways to contrast qualitative and quantitative approaches?

The traditional way to contrast qualitative and quantitative approaches to research is by providing description for the two:

Quantitative Research: controlled, experimental, objective, inferential, outcome-oriented, reliable, particularistic, hard/replicable data, generalizable, aggregate analysis;

Qualitative Research: naturalistic, observational, subjective, descriptive, process-oriented, valid, holistic, real, rich/deep data, ungeneralizable, single-case analysis.

Johnstone (2000) noted that quantitative studies tend to ask the research questions in mechanical ways (e.g., counting instances, computing means, calculating statistics), while qualitative studies ask them in non-mechanical ways (e.g., by asking about, watching or listening to phenomena of interest). In other words, quantitative discourse analysts seek to determine how something happens, while why and how things happen are the focus of qualitative discourse analyses. While Brown (2004) would contend that it is preferable to view the distinction between quantitative and qualitative research as a matter of degrees or a continuum rather than a clear-cut dichotomy, Dörnyei (2007, p. feels that making the dichotomous distinction is a useful starting place. Having said that, Dörnyei does devote attention to what are referred to as mixed methods research, namely, hybrid studies that combine qualitative and quantitative methods.

A mixed methods approach allows for a multi-level analysis of complex issues, where both numeric trends and verbal descriptions are included. Using a mixed method can improve validity, through the convergence and corroboration of findings. Such research can reach multiple audiences because of its potential interest to larger audiences of readers.

Q: Define Research in Language Teaching in Pakistani context.

When it comes to Pakistan the research tradition in general and specifically research in language teaching has not been very strong. To understand research in language teaching in the Pakistani context we need to consider the following:

- The ELT context of Pakistan
- General research context of Pakistan
- Research in SLA/ ELT and Pakistan
- Current Practices in Pakistan
- Role of various organizations and institutes of higher education
- Issues and problems

Q: What are the Types of Research Instruments and their Purpose?

Some studies adopt a mixed-methods approach, where not only are quantitative and qualitative methods combined to fit the purpose, but also a broader range of instruments is being used to measure the variables of interest. Hence, it is increasingly important for researchers to have some familiarity with different types of measures, and how best to combine them to get the desired results. Depending on their research questions,

researchers may find themselves needing measures that fall, for example, in all four of the areas listed below:

- Linguistic knowledge – including grammatical judgment tests, discourse completion tasks, verbal report data and reaction time measures.
- Linguistic performance/skills – anything from tests of receptive ability using a multiple-choice format to cloze and C-tests, to free-recall protocols or story narration, to role-play.
- Attitudes and perceptions – including questionnaire/surveys (on and off -line), interviews (varyingly structured), journals, or use of a ‘repertory grid’ (to get at people’s perceptions, assumptions and concepts).
- Cognitive processing – mostly through verbal report measures such as think-aloud, introspective and retrospective self-observation (also referred to as stimulated recalls) and self-report.

Q: Define verbal report techniques ‘Think-Aloud Protocols’ and ‘Stimulated Recall’.

We consider the two verbal report techniques, think aloud and stimulated recall, as representing two polarities on a continuum because they involve two variables: time and distance from the learning event. In a think-aloud protocol, the participants are given a task to perform and during the performance of that task they are asked to verbalize (i.e., to articulate) what their thought processes are. The researcher’s role is merely to encourage that verbalization through prompting the participants with utterances such as ‘please keep telling me what you are thinking’; ‘please keep thinking aloud if you can’. Think-aloud implies no direct inspection of the mental state, but merely reportage.

Moreover, stimulated recall is subject to the same methodological decision-making problems as in the think-aloud listening task example above. Should the researcher pre-select the episodes to be used as stimuli or should the participant be self-selecting them? Both have their advantages and disadvantages.