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«БАРАНОВИЧСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ»

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ЗАРУБЕЖНЫЙ ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКИЙ ОПЫТ КАК СРЕДСТВО САМООБРАЗОВАНИЯ БУДУЩЕГО ПРЕПОДАВАТЕЛЯ ИНОСТРАННОГО ЯЗЫКА

FOREIGN PEDAGOGICAL EXPERIENCE AS A MEANS OF SELF-EDUCATION OF A PROSPECTIVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER

Сборник учебных материалов
по дисциплине «Профессиональная культура»

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А в т о р

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Р е ц е н з е н т ы:

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В12 **Зарубежный педагогический опыт как средство самообразования будущего преподавателя иностранного языка = Foreign pedagogical experience as a means of self-education of a prospective foreign language teacher** [Текст] : сб. учеб. материалов по дисциплине «Профессиональная культура» / Ю. А. Ващилко. – Барановичи : РИО БарГУ, 2011. – 94, [2] с. : ил. – 90 экз. – ISBN 978-985-498-487-2.

Данное издание актуализирует образовательный потенциал самообразования в профессиональной деятельности; знакомит с современным зарубежным и международным педагогическим опытом иноязычного образования, рассматриваемым в качестве средства самообразования будущего преподавателя иностранного языка. Описан ряд актуальных зарубежных авторских концепций иноязычного образования, социальных и информационных технологий обучения иностранному языку. Тексты сопровождаются заданиями, направленными на углубление понимания, обеспечение контроля и организацию профессионально ориентированного общения.

Сборник предназначен для студентов языковых специальностей, подготовлено в соответствии с содержанием программы «Профессиональная культура» и может быть использовано с целью организации самостоятельной и аудиторной работы по данной дисциплине, а также «Методике преподавания иностранного языка», может оказаться полезным магистрантам и аспирантам в ходе самообразования в области современного иноязычного образования.

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CONTENTS

ABBREVIATIONS

EFL – English as a Foreign Language (Studying English in non-English-speaking countries)
ESL – English as a Second Language (Studying English as a non-native speaker in a country where English is spoken. Depending on where you are from, the term ESL may be more inclusive and includes EFL. For some people the reverse seems to be true.)
ESOL – English to Speakers of Other Languages (Note: ESL and EFL are often used interchangeably. This acronym is an attempt to make a generic term and then assign more limited meanings to ESL and EFL.)
ESP – English for Specific Purposes/English for Special Purposes
FL – Foreign Language
L1 – "Language 1" = the student's native (primary or first acquired) language.
L2 – "Language 2" = the language being learned or studied
NNS – Non-Native Speaker
NS – Native Speaker
SLA – Second Language Acquisition
TEFL – Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESL – Teaching English as a Second Language
TESOL – Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (It is also the name of an association)
CLT – Communicative Language Teaching
ELT – English Language Teaching (or sometimes Training)
FLT – Foreign Language Teaching
IQ – Intelligence Quotient
OHP – Overhead Projector
CBI – Content-Based Instruction
TL – Target Language
TOFL – Teaching of Foreign Language
TOSL – Teaching of Second Language
TPR – Total Physical Response

Предисловие

Как известно, зарубежный и международный педагогический опыт выступают в качестве одного из средств самообразования преподавателя. Данное издание преследует целью обогащение профессиональных познаний будущих преподавателей иностранного языка по вопросам зарубежного педагогического опыта, его роли, функций, форм изучения, способов анализа и различных материальных форм (теорий и практик) для обеспечения процесса самообразования.

На современном этапе преподаватели иностранного языка приобретают ряд возможностей для изучения частных аспектов зарубежного практического опыта преподавания иностранного языка, как с помощью печатных, так и электронных средств массовой информации. Отличительной особенностью данного издания является то, что оно призвано упорядочить и систематизировать профессиональные познания будущих преподавателей иностранного языка в области зарубежного и международного педагогического опыта иноязычного образования.

С учетом данной задачи материал книги был выстроен в такой последовательности, чтобы, во-первых, познакомить читателей с понятием «самообразование», а также с умениями, необходимыми с целью обеспечения последнего. Далее предложено описание понятия «зарубежный педагогический опыт», сопровождаемое аргументацией необходимости и перечислением форм изучения, а также способов его анализа. Принимая во внимание тенденцию нарастающей интернационализации языкового образования, логика книги обусловила рассмотрение вопроса международных организаций, занимающихся изучением и распространением прогрессивного педагогического опыта иноязычного образования, на ряду с описанием последних достижений в данной области, непосредственно повлиявших на отечественную образовательную политику в области иностранных языков. В качестве следующего компонента книги выступило описание ряда ключевых теорий в области образования, получающих значительное внимание на страницах профессиональных публицистических и монографических изданий. Разработчики данных теорий (К. Роджерс, С. Крашен, Р. Эллис, Г. Гарднер, Р. Оксфорд) приобрели широкую известность и высокий индекс цитирования среди специалистов в области преподавания иностранных языков. В последней части книги приведено краткое описание ряда современных социальных и информационных технологий обучения, завоевавших интерес исследователей на современном этапе развития иноязычного образования.

В структурном отношении книга включает пять частей и четыре приложения. Каждая тема в свою очередь представлена через ряд подтем, раскрывающих внутреннюю логику изложения. Предложенные в завершение книги приложения служат цели дополнения основного материала и включают «Цитаты о самообразовании», «Рациональные стратегии

и методы чтения», «Профиль множественных способностей», «Классификация стратегий Р. Оксфорд» (1990).

Теоретический материал сопровождается предтекстовыми, текстовыми и послетекстовыми заданиями. Предтекстовые задания направлены на активизацию фоновых знаний читателей с помощью предваряющих вопросов. Текстовые задания имеют целью овладение теоретическим материалом (с помощью построения схем, ответов на вопросы, заполнение таблиц, установления принципов объединения информации). Послетекстовые задания обеспечивают организацию рефлексии над собственным опытом; дальнейшее углубление познаний по теме с помощью проведения мини-исследований, а также знакомства с занимательными фактами в рамках темы.

Краткое рассмотрение тем, представленных в издании, направлено на обеспечение самообразования в области современного зарубежного и международного педагогического опыта иноязычного образования, а также развития профессиональной культуры преподавателей иностранного языка.

Данное издание призвано обеспечивать профессиональную подготовку будущих преподавателей иностранного языка по дисциплине «Профессиональная культура», а также может вызвать интерес у преподавателей иностранного языка, заинтересованных в продолжении самообразования посредством английского языка.

Автор

Foreword

It is common knowledge that foreign pedagogical experience as well as international pedagogical experience stands as a source of self-education of a modern teacher. Consequently, the present edition is aimed at enriching the professional knowledge of prospective teachers of foreign languages on the issues of "foreign pedagogical experience", its role, functions, forms of studying, ways of analyzing and various embodiments (theories and practices) for the sake of providing one's self-education.

As is known, modern teachers of foreign languages are able to learn about various educational practices of their foreign counterparts either through printed or electronic media. The present edition may help sequence and systematize one's professional knowledge of foreign as well as international pedagogical experience.

The material of the book has been arranged in such an order as to help the readers refresh their knowledge on the concept of self-education, and on the skills one needs to develop for its provision. The concept of foreign pedagogical experience is presented together with the reasons for and forms of studying it as well as ways of analyzing some certain experience. Since teaching foreign languages is gradually getting an international dimension it turns logical to see the international organizations involved in disseminating the best practices in teaching foreign languages together with the latest results of international cooperation that can't but affect our local educational practices. This is followed by key modern theories a teacher of foreign languages may frequently come across in professional magazines. These incorporate Carl Rogers's Theory of Humanistic Psychology, the Natural Approach by Stephen Krashen, the Theory of Second Language Acquisition by Roderick Ellis, the Theory of Multiple Intelligences by Harold Gardner, and Language Learning Styles and Strategies by Rebecca Oxford. Their research is a must-know for every teacher of foreign languages in the modern world. The last part deals with a few technologies that are believed to be either up-to-date or promising and thus requiring further investigation.

Structurally the book falls into five parts and four appendices. Each part in its turn explores a particular topic: "Self-education of Prospective Foreign Languages Teachers", "The Concept of Foreign Pedagogical Experience", "European cooperation in disseminating pedagogical experience in teaching/learning languages", "Theories affecting the teaching of foreign languages today", "Modern Technologies in Teaching Foreign Languages". Every topic is presented through subtopics which help explore it in a logical fashion. The appendices serve to enrich the given topics and include "Self-Education Quotes", "Some Rational Reading Strategies and Methods", "Multiple Intelligences Profile", "Oxford's Strategy Classification System (1990)".

The theoretical material is complemented with pre-reading, while reading and after reading tasks. Pre-reading tasks are aimed at activating the readers' background knowledge

through questions. While reading tasks are designed with a view of studying the core of the theoretical material (through building mind-maps, answering questions, filling in the tables, generalizing pieces of information). After reading tasks may facilitate enriching one's experience through conducting mini-research and reading extra bits of useful information on the topic.

It is believed that the given concise data on the listed topics may promote one's self-education in the field of foreign and international pedagogical experience and thus facilitate the development of the professional culture of teachers of foreign languages.

The present edition generally serves the needs of prospective teachers of foreign languages who study the subject "Professional Culture". However it might also evoke the interest of in-service foreign language teachers who are keen on continuing their self-education by means of a foreign language (English).

The author

P A R T I

SELF-EDUCATION OF PROSPECTIVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

"Actually, all education is self-education. A teacher is only a guide, to point out the way, and no school, no matter how excellent, can give you education. What you receive is like the outlines in a child's coloring book. You must fill in the colors yourself."

Louis L'Amour

PRE-READING

Exercise 1. **What is self-education in your view? Why is it important in the modern world? What skills does it require?**

WHILE READING

Exercise 2. **Read the text that follows and prepare a mind-map on the topic in question.**

1.1 The need for self-education

Before we learn about the skills vital for your self-education it's logical to find out why self-education is of tremendous importance in the modern world for any kind of specialist, including a teacher of foreign languages.

In the European perspective, (according to *Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications),* teaching is "a profession placed within the context of lifelong learning: teacher education is a continuum of professional development covering the full span of individuals' careers. Teachers recognize the importance of acquiring new knowledge, and have the ability to innovate and use evidence to inform their work. They are fully engaged in the process of lifelong learning and are able to evolve and adapt throughout their whole career. They participate actively in professional development …" [30].

Thus, familiarizing students with self-education has become a new important function of higher education today. But what makes self-education truly crucial for a prospective teacher? Here come evident reasons:

– it is impossible to receive a package of knowledge for the rest of your life;

– knowledge, skills, abilities, habits, beliefs are impossible to transfer from the teacher to the student; each student masters them in independent work;

– independent work develops high culture of mental work;

– the lack of a skill to work independently may turn out to be the main reason for one's dissatisfaction with their studies.

And which of the reasons is vital for you?

All the above mentioned facts serve to prove that for the prospective teacher (of foreign languages, too) self-education skills are professionally vital. It has already become a catchphrase that "the teacher lives as long as he studies. As soon as he ceases to study, the teacher inside him dies" (K. D. Ushinsky) [23]. So what is self-education?

1.2 The concept of self-education

In psychological and pedagogical literature the concept of "self-education" is viewed from different perspectives (see table 1 below and identify the characteristics of self-education).

It is clear from the definitions below that self-education is regarded as an activity, directed at the regular renewal and raising the level of one's knowledge, skills and habits, at upgrading their professional qualifications and broadening their intellectual outlook (see Table 1).

T a b l e 1 – The definitions of the concept of self-education

Source	Definition
Big Soviet Encyclopedia	Independent education, acquisition of systematic knowledge in some field of science, technology, culture, political life, etc. that presupposes one's personal interest naturally combined with independence in studying the material by the person involved
A. K. Gromtseva, P. I. Pidkasisty	Activity that develops in the inner plane and is realized through different mental operations made by man over ideal objects, as a result of which the "appropriation" of knowledge determined and coloured by one's personal attitude takes place. The new knowledge is included in the personal system of knowledge of a specialist and later serves as a result of self-education

G. M. Kodzhaspirova	Specially organized, independent, systematic cognitive activity, aimed at achieving defined by oneself personally or socially important educational goals: satisfying one's cognitive interests, cultural and professional needs, improving one's qualifications

Table 1 termination

Source	Definition
A. Y. Ajzenberg	Purposeful systematic cognitive activity, conditioned by social and personal needs, guided by the personality, and serving for the improvement of education; it's an uninterrupted continuation of general and professional education due to which one's knowledge is actualized and broadened, and the gaps in the personality's spiritual development are filled
G. N. Serikov	Means of searching and acquiring social experience with the help of which one may realize his/her upbringing, education, development and professional training in accordance with the set goals and tasks
A. M. Matjushkin	Productive process of personal development on the basis of his/her cognitive needs
Z. V. Voroshnina	A process of independent activity of a person in achieving personally and socially important aims in their upbringing, education, development and professional training

Self-education by means of a foreign language is summed up as "a specially organized, independent, systematic cognitive activity of a person that is aimed at achieving professionally and personally significant goals" (Z. V. Voroshnina) [7].

It is conditioned by a person's need for enriching and broadening one's professional outlook by means of a foreign language.

This activity involves searching for the necessary professional foreign language information in different sources (oral and written) on the basis of consciously selected professional aims, tasks and ways of solving them.

Among the major ways of self-education they traditionally distinguish the following: independent studying of professional literature and advanced experience in the field of learners' professional interests. Thus, there arises a question: which skills may be helpful for successful self-education?

1.3 Academic skills vital for prospective teachers' self-education

A. Reading skills. At the disposal of teachers and students there are various scientific, educational, fiction books, compositions of ancient and modern thinkers and writers, monographs and collective works of domestic and foreign authors. Consequently, reading skills are highly vital and useful for students. They create favorable conditions for all-round comprehension and memorization of the material.

The *purpose of reading* is of importance. Reading scientific literature, for example, is related to enriching knowledge and outlook, deepening erudition, development of cognitive abilities (attention, memory, and thinking). These purposes of reading are integrally interconnected and presuppose active creative work, accurate logical analysis of text structure and content.

There are a few *conditions of productive and fast reading*:

– making a plan of reading;

– familiarizing oneself with the general layout of the book, its plan, title, content, character of material presentation, its preface or introduction.

Textbooks, scientific books and articles demand meditation. While reading such works it is necessary to perceive the information meaningfully, by using a special *algorithm of reading*, i.e. a set of blocks to fill in mentally with information from the text. These blocks are as follows: 1) name of the article or book; 2) the author; 3) the problem to which the work is devoted; 4) its main idea; 5) facts proving this thought; 6) estimation of the read material. One is advised to think over the purpose of reading at the start as well as to look forward, imagine the continuation, or conclusion while reading.

Since the overall *objective is deep understanding* and mastering the material one should read each scientific book not once, but two consecutive times to remember the contents better. During the *first reading* it is not recommended to keep records but to indicate proper pages with colored paper. Meanwhile, it is only the *second time* that one reads, one might use a pencil. Separate pages may be reread, and extracts copied out. In case of a great volume of a book, it is advisable to read by chapters and sections. At first a chapter is read as a whole, and then the chapter's sections are read repeatedly, one after another one. This helps understand the material properly.

It is crucial to take notice of *foot-notes and references* given at the end of the book. Working with scientific, technical or educational literature demands the use of various dictionaries, manuals, encyclopedias which help understand the concepts of a certain science. One should also look attentively at the facts the authors may use to prove their ideas. If a book was written a long time ago, the given facts may turn outdated.

To see if you are a good reader in a foreign language you firstly need to *find out and evaluate the strategies* you may be using while reading. Strategies are mental operations involved when readers approach a text and get the information from it. A good reader is one who can extract information from the text efficiently by using appropriate strategies, and who knows how to overcome the barriers they might face while trying to make sense of a text.

For example, if one comes across new or unfamiliar words, one may try to (a) *guess the meanings of the words* by using the information available in a text or a picture and (b) *use the grammatical information about the words from the way they are used* and make a guess. (c) A good reader *uses different speeds depending on the purpose of reading*. For example, if you are reading a legal document, you need to read and understand every word in the text. In other words, you need 100% comprehension of the text before you sign the document. Hence speed is secondary. There are, however, many situations where you are interested in less than 100% comprehension and so you need not read the text in detail. In such situations you should be able to get the required information in the least possible time by skimming and scanning the text. (*Skimming* is reading a lot of material very quickly to get a general idea of what it is about. For example, when you want to know what a particular text is about before deciding whether to read it or not, you resort to skimming. But if you are interested in finding out the telephone number of a person from the telephone directory you scan the text. *Scanning* is going over a text quickly to locate a particular piece of information. In skimming, we can say we aim at 20–25% comprehension and in scanning it could be 10%). In order to be able to read faster, one should avoid doing the following things while reading a text:

– moving your head from left to right,
– moving your lips,
– pointing at the words with your finger or pencil, and
– reading aloud.

Experiments have undeniably proved that the faster one reads, the better one can remember the information. Therefore the speed of reading is a kind of catalyst of effective memorization. Mass experiments have shown that purposeful training (and self-training too) allows to raise the speed of reading by 3–15 times. So, to improve the skills of reading one needs to work hard and persistently.

B. The skills of independent searching for literature. The most general orientation in any subject matter is given by *bibliographic catalogues*. The most widespread kinds of catalogues are systematic, alphabetic and subject catalogues.

In the *systematic catalogue* bibliographic cards are placed according to branches, sections, subsections, etc. In the *alphabetical catalogue* cards are provided in the alphabetic order. The *subject catalogue* allows to find literature by using keywords which are given in the catalogue in the alphabetic order.

Work with catalogues demands a certain skill. Experience shows that if this skill is not formed in studentship, it may turn much more complicated to develop it later on.

C. Writing skills. One of the skills to master is to make precise *bibliographic records*. References should be written down quite accurately, according to certain rules. One should write down 1) the surname, 2) name, 3) patronymic of the author (in case of Russian names), 4) the full name of the book, 5) the year when it was written, 6) when and 7) where it was published. If it is a journal article, you should also include 8) the name of a journal, 9) number and 10) year of its publication. The references may be registered on separate cards and then the cards may be classified in a certain order.

It is necessary to note that in bibliographic records each sign (comma, colon, upper and lower case letters) are important. Developed accuracy in making bibliographic records allows the reader to describe a resource according to the rules automatically and rather quickly.

Making notes. It allows you to organize the new knowledge, to mobilize attention and concentrate on the main ideas of the book, to imprint them in your memory and prevent possible inaccuracies. Various notes may help to revise the material. The kinds of notes are various and are selected by the reader depending on the specific needs and habits. Here are the most typical kinds:

– One may keep *a diary* in which the basic contents of the books read are shortly registered. Or, instead also use a special notebook for writing down the author's ideas, or the thoughts of the reader that have arisen while reading. Depending on the purpose of reading, the notes can be laconic or more detailed.

– *Marginal notes* represent a system of underlinings and symbols. Both teachers and students may have systems of their own. The following marks are found in works of outstanding scholars and might be of use for students too:

X, !, !!, !!! – important, very important;

? – doubt, question;

$\sum$ – the sum, result;

→ repetition, contradiction;

NB – take notice.

– *A plan of the material read* represents a short or detailed list of points revealing the internal logic of the text. Simple and complex plans differ from each other in the degree of detail. A detailed plan is easy to make once the book has been properly comprehended and thought over. A plan allows calling to mind the read material quickly, but is insufficient for the exact extraction of facts.

– *Extracts* may be made in copy-books, on separate sheets of paper, or cards and represent a) retelling, or b) literal reproduction (citation) of the most important parts of the text of a book. It's vital that any extract, in particular the citation, should go together with a reference to the original source.

– *Theses* represent a short formulation of this or that theoretical position of a book and are particularly convenient when one needs to speak at a seminar upon the contents of some book.

– *A synopsis* is quite a detailed record of a source, lecture or book. It reveals a list of questions showing the interrelationship between ideas of a book, a gradual reproduction of the read material with extracts, citations, schemes, tables, and may keep one's own reflections on the margins. A synopsis should capture all the key questions of the studied reference, to make connection with the present problems of theory and practice, and to reflect the student's attitude to the material. It should not be too long. One should write a synopsis in two columns: one for the notes and the other – for extra ideas. Making a synopsis is one of the important means of facilitating memorization.

Mastering the mechanics of making good records needs special training.

Exercise 3. **Answer the questions:**

1. Why is self-education vital for prospective foreign language teachers?
2. What is self-education? What is special about this activity?
3. What are reading skills like? What is a skillful reader like?
4. What strategies of reading may one use to make it an effective process?
5. What do skills of independent searching for literature presuppose? When is the best time for them to be developed?

6. What do writing skills include? Give as many examples illustrating their variety as possible.

Exercise 4. **Be ready to explain the difference between the following:**

1. Skimming – scanning.
2. Foot-notes – references.
3. Systematic catalogue – alphabetical catalogue – subject catalogue.
4. Marginal notes – complex plan – extracts – theses – synopsis.

AFTER READING

Exercise 5. **Match the two columns to learn more about reading. Which of these quotations helps you understand the essence of reading best of all?**

1) Read not to contradict and confute; nor to believe and take for granted; nor to find talk and discourse;
2) Reading is equivalent to thinking
3) 'Tis the good reader that makes the good book; a good head cannot read amiss:
4) To read well, that is, to read true books in a true spirit, is a noble exercise, and one that will task the reader more than any other exercise which the customs of the day esteem.
5) Reading is to the mind
6) A great book should leave you with many experiences, and slightly exhausted at the end.
7) Readers are plentiful:
8) ...to be beneficial, our reading must
9) There are books so alive that you're always afraid that while you weren't reading, the book has gone and changed, has shifted like a river;

a) It requires a training such as the athletes underwent, the steady intention almost of the whole life to this object *(Henry David Thoreau).*
b) …but to weigh and consider. *(Francis Bacon).*
c) …with someone else's head instead of with one's own *(Arthur Schopenhauer).*
d) …while you went on living, it went on living too, and like a river moved on and moved away. No one has stepped twice into the same river. But did anyone ever step twice into the same book? *(Marina Tsvetaeva)*
e) You live several lives while reading it *(William Styron).*
f) …thinkers are rare *(Harriet Martineau).*
g) …be carefully directed *(Annaeus Lucius Seneca).*
h) …what exercise is to the body *(Richard Steele).*
j) …in every book he finds passages which seem confidences or asides hidden from all else and unmistakeably meant for his ear *(Ralph Waldo Emerson).*

Exercise 6. **Read the quotations that characterize writing and think what this activity is like.**

Original Quotation	How does it characterize writing?

1 e.g. What is written without effort is in general read without pleasure *(Samuel Johnson).*	= Writing is painstaking
2 All good writing is *swimming under water* and holding your breath *(F. Scott Fitzgerald).*	=
3 In all pointed sentences, some degree of accuracy must be sacrificed to conciseness *(Samuel Johnson).*	=
4 Only amateurs say that they write for their own amusement. Writing is not an amusing occupation. It is a combination of ditch-digging, mountain-climbing, treadmill and childbirth. Writing may be interesting, absorbing, exhilirating, racking, relieving. But amusing? Never! *(Edna Ferber)*	=
5 True ease in writing comes from art, not chance, As those move easiest who have learned to dance. 'Tis not enough no harshness gives offence, The sound must seem an echo to the sense *(Alexander Pope).*	=
6 Writing is like getting married. One should never commit oneself until one is amazed at one's luck *(Iris Murdoch).*	=
7 Writing is not like painting where you add. It is not what you put on the canvas that the reader sees. Writing is more like a sculpture where you remove, you eliminate in order to make the work visible. Even those pages you remove somehow remain *(Elie Wiesel).*	=

Exercise 7. **Do research on the topic:**

1. See Appendix A to learn more about the concept of self-education through quotations. Which of the quotations appeals to you most? Try to interpret it in your own words.

2. Analyze your skills in the field of self-education. Which skills may need improving, from your point of view? Write a short report summarizing your findings (20-30 sentences).

3. Learn more about rational reading strategies and methods. For this, see Appendix B. Have you ever used any of them? If yes, do you remember when and why? Do you find them effective? Are they crucial for one's self-education?

Exercise 8. **Do you know the meaning of the following Latin abbreviations used in scientific texts:**

1. Et al. (Lat. et alii) – and others.

2. Ib. or ibid. (Lat. Ibidem) – in the same place.
3. I.e. (Lat. id est) – that is.
4. Vs. – versus?

P A R T II

THE CONCEPT OF FOREIGN PEDAGOGICAL EXPERIENCE

> "Learn everything you can, anytime you can, from anyone you can – there will always come a time when you will be grateful you did."
>
> *Sarah Caldwell*

PRE-READING

Exercise 1. **Can you imagine what foreign pedagogical experience is? Is it the same as international pedagogical experience? Why is it vital to study foreign pedagogical experience? How can one learn more about it? What are the ways to analyze it?**

WHILE READING

Exercise 2. **Read the text that follows and prepare a mind-map on the topic in question.**

2.1 Foreign pedagogical experience

As is known, individuals, groups, communities, nations, societies, civilizations, and humanity in general, they all possess different experience. In other words, it may belong to subjects of various scale or volume.

Experience is characterized by specific space and time. It depends on the peculiarities of people's life in the natural environment; on their culture, history, society, and the language of communication. As a result, for example, we may observe the striking differences between the western and eastern cultures in general, and consequently, between the pedagogical experience, accumulated by the two big cultures in particular. To put it differently, pedagogical experience serves as a product of a particular national culture, and thus belongs to a particular pedagogical school with its own historically developed methodological and theoretical foundation. Thus, as is seen, space limitations allow differentiating the domestic experience from foreign pedagogical experience.

The pedagogical experience of different cultures possesses its own peculiarities. This experience includes some sets of content elements that are

"polished" by history and turned into stereotypes of pedagogical activity, for the sake of preserving and continuing the given cultures.

Since pedagogical experience is characterized by space limitations as well as by belonging to a particular culture, it results in its individual character. Just like a particular human being possesses his/her particular knowledge, skills, ways of communication, thinking and activity, stereotypes of behaviour, values, and aims, thus the pedagogical experience of this or that culture is also quite particular and individual, ruled by the environment in which progressive pedagogical experience works (including, for example, a set of social rules, traditions, habits, values of culture, norms of behaviour, pedagogical theories, etc.).

Many researchers have noted the individual nature of foreign pedagogical experience (among them – P. Blonskiy, P. Kapnist, P. Kapterev, N. Krupskaya, P. Mizhuev, L. Tolstoy, K. Ushinskiy, E. Yanzhul, etc.), while describing and critically analyzing examples of foreign pedagogical experience in the local educational setting. Among the foreign researchers who stressed the importance of the setting and the individual peculiarities of foreign pedagogical experience are I. Kandel, K. Ochs, M. Sadler, D. Philips, D. Halpin, etc.

In spite of space limitations, experience may take part in exchange between cultures, may renew its contents, and may serve as a subject of educational borrowing. As a result of cultures coming into contact with each other, the exchange, as well as enrichment, and convergence of participating cultures takes place. In such circumstances the pedagogical experience of one culture (e. g. culture A may be borrowed by culture B). This exchange and borrowing finally result in the renewal of the contacting cultures (A and B).

Thus, *belonging to a particular culture, its individual nature, and an ability to serve as a subject of borrowing*, make up the key characteristics of foreign pedagogical experience.

But what differentiates foreign and international pedagogical experience? As a matter of fact, foreign pedagogical experience represents a particular country, and is characterized by cultural and historical specificity of national development. Meanwhile, *international pedagogical experience* is not limited by the borders of a particular state, but involves a number of states (e. g. European, world experience, the experience of the western/eastern cultures).

Thus, *foreign pedagogical experience* may be defined as that kind of experience that appeared and developed in some other, different from the local, sociocultural environment; it is conditioned by the latter and reflects the socio-cultural experience of the country of its origins (its traditions,

stereotypes of activity, mentality, etc.) and characterizes the practice of teaching foreign languages that takes place in different forms and at different levels.

To imagine the essence of contents of foreign pedagogical experience, it may be useful to view it as various elements of a pedagogical system. Thus, historically, for example, there occurred different borrowings of foreign pedagogical experience in our setting. These were: 1) progressive ideas; 2) curricula, syllabi, contents of education; 3) methods of teaching; 4) systems of education; 5) samples of educational establishments and their organization, as well as regulations of educational establishments. Today they may borrow foreign pedagogical experience that takes the shape of progressive ideas, contents of education, methods, technologies and techniques of teaching, etc. Examples of foreign pedagogical experience being borrowed or studied in the local setting will be described further in the book.

One may distinguish between the following *functions* of foreign pedagogical experience:

- development of domestic pedagogical theory and practice;
- modernization and development of the system of education;
- enrichment of the pedagogical system both in theory and practice;
- ensuring of quality of the provided educational services;
- activating of the educational process.

2.2 Reasons for studying foreign pedagogical experience

One may distinguish a number of reasons for studying (as well as using) foreign pedagogical experience.

According to P. Blonskiy, foreign pedagogical experience of those nations which "surpass us culturally and pedagogically is a certain basis that may be leaned against in our creation of a new school" [3]. This basis may give us a certain impression about the systems of education in those countries, and will show the advantages and shortcomings which are instructive for the local teachers.

For P. Kapnist, studying foreign pedagogical experience presented an opportunity to use another country's experience for checking one's own observations in the domestic setting. He believed that "the study of a school issue abroad should rid us of the necessity to repeat the tests and experiments

that have already been conducted in other countries' schools and whose results became known a long time ago" [11].

In the view of T. Zotova, "familiarizing with positive and negative foreign experience makes up a condition of a deeper reflection over our own problems, of correcting mistakes, of taking optimal solutions, and of searching for ways of building our domestic system of education" [10].

According to S. Pujman, foreign pedagogical experience is one of the most important sources of reforming education [17]. History shows that foreign pedagogical experience was often considered while taking decisions to reform popular schooling. A. Shabalin, in his turn, considers the analysis of foreign experience as a major resource of modernizing education [24]. Currently the system of education of Belarus needs integrating into the world educational space, by focusing on the world level of education, by studying and accumulating the best achievements of foreign countries, and upon this modernizing the national system of education and upbringing.

N. Baranova pays attention to studying foreign pedagogical experience with the aim of improving the system of prospective teachers' professional training [2]. Studying and understanding foreign pedagogical experience may lead to enriching the professional outlook of a teacher; may provide his conscious orientation in the complicated pedagogical reality; may develop the theoretical pedagogical thinking; may form a higher level of readiness for introducing creative innovations in the academic process; may result in breaking the outdated professional stereotypes; may give an opportunity to avoid erroneous solutions and to define one's attitude to the tendencies in the development of modern education, to make a contribution into its modernization. H. Gipaeva associates mastering the experience of the best foreign pedagogical ideas, their integration in the domestic experience with improving the pedagogical mastery of a teacher [9].

N. Bordovskaya and A. Rean call foreign pedagogical experience a source of ideas for the renewal of a higher educational establishment [5].

For E. Yanzhul familiarity with foreign pedagogical experience served as "an impulse for independent work in solving issues of teaching and upbringing" [26]. Today V. Safonova also proves the need for a thorough analysis of foreign experience with the aim of defining its real didactic potential and, as a result, for preventing illusions about its advantage in comparison with the domestic experience [18].

Thus, studying foreign pedagogical experience serves as a certain impulse for the development of pedagogical thought; it also allows each and

every teacher to step upon the way of creativity and develop one's own pedagogical mastery.

Literature analysis shows that studying foreign pedagogical experience performs a number of functions. They may be roughly summarized as "educational", "motivational" and "developmental".

2.3 Forms of studying foreign pedagogical experience

In relation to foreign pedagogical experience, the following forms of studying it may be considered:

1. *Probation periods abroad.* The European educational setting provides a bright example of the point. As is known, a European teacher may seek employment in other countries and use exchange programmes offered by the European Union. Working in foreign countries develops teacher mobility and allows raise one's professional skill. Thus, a European teacher gets some knowledge of other European education systems; views his/her own education system in relation to other European ones; has an education which enables him/her to teach in any European country; exchanges curricular content and methodologies with colleagues from other European countries; learns from different teaching and learning traditions; uses examples of research from other countries, etc.

2. *In-service training.* Many teachers transform their professional lives by entering in-service training programmes, by studying for higher teaching qualifications, or by getting a place on a postgraduate course such as an MA (Master of Arts) in Applied Linguistics or TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages). Such training not only offers chances for promotion, but also adds to our knowledge of issues which a heavy teaching timetable often makes it difficult to consider.

3. *Attending conferences, meetings, and workshops.* It allows us to hear about the latest developments in the field, to take part in investigative workshops, and enter into debates about current issues in theory and practice. We can "network" with other members of the TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) community, and best of all we learn that other people from different places, different countries and systems even, share similar problems and are themselves searching for solutions.

Submitting a paper for a workshop or a teachers' association meeting, whether regional, national, or international, is one of the most powerful

catalysts for reflecting upon a practice. When we try and work out exactly what we want to say we are forcing ourselves to assess what we do. The challenge of a future audience sharpens our perceptions.

4. *Peer Observation.* In our teaching lives we are frequently observed by others. It starts on teacher training courses and goes on when academic coordinators, directors of study, or inspectors come into our class as part of some quality control exercise. Peer observation involves colleagues – who are equal – watching so that both may be helped in their understanding and practice. As teachers, most of us are understandably nervous about having other people observing our lessons. However, when we work with peers, this nervousness is dissipated, and the result of our collaboration helps each participant develop as teachers and as people.

5. *The Virtual Community.* There are now a large number of channels on the Internet by which teachers can "talk" to each other, exchanging ideas and opinions, and asking for help. Some of these, like TESL-L are extremely large, with daily postings of anywhere between fifteen and thirty submissions. Some of them, on various more or less formal sites, are smaller. Many language departments, institutes, and schools operate their own teacher-talk sites for people to visit and exchange information.

Teachers who work on their own or feel isolated can enter into interesting discussions on these sites. In particular, they can post questions (asking for information about books, places, techniques, etc.) which someone will probably be able to answer.

Communication via the Internet will, hopefully, never replace face-to-face encounters; it cannot really emulate cooperative and/or collaborative development or peer teaching, for example. But in subscribing to some teachers' mailing lists, we can keep ourselves in touch with a larger teacher community, so that the information we find there, and the "discussions" we enter into, can all feed into our continuing development.

6. *Reading authentic scientific and popular-scientific publicistic editions and monographs of foreign authors.* Foreign pedagogical experience (scientific results) is described with the help of language means and is fixed up in writing in the form of scientific texts. It's common knowledge that a text is a material form of transmitting experience, one of the ways of fixation and transferring the content of scientific results to other people, one of the most available forms of transmitting experience.

Primary scientific texts carry scientific information. Their function is communicative. The communicative intention and the addressee define their

shape. In the list of such texts one may find monographs, auto-abstracts, dissertations, scientific articles, etc.

Reading and analyzing scientific texts through developed information technologies allows to accustom to the experience of other people, creates opportunities for further development of the inner world, for widening one's professional outlook, for raising the professional skill, and for acquiring competence.

There is much to be learnt from various methodology books, journals, and magazines produced for teachers of English. Books and articles written by teachers and theorists will often open our eyes to new possibilities. There are a number of different journals which cater for different tastes; whereas some report on academic research, others prefer to describe classroom activities in detail, often with personal comment from the writer. Some journals impose a formal style on their contributors, whereas others allow for a variety of approaches, including letters and short reports. Some journals are now published exclusively on the Internet, while others have Internet archives of past articles.

2.4 Ways of analyzing foreign pedagogical experience

According to F. Teregulov, there are three approaches to studying, generalizing and disseminating experience: 1) negative analysis (search for the shortcomings of experience, substantiation of uselessness or harmfulness of this experience's dissemination); 2) idealizing experience (familiarization, positive emotional perception and in some cases mechanical copying); 3) providing the authors of the experience with opportunities of disseminating it by familiarizing the pedagogical community with it [21].

According to Table 2, the analysis and borrowing of foreign pedagogical experience may be done on the basis of either of the two approaches. With *the discrete/component approach* elements of a pedagogical system serve as objects of studying, analyzing, describing, and borrowing; with *the system approach* these are integral pedagogical systems.

T a b l e 2 – Approaches used to analyze and borrow foreign pedagogical experience

Approach	Examples
Discrete/component (*elements of a*	Particular methods, technologies,

pedagogical system as objects of analysis and borrowing)	techniques, ideas, aims
System (*an integral pedagogical system* as an object of analysis and borrowing)	Pedagogical systems which possess a philosophical substantiation, theoretical conceptions, established practices

The level approach. Depending on the scale of its realization, foreign pedagogical experience may serve as an object of analysis and borrowing at the following levels:

– a system of education in general,
– an establishment of higher education,
– a teacher.

The higher the level the more complicated becomes the analysis and the further borrowing. In practice, namely the level of the teacher is more frequently realized.

The dialectical approach. As is known, any experience is two-sided, it is implemented materially (through objects of culture) and ideally (through language and values). As a result, it is possible to conclude that the analysis of foreign pedagogical experience should also be concerned with its material and ideal components.

The *material* component may refer to practical techniques, forms, means of teaching, etc. Meanwhile the *ideal* component will incorporate particular ideas underlying the named elements of foreign pedagogical experience. Thus, while analyzing foreign pedagogical experience, it is advisable to view it as a system, dialectically, for the two components of foreign pedagogical experience carry equal meaning.

Foreign pedagogical experience may also be analyzed as a dialectical unity of the *traditional and innovative components*. The traditional component may refer to the historical pedagogical experience (collective experience of pedagogical activity, samples of pedagogical activity approved a long time ago and that had undergone selection, stayed stable and collectively reproducible, – values, ideas, or samples). Still due to modern means of communication, pedagogical innovations may also be borrowed. If they get accepted and supported by many people as well as used successfully, then foreign educational innovations may turn into a tradition. When analyzing foreign pedagogical experience and identifying it in terms of either traditional or innovative, it's crucial to consider that historically the level of countries' development is not the same. That is, "some (foreign pedagogical) experience is good for us, while another may be outdated, and still another is not yet good for us in terms of time".

Exercise 3. **Answer the questions:**

1. What is foreign pedagogical experience? What are its characteristics? What functions does it perform?
2. What is international pedagogical experience? What examples of such experience do you know?
3. Why is it necessary to study foreign as well as international pedagogical experience? What functions does studying it perform?
4. What are the forms of studying foreign pedagogical experience? Think of rating them from the easiest and the most available to the most complicated to put into practice, in your view.
5. What ways of analyzing foreign pedagogical experience do you know? Think of an example of foreign pedagogical experience and try to make its analysis according to the proposed approaches: system or discrete/component; level; dialectical approach.

Exercise 4. **Recollect what unites the following:**

1. Belonging to a particular culture, individual nature, ability to serve as a subject of borrowing – … .
2. Progressive ideas, curricula, syllabi, contents of education, methods of teaching, systems of education, samples of educational establishments and their organization, regulations of educational establishments – … .
3. Development of domestic pedagogical theory and practice; modernization and development of the system of education; enrichment of pedagogical system in theory and practice; ensuring of quality of provided educational services; activating of the educational process – … .
4. "Educational", "motivational", "developmental" – … .
5. Probation periods abroad; in-service training; attending conferences, meetings, and workshops; peer observation; the virtual community; reading authentic scientific and popular-scientific publicistic editions and monographs of foreign authors – … .
6. Monographs, auto-abstracts, dissertations, scientific articles – … .
7. The discrete/component; system; level; dialectical – … .

AFTER READING

Exercise 5. **Do research on the topic:**

1. Recall the history of Belarusian education and pedagogy. Can you give any examples of foreign pedagogical experience that was borrowed and applied in the local Belarusian setting? What countries did it come from? Was it successfully integrated into the domestic educational system?

2. Learn more about foreign pedagogical experience of today that has been borrowed and become an educational innovation in the Belarusian setting. Get ready to report on your findings in the classroom.

3. Have you used any of the forms of studying foreign pedagogical experience? Write a short report summarizing your experiences (20-30 sentences).

Exercise 6. **Did you know that…**

Some of the more useful journals for teachers of foreign languages in English are:

– *The Internet TESL Journal* – a web journal for teachers of English as a second language. It includes lesson plans, classroom handouts, links of interest to ESL teachers and students, articles, research papers, etc. (http://www.aitech.ac.jp/%7Eiteslj/links/);

– *English Teaching Forum online*, a quarterly journal published by the U.S. Department of State for teachers of English as a foreign or second language. Over 82,000 copies of the magazine are distributed in more than 125 countries (http://exchanges.state.gov/englishteaching/forum-journal.html).

P A R T III

EUROPEAN COOPERATION IN DISSEMINATING PEDAGOGICAL EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING/LEARNING LANGUAGES

"The wisest mind has something yet to learn."

George Santayana

PRE-READING

Exercise 1. **Do you know any international organizations which are involved in studying and disseminating pedagogical experience in teaching/learning languages? Do you happen to know such documents as "The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages"? "The European Language Portfolio"? Why were they created? How are they used?**

WHILE READING

Exercise 2. **Read the text that follows and prepare a mind-map on the topic in question.**

3.1 The European Union

The European Union (EU) is an organization which is committed to political and economic integration among its Member States. Still its activities are also concerned with the development of quality education (this is achieved through promoting citizens' mobility, designing joint study programmes, establishing networks, exchanging information, and a commitment to lifelong learning).

A basic building block behind these activities is languages. As Europe is a continent of many languages, the European Union's motto is *"Unity in diversity"*. Thus the EU actively promotes the freedom of its citizens to speak and write their own language. It also aims for a situation in which every EU citizen can speak at least two foreign languages in addition to their mother tongue. It is believed that multilingual citizens are better equipped to take advantage of the educational opportunities created by an integrated Europe. A knowledge of languages has also become a key factor of employability and mobility for citizens and a factor of success for business.

The European Commission has integrated its various educational and training initiatives under a single umbrella, *the Lifelong Learning Programme*. This programme offers a wide range of actions designed to support language learning and linguistic diversity (under the Comenius, Erasmus, Grundtvig and Leonardo Programmes).

The EU provides specific support for languages in the following sectors:

– early language teaching (introducing foreign languages at a young age can result in faster language learning, improved mother tongue literary skills, and better performance in other areas);

– school education (such as joint projects of classes in different countries (under Comenius). There is also EU financial support available for teacher mobility);

– vocational education (under Leonardo the EU supports methods and materials for language learning, and methods of validating language skills in the vocational sector);

– higher education (the Erasmus programme includes intensive language preparatory courses for students wishing to study abroad);

– adult education (through Grundtvig, the European Commission helps adults improve their competences, including language skills, so that they can adapt to changes in the labour market and society).

The EU Comenius programme deals with school education up to upper-secondary level. It is named after the 17th century Czech teacher, educator, and writer John Amos Comenius (1592–1670) who believed that schools should broaden horizons and be outward-looking. In this spirit, the programme helps schools to develop partnerships and exchange experiences. The Comenius programme provides grants to enable teachers, especially language teachers, to work in other countries. Comenius also aims to improve and increase the mobility of pupils across the EU and encourage language learning. It aims to enhance the quality of teacher training; improve pedagogical approaches and school management; encourage innovative ICT-based content, services and better teaching techniques and practices; develop an understanding of the diversity and value of European culture.

The EU Leonardo da Vinci programme deals with the teaching and learning needs of all those in vocational education. The programme aims to adapt vocational training so that it can respond to changing demands for skills in the labour market. The programme supports the cross-border mobility of workers through linguistic and cultural preparation projects in the vocational

sector. Its activities also include co-operation projects to transfer or develop innovative practices, and networks focusing on topical themes in the sector.

Erasmus is the European Union's "mobility" programme in education and training. It was established in 1987 and since then has enabled more than 2 million students from across Europe to pursue learning experiences in other countries. The programme is named after the philosopher, theologian and humanist Erasmus of Rotterdam (1465–1536), known as an opponent of dogmatism. Erasmus lived and worked in several parts of Europe, in quest of the knowledge, experience and insights which only such contacts with other countries could bring. By leaving his fortune to the University of Basel, he became a precursor of mobility grants. The acronym ERASMUS may also be read as EuROpean Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students. Erasmus exchanges are now a popular and established part of higher education across Europe. The Erasmus Intensive Language Courses (EILC) are specialised courses in the less widely used and less taught languages organised in the countries where these languages are used as teaching languages at higher education institutions. The languages English, German, French and Spanish (Castilian) are not eligible for EILC. The EILC give ERASMUS students visiting these countries for studies and placements the opportunity to study the language concerned for two to six weeks with the aim of being prepared for the ERASMUS mobility period abroad.

The EU Grundtvig programme has a broad scope, covering all levels and sectors of adult learning (general, cultural and social) as well as learning on a less formal basis, such as autonomous learning. The programme is named after Nikolai Frederik Severin Grundtvig (1783–1872), a Danish clergyman and writer, who is considered the father of popular and adult education. He advocated "life enlightenment" that each individual regardless of age or background should have the opportunity to learn throughout life. Grundtvig helps adult learners and trainers gain learning experience in other countries, by giving assistance to projects with a strong potential for exchange of good practice and experience. Grundtvig also supports multilateral projects and networks that take an innovative approach to adult education. An important aspect of this is the need to respond to Europe's aging population, and developing new ways of helping adults improve their skills.

3.2 The Council of Europe

Founded in 1949, the Council of Europe is the oldest and geographically the largest of the European organisations. Its main domains of competence are human rights, legal affairs, social cohesion and education, culture and heritage, youth and sport. In the area of language education the Council of Europe has been active since the 1960s. Its activities in this field aim at:

– promoting plurilingualism and pluriculturalism among citizens;

– combating intolerance and xenophobia by improving communication and mutual understanding between individuals;

– protecting and developing the linguistic heritage and cultural diversity of Europe as a source of mutual enrichment;

– facilitating personal mobility and the exchange of ideas;

– developing a harmonious approach to language teaching based on common principles.

The Council of Europe's activities to promote linguistic diversity and language learning in the field of education are carried out within the framework of article 2 of *the European Cultural Convention*, which commits the states party to the Convention to promote the reciprocal teaching and learning of their languages.

The Council of Europe's work on language education is coordinated by two complementary bodies, the European Centre for Modern Languages in Graz and the Language Policy Division in Strasbourg.

In April 1994 eight countries – Austria, France, Greece, Liechtenstein, Malta, the Netherlands, Slovenia and Switzerland – founded *the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML)* [46]. The ECML was originally established on a trial basis until December 1997. But in July 1998 after an external positive evaluation of the ECML's performance during the trial period the Committee of Ministers decided to make the Centre a permanent institution. Today the ECML has 34 member states but non-member states of the Council can also join the Centre.

The European Centre for Modern Languages is a unique institution whose mission is to encourage excellence and innovation in language teaching and to help Europeans learn languages more efficiently. The ECML's strategic objectives are to help its member states implement effective language teaching policies by:

– focusing on the practice of the learning and teaching of languages;

– promoting dialogue and exchange among those active in the field;

– training multipliers;

– supporting programme-related networks and research projects.

In order to implement its strategic objectives, the European Centre for Modern Languages, organises a programme of international projects on language education.

Since 1957 intergovernmental co-operation programmes have also been carried out by *the Language Policy Division (LPD)* (formerly the Modern Languages Section) in Strasbourg [47].

The LPD promotes:

– plurilingualism (all are entitled to develop a degree of communicative ability in a number of languages over their lifetime in accordance with their needs);

– linguistic diversity (Europe is multilingual and all its languages are equally valuable modes of communication and expressions of identity);

– mutual understanding (the opportunity to learn other languages is an essential condition for intercultural communication and acceptance of cultural differences);

– democratic citizenship (participation in democratic and social processes in multilingual societies is facilitated by the plurilingual competence of individuals);

– social cohesion (equality of opportunity for personal development, education, employment, mobility, access to information and cultural enrichment depends on access to language learning throughout life).

The Division is particularly well known for its work in developing tools and standards to help member states elaborate transparent and coherent language policies. These instruments, which are disseminated and used not only throughout Europe but all over the world, have become a vital contribution to the establishment of a European education area for modern languages.

The Division's programmes cover all languages – mother tongue/first language/language(s) of education as well as foreign, second or minority languages – and address the needs of all of the 48 states that have ratified the European Cultural Convention.

The Division also provides a forum for debate on policy development.

The role and activities of the ECML are complementary to those of the LPD.

3.3 The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) was developed by a Council of Europe international working party with a view to promoting transparency and coherence in language learning and teaching

in Europe. It was officially published in 2001. In addition to the two official Council of Europe versions in English and French, the document is now available in 34 languages.

The Framework is intended to overcome the barriers to communication among professionals working in the field of modern languages arising from the different educational systems in Europe.

It offers the means for educational administrators, course designers, teachers, teacher trainers, examining bodies, etc., to reflect on their current practice, with a view to situating and co-ordinating their efforts and to ensuring that they meet the real needs of the learners.

It also provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe.

The Framework presents objective criteria for describing language proficiency. They may facilitate the mutual recognition of qualifications gained in different learning contexts.

The document consists of two parts:

– *The Descriptive Scheme* is a tool for reflecting on what is involved not only in language use, but also in language learning and teaching. Parameters in the descriptive scheme include: skills, competences, strategies, activities, domains and conditions and constraints that determine language use;

– *The Common Reference Level* system consist of scales of illustrative descriptors that provide global and detailed specifications of language proficiency levels for the different parameters of the descriptive scheme. The core of the Common Reference Level scales is a compendium of "can-do" descriptors of language proficiency outcomes.

The Descriptive Scheme of the CEFR. The CEFR adopts an action-oriented approach towards language use, embracing language learning. The descriptive scheme focuses on the actions performed by persons who develop a range of general and communicative language competences.

General competences of a language user/learner comprise four sub-categories:

– *declarative knowledge* resulting from experience (i.e. empirical knowledge) or formal learning (i. e. academic knowledge);

– *skills and know-how*, implying the ability to carry out tasks and apply procedures;

– *existential competence* comprising individual characteristics, personality traits and attitudes towards oneself and others engaged in social interaction;

– *ability to learn* is the ability to engage in new experiences and to integrate new knowledge into existing knowledge.

Communicative language competences of a user/learner involve knowledge, skills and know-how for each of the following three components:

– *linguistic competence* deals with formal characteristics of a language such as phonology, morphology, lexicon and syntax;

– *sociolinguistic competence* concerns the socio-cultural conditions of language use such as e.g. politeness rules or social group repertoires;

– *pragmatic competence* covers the functional use of language, for example the use in specific scenarios of how to act in a given social event or how to participate in a job interview.

On the basis of general and communicative language competences the language user/learner applies skills and strategies that are suitable to perform tasks in the following oral/written language activities:

– *reception;*
– *production;*
– *interaction;*
– *mediation* (i.e. summarising, paraphrasing, interpreting or translating).

The contextualization of these language activities in specific domains implies activating language processes of producing and receiving spoken/written discourse (texts). The language activities happen within domains of language use such as:

– *public domain;*
– *personal domain;*
– *educational domain;*
– *occupational domain.*

In performing language activities the language user/learner needs to activate those strategies that seem most appropriate for carrying out the tasks to be accomplished in the pertinent domain. Ultimately the (self-)monitoring of the process of language use and language learning results in the reinforcement or modifications of competences.

Common Reference Levels of language proficiency. With a view to enhancing the usability of the CEFR a simple and global division is made with three main user levels:

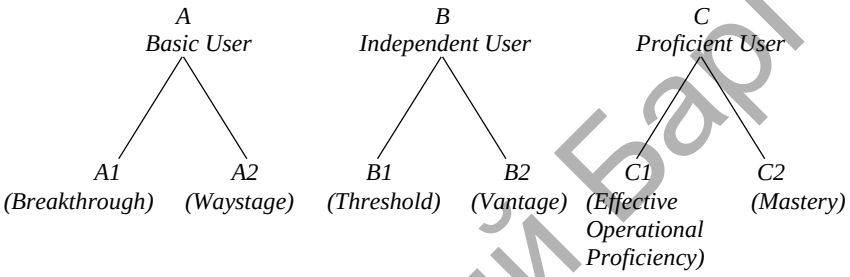
– *the basic user* has the most elementary expressions; in communication is dependent of the willingness on the interlocutor to adapt to the attained level – interlocutors assistance is necessary;

– *the independent user* can handle the daily language practice, is mostly able to interact without too much effort and generally is able to follow a

normal speech tempo – some consideration needs to be given to the fact that it is not his/her native tongue;

– *the proficient user* has hardly any or no difficulty in the use of the target language – no consideration needs to be given to the fact that it is not his/her native tongue.

A "hypertext" branching approach (see below) is proposed to define finer levels and categories to suit local needs while still relating back to a common system:



The six ascending proficiency levels are specified in terms of "can-do" statements.

The following is an example of the global specification for the levels B1 and B2 (Independent User):

B2	Can understand the main ideas of a complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce a clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics, which are familiar, or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.

The Common Reference Levels are specified further through "can-do" descriptors for understanding, speaking and writing, that is, for each of the following six language activities in the descriptive scheme:

– Listening;

– Reading;
– Spoken Interaction;
– Written Interaction;
– Spoken Production;
– Written Production.

Relating these six language activities to the six proficiency levels results in a self-assessment grid with general descriptors of learning outcomes. For example, the general descriptor for listening comprehension on *Breakthrough Level* (or level A1) is formulated as follows:

I can recognize familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family, and my immediate concrete surroundings, when people speak slowly and clearly.

Below is an example of the general descriptor used for reading comprehension on *Mastery Level* (or level C2):

I can read with ease virtually all forms of the written language, including abstract, structurally or linguistically complex texts such as manuals, specialised articles, and literary works.

The global scales of the Common Reference Levels are exemplified in detail by a set of 54 specific descriptors that provide detailed information and insight. Some examples of specific descriptors for listening comprehension skill of the basic language user/learner (*Breakthrough* or level A1) are the following:

I can understand simple directions for how to get from X to Y, on foot or by public transport.
I can understand numbers, prices, and times.

The CEFR has been developed as a common reference tool across languages; it is non-language specific, i.e. it does not refer to a specific language but describes what one *can do* in a foreign or second language. The Common Reference Levels are described for individual languages in linguistic detail in separate documents, referred to as "*Reference level descriptions for national or regional languages*" (such as *Profile Deutsch* or *B2 pour le français*, etc.). The Common Reference Levels are also illustrated for a number of languages on DVDs and CD-ROMs.

Thus, the Common European Framework describes in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively. The description also covers the cultural context in

which language is set. The Framework also defines levels of proficiency which allow learners' progress to be measured at each stage of learning and on a life-long basis.

Where can CEFR be used?

The scales of illustrative descriptors can be used in the support of self-directed language learning (e.g., raising self-awareness of own language skills and strategic actions to be taken by the learner).

The CEFR can be used in the planning of examination content and the specification of assessment criteria in order to facilitate co-operation between educational institutions in Europe and to provide a basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications.

It is also used in policy making as a means of ensuring coherence and transparency through the different sectors or stages in language education. The Framework has stimulated curriculum and examination reforms in different educational sectors of many European countries [40; 48].

3.4 The European Language Portfolio

The European Language Portfolio (ELP):

– is a tool to promote plurilingualism and pluriculturalism;

– is the property of the learner;

– builds on the full range of the learner's language and intercultural competence and experience regardless of whether acquired within or outside formal education;

– is a tool to promote learner autonomy;

– has both a pedagogic function of guiding and supporting the learner in the process of language learning and a reporting function in recording language proficiency;

– is based on the Common European Framework of Reference with explicit reference to the common standards of proficiency;

– encourages learner self-assessment (which is usually combined with teacher assessment) and assessment by educational authorities and examination bodies;

– incorporates a minimum of common features which make it recognisable and comprehensible across Europe;

– may be one of a series of ELP models that the individual learner will possess in the course of life-long learning. ELP models can cater for the

needs of learners according to age, learning purpose and context and background.

ELP falls into three parts so that the learners have the possibility to use each of these according to their particular needs in their different learning contexts:

The Passport section provides an overview of the individual's proficiency in different languages at a given point in time; the overview is defined in terms of skills and the common reference levels in the Common European Framework; it records formal qualifications and describes language abilities and significant language and intercultural learning experiences; it includes information on partial and specific competence; it allows for self-assessment, teacher assessment and assessment by educational institutions and examinations boards; it requires that information entered in the Passport states on what basis, when and by whom the assessment was carried out.

The Language Biography encourages the learner to state what she or he can do in each language and to include information on linguistic and cultural experiences gained in and outside formal educational contexts. It facilitates the learner's involvement in planning, reflecting upon and assessing his or her learning process and progress. It is organised to promote plurilingualism, that is the development of proficiency in a number of languages.

The Dossier offers the learner the opportunity to select materials to document and illustrate achievements or experiences recorded in the Language Biography or Passport [8; 13].

Exercise 3. **Answer the questions:**

1. Does the EU support language learning in various sectors?
2. What educational programmes of the EU are related to language learning?
3. What are the goals of the Council of Europe in the field of language education?
4. What bodies of the Council of Europe are involved in language education?
5. What are the objectives that the ECML and LPD are striving to achieve?
6. What goals underlie the creation of the document known as the CEFR?
7. What competences does a language learner develop according to the CEFR?

8. What user and proficiency levels does the CEFR distinguish?
9. In what fields can the CEFR be helpful?
10. What is the ELP? What does it promote?
11. What parts does the ELP include? What is special about each of them?

Exercise 4. **Recollect what unites the following:**

1. Comenius, Leonardo da Vinci, Grundtvig, Erasmus – … .
2. The Descriptive Scheme, the Common Reference Level system – … .
3. Declarative knowledge, skills and know-how, existential competence, ability to learn – … .
4. Linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, pragmatic competence – … .
5. Public domain, personal domain, educational domain, occupational domain – … .
6. The basic user , the independent user , the proficient user – … .
7. Breakthrough, Waystage, Threshold, Vantage, Effective Operational Proficiency, Mastery – … .
8. A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2 – … .
9. Listening, reading, spoken interaction, written interaction, spoken production, written production – … .
10. The Passport, the Language Biography, the Dossier – … .

AFTER READING

Exercise 5. **Do research on the topic:**

1. Learn more about such distinguished scholars as John Amos Comenius, Erasmus of Rotterdam, Leonardo da Vinci, and Nikolai Frederik Severin Grundtvig. What made them outstanding?
2. Find out more about the European language teaching experience and Belarus. For this you may study the following references: Замежныя мовы ў Рэспубліцы Беларусь. – № 3. – 2003. – С.3–9; Вестник МГЛУ. Сер. 2. – № 3. – 2001. – С. 112–118; Адукатар. – № 1(17). – 2010. – С. 15–20.

Exercise 6. **Did you know that…**

1. The year 2001 became the European Year of Languages. The European Year of Languages 2001 was organised by the European Union and the Council of Europe. Forty-five European countries participated. The main messages of the European Year of Languages were: Europe is multilingual and always will be; Learning languages brings people opportunities; Everyone can do it. The year 2008 was declared the European Year of Intercultural Dialogue.

2. September, 26 is the European day of languages when they celebrate Europe's rich linguistic heritage – the EU's 23 official languages, the 60 or so regional/minority languages, and the languages spoken by people who've come to Europe from other parts of the world. The first European day of languages was held in 2001. Organised jointly by the EU and the Council of Europe, the European day of languages aims to raise public awareness of the languages used in Europe, to promote cultural and linguistic diversity and to encourage people – schoolchildren and adults – to learn languages. Every year throughout Europe, events are organised to celebrate languages: shows, kids' activities, music games, language courses, radio and TV programmes, conferences, etc.

P A R T IV

THEORIES AFFECTING THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES TODAY

"I cannot teach anybody anything, I can only make them think."

Socrates

PRE-READING

Exercise 1. **Have you studied any modern theories that affect the teaching of foreign languages? What are they?**

WHILE READING

Exercise 2. **Read the text that follows and prepare a mind-map on the topic in question.**

4.1 Carl Rogers's Theory of Humanistic Psychology

Carl Rogers is not traditionally thought of as a "learning" psychologist, yet he and his colleagues and followers have had a significant impact on our present understanding of learning in an educational or pedagogical context. Rogers's humanistic psychology has more of an affective focus than a cognitive one.

Rogers devoted most of his professional life to clinical work in an attempt to be of therapeutic help to individuals. In his classic work "Client-Centered Therapy" (1951), Rogers carefully analyzed human behaviour in general, including the learning process, by means of the presentation of 19 formal principles of human behaviour. Roger studied the "whole person" as a physical and cognitive, but primarily emotional, being.

Carl Rogers

Rogers felt that inherent in the principles of behaviour is the ability of human beings to adapt and to grow in the direction that enhances their existence. Given a *nonthreatening environment*, a person will form a picture of reality that is indeed

congruent with reality and will grow and learn. “Fully functioning persons”, according to Rogers, live at peace with all of their feelings and reactions; they are able to reach their full potential. Rogers’s position has important implications for education. *The focus is away from “teaching” and toward “learning”*. Rogers suggested that learners needed to feel that what they were *learning was personally relevant to them*, that they had to experience learning (rather than just being “taught”). *Learning how to learn is more important* than being taught something from the “superior” point of a teacher who unilaterally decides what shall be taught. Many of our present systems of education, in prescribing curricular goals and dictating what shall be learned, deny persons both freedom and dignity.

What is needed, according to Rogers, is for *teachers to become facilitators of learning* through the establishment of impersonal relationships with learners. To be facilitators teachers must be real and genuine, discarding masks of superiority and omniscience.

Second, teachers need to *have genuine trust, acceptance, and a prizing of the other person – the student – as a worthy, valuable individual*. Education should speak to the “*whole person”*, in other words, not just to a small language-learning facility. In a humanist classroom, students are *emotionally involved* in the learning; they are *encouraged to reflect* on how learning happens, and their creativity is fostered. The teacher can achieve this by *keeping criticism to a minimum* and by encouraging them to *feel good about themselves*.

And third, teachers need to *communicate openly and empathetically* with their students, and vice versa. Teachers with these characteristics will not only understand themselves better but will also be effective teachers, who, having set the optimal stage and context for learning, will succeed in the goals of education.

Thus, Carl Rogers stressed the importance of *learner-centered classrooms* where the teacher and learners negotiate learning outcomes, engage in discovery learning, and relate the course content to students’ reality outside the classroom. Rogers is not as concerned about the actual cognitive process of learning. He feels, *if the context for learning is properly created, then human beings will, in fact, learn everything they need to.*

The work of Rogers (1983) and other educators of a similar frame of mind has *contributed significantly* in recent years to a redefinition of the educational process. In adapting Rogers’ ideas to language teaching and learning, we need to see to it that learners understand themselves and communicate this self to others freely and nondefensively. Teachers as facilitators must therefore provide the

nurturing context for learners to construct their meanings in interaction with others. Classroom activities and materials in language learning should therefore utilize meaningful contexts of genuine communication with students engaged together in the process of becoming "persons".

This area of theorizing has given rise to a specific set of teaching methods and has been called the humanist approach. Theorists who are concerned with humanism say that *the learner's feelings* are as important as their mental or cognitive abilities. If students feel hostile towards the subject of study, the materials, or the teaching methods, they will be unlikely to achieve much success. In language teaching, according to R. Ellis, this approach *emphasizes tasks involving the development of human values and sensitivity to the feelings and emotions of others* [33; 42].

Exercise 3. **Has the Theory of humanistic psychology changed the modern language classroom in your view? How? Give as many examples as you can.**

4.2 The Natural Approach by Stephen Krashen

One of the most controversial theoretical perspectives in Second Language Acquisition in the last quarter of the twentieth century was proposed by Stephen Krashen, an applied linguist of the University of South California and Tracy Terrel, a teacher of Spanish in California, in a host of articles and books (1977, 1981, 1982, 1985, 1992, 1997). They attempted to develop a language teaching proposal that incorporated the "naturalistic principles" of second language acquisition. Krashen and Terrel's combined statement of the principles and practices of the Natural Approach appeared in their book "The Natural Approach", published in 1983.

Stephen Krashen

Krashen and Terrel see communication as the primary function of language, and since their approach focuses on teaching communicative abilities, they refer to the Natural Approach as *an example of a communicative approach*. According to the researchers, it is based on an empirically grounded theory of second language acquisition (based on Krashen's views of language acquisition).

Krashen's hypotheses have had a number of different names. In recent years the "Input Hypothesis" has come to identify what is really a set of interrelated hypotheses.

1. ***Acquisition-Learning (Acquisition/Learning) Hypothesis.*** This hypothesis claims that there are two distinct ways of developing competence in a second or foreign language. *Acquisition* is the "natural" way. It (acquisition) *refers to an unconscious intuitive process of constructing the system of a language*, not unlike the process used by a child to "pick up" a language. It is a process that involves the naturalistic development of language proficiency through understanding language and through using language for meaningful communication. *Learning, by contrast, refers to a conscious "learning" process* in which learners attend to form, figure out rules, and are generally aware of their own process. It results in explicit knowledge about the forms of a language and the ability to verbalize this knowledge. Formal teaching is necessary for "learning" to occur, and correction of errors helps with the development of learned rules. According to Krashen, "*fluency in second language performance is due to what we have acquired, not what we have learned*". Adults should, therefore, do as much acquiring as possible in order to achieve communicative fluency; otherwise, they will get bogged down in rule learning and too much conscious attention to the forms of language and to watching their own progress. Moreover, for Krashen, our conscious learning processes and our subconscious acquisition processes are *mutually exclusive*: learning cannot "become" acquisition. Thus *large doses of acquisition activity in the classroom, with only a very minor role assigned to learning, are recommended.*

2. ***The Monitor Hypothesis***. The "monitor" is involved in learning, not in acquisition. It is a device for "watchdogging" one's output, for editing and making alterations or corrections as they are consciously perceived. The Monitor Hypothesis claims that *we may call upon learned knowledge to correct ourselves when we communicate*. There must be sufficient time for a learner to choose and apply a learned rule. The language user must be focused on correctness or on the form of the output. The performer must know the rules. According to Krashen, such explicit and intentional learning ought to be largely avoided, as it is presumed to hinder acquisition. *Only once fluency is established, should an optimal amount of monitoring, or editing, be employed by the learner.*

3. ***The Natural Order Hypothesis.*** Krashen has claimed that *we acquire language rules in a predictable or "natural" order.* Research is said to have

shown that certain grammatical structures or morphemes are acquired before others in first language acquisition of English, and a similar natural order is found in second language acquisition.

4. ***The Input Hypothesis.*** According to Krashen, comprehensible input (refers to utterances that the learner understands based on the context in which they are used as well as the language in which they are phrased) is "the only cause of second language acquisition".

The Input Hypothesis claims that an important "condition for language acquisition to occur is that the acquirer *understands (via hearing or reading) input language that contains structure "a bit beyond" his or her current level of competence*… If an acquirer is at stage or level *i*, the input he or she understands should contain *i* + 1". In other words, the language that learners are exposed to should be just far enough beyond their current competence that they can understand most of it but still be challenged to make progress. The input should neither be so far beyond their reach that they are overwhelmed (this might be, say, *i* + 2), nor so close to their current stage that they are not challenged at all (*i* + 0).

An important part of the Input Hypothesis is Krashen's recommendation that speaking not be taught directly or very early in the language classroom. *Speech will "emerge" once the acquirer has built up enough comprehensible input* (*i* + 1), after the acquirer has built up linguistic competence by understanding input.

5. ***The Affective Filter Hypothesis.*** The Affective Filter Hypothesis states that acquirers with a low affective filter seek and receive more input, interact with confidence, and are more receptive to the input they receive. Anxious acquirers have a high affective filter, which prevents acquisition from taking place.

Krashen has claimed that *the best acquisition will occur in environments where anxiety is low and defensiveness absent*, or, in Krashen's terms, in contexts *where the "affective filter" is low*.

These five hypotheses have obvious implications for language teaching. In sum, these are:

1. As much comprehensible input as possible must be presented.

2. Whatever helps comprehension is important. Visual aids are useful, as is exposure to a wide range of vocabulary rather than study of syntactic structure.

3. The focus in the classroom should be on listening and reading; speaking should be allowed to "emerge".

4. In order to lower the affective filter, student work should center on meaningful communication rather than on form; input should be interesting and so contribute to a relaxed classroom atmosphere.

The Natural approach "is for beginners and is designed to help them become intermediates". They will understand the speaker of the target language and will be able to convey their requests and ideas. They need not know every word, nor is it necessary that the syntax and vocabulary be flawless. They should be able to make the meaning clear but not necessarily be accurate in all details of grammar [29; 33; 34; 42].

Exercise 4. **Sum up each hypothesis you've read about in your own words. Prove that the Natural approach is for beginners.**

4.3 The Theory of Second Language Acquisition by Roderick Ellis

Rod Ellis

Second Language Acquisition (SLA), as a sub-discipline of applied linguistics, is still a very young field of study. Many researchers agree that the late sixties marked the onset of an intense period of empirical and theoretical interest in how second languages are acquired. The theory of instructed language learning by Roderick Ellis (1994) addresses the role of instruction in L2 acquisition. Ellis has tried to draw together a set of generalisations that might serve as the basis for language teacher education in the form of "principles".

Principle 1. ***Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence***

Proficiency in an L2 requires that learners acquire both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions (which cater to fluency) and a rule-based competence consisting of knowledge of specific grammatical rules (which cater to complexity and accuracy).

There is now widespread acceptance of the importance played by formulaic expressions in language use. Native speakers have been shown to use a much larger number of formulaic expressions than even advanced L2

learners. Formulaic expressions may also serve as a basis for the later development of a rule-based competence

Rule-based competence (i.e. knowledge of specific grammatical rules) through the systematic teaching of pre-selected structures (a focus-on-forms approach has traditionally been directed at accuracy in language instruction. This type of instruction is as likely to result in students learning rote-memorized patterns as in internalizing abstract rules.

Thus, clearly, a complete language curriculum needs to ensure that it caters to the development of both formulaic expressions and rule-based knowledge.

Principle 2. ***Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus predominantly on meaning***

It is necessary to distinguish two different senses of the "focus on meaning". The first refers to the idea of semantic meaning (i.e. the meanings of lexical items or of specific grammatical structures). The second sense of focus on meaning relates to pragmatic meaning (i.e. the highly contextualized meanings that arise in acts of communication). It is important that instruction ensures opportunities for learners to focus on both types of meaning. In the case of semantic meaning, the teacher and the students can treat language as an object and function as pedagogues and learners. But in the case of pragmatic meaning, they need to view the L2 as a tool for communicating and to function as communicators. Pragmatic meaning is crucial to language learning for a number of reasons:

– only when learners are engaged in decoding and encoding messages in the context of actual acts of communication are the conditions created for acquisition to take place;

– to develop true fluency in an L2, learners must have opportunities to create pragmatic meaning;

– engaging learners in activities where they are focused on creating pragmatic meaning is intrinsically motivating.

To be effective, instruction must include opportunities to create pragmatic meaning, and, ideally, over an entire curriculum, they should be predominant. To provide opportunities for students to attend to and perform pragmatic meaning, a task-based approach to language teaching is required.

Principle 3. ***Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form***

There is now a widespread acceptance that acquisition also requires that learners attend to form. Instruction can cater to a focus on form in a number

of ways: through grammar lessons designed to teach specific grammatical features; through focused tasks, etc.

Instruction can seek to provide an intensive focus on pre-selected linguistic forms or it can offer incidental and extensive attention to form through corrective feedback in task-based lessons.

There are pros and cons for both intensive and extensive grammar instruction. Some structures may not be mastered without the opportunity for repeated practice. However, intensive instruction is time consuming and there will be constraints on how many structures can be addressed. Extensive grammar instruction, on the other hand, affords the opportunity for large numbers of grammatical structures to be addressed. Also many of the structures will be attended to repeatedly over a period of time. Further, as this kind of instruction involves a response to the errors each learner makes, it is individualized.

Arguably, then, instruction needs to be conceived of in terms of both approaches.

Principle 4. ***Instruction needs to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge***

Explicit knowledge "is the declarative and often anomalous knowledge of the phonological, lexical, grammatical, pragmatic and socio-critical features of an L2 together with the metalanguage for labelling this knowledge" [32]. It is held consciously, is learnable and verbalizable and is typically accessed through controlled processing when learners experience some kind of linguistic difficulty in the use of the L2. Explicit knowledge may assist language development by facilitating the development of implicit knowledge.

Implicit knowledge is procedural, is held unconsciously and can only be verbalized if it is made explicit. It is accessed rapidly and easily and thus is available for use in rapid, fluent communication. In the view of most researchers, competence in an L2 is primarily a matter of implicit knowledge. Implicit knowledge underlies the ability to communicate fluently and confidently in an L2. Thus it is this type of knowledge that should be the ultimate goal of any instructional programme. To develop implicit knowledge learners need the opportunity to participate in communicative activity.

This principle, then, asserts that instruction needs to be directed at developing both implicit and explicit knowledge, giving priority to the former. However, teachers should not assume that explicit knowledge can be

converted into implicit knowledge, as the extent to which this is possible remains controversial.

Principle 5. ***Instruction needs to take into account the learner's "built-in syllabus"***

Early research into naturalistic L2 acquisition showed that learners follow a natural order and sequence of acquisition (i.e. they master different grammatical structures in a relatively fixed and universal order and they pass through a sequence of stages of acquisition on route to mastering each grammatical structure). This led researchers to suggest that learners had their own "built-in syllabus" for learning grammar as implicit knowledge.

A number of empirical studies (e.g. Pica, Long, Ellis) showed that, generally, the order and sequence of acquisition was the same for instructed and naturalistic learners; that instructed learners generally achieved higher levels of grammatical competence than naturalistic learners and that instruction was no guarantee that learners would acquire what they had been taught. This led to the conclusion that it was beneficial to teach grammar, but that it was necessary to ensure it was taught in a way that was compatible with the natural processes of acquisition.

There are a number of possibilities for instruction to take account of the learner's built-in syllabus:

– employ a task-based approach that makes no attempt to predetermine the linguistic content of a lesson;

– ensure that learners are developmentally ready to acquire a specific target feature;

– focus the instruction on explicit rather than implicit knowledge.

Principle 6. ***Successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 input***

Language learning, whether it occurs in a naturalistic or an instructed context, is a slow and laborious process. Children acquiring their L1 take between two and five years to achieve full grammatical competence, during which time they are exposed to massive amounts of input. A substantial portion of the variance in speed of acquisition of children can be accounted for by the amount and the quality of input they receive. The same is true of L2 acquisition. If learners do not receive exposure to the target language they cannot acquire it. The more exposure they receive, the more and the faster they will learn.

How can teachers ensure their students have access to extensive input? In a "second" language teaching context, learners can be expected to gain

access to plentiful input outside the classroom. In a "foreign" language teaching context (as when French or Japanese is taught in schools in the United Kingdom or United States), there are far fewer opportunities for extensive input. To ensure adequate access, teachers need to:

– maximise use of the L2 inside the classroom (ideally, this means that the L2 needs to become the medium as well as the object of instruction);

– create opportunities for students to receive input outside the classroom (by providing extensive reading programmes based on carefully selected graded readers, suited to the level of the students; also, if more resources are available, schools need to establish self-access centres which students can use outside class time).

It can be claimed with confidence that, if the only input students receive is in the context of a limited number of weekly lessons based on some course book, they are unlikely to achieve high levels of L2 proficiency.

Principle 7. ***Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output***

Most researchers now acknowledge that learner output also plays a part. According to Skehan (1998), it serves to generate better input; it obliges learners to pay attention to grammar; it allows learners to test out hypotheses about the target language grammar; it helps to automatize existing knowledge; it provides opportunities for learners to develop discourse skills; it is important for helping learners to develop a "personal voice". Ellis (2003) adds one other contribution of output: it provides the learner with "auto-input" (i.e. learners can attend to the "input" provided by their own productions).

The importance of creating opportunities for output constitutes one of the main reasons for incorporating tasks into a language programme. Controlled practice exercises typically result in output that is limited in terms of length and complexity. Research has shown that extended talk of a clause or more in a classroom context is more likely to occur when students initiate interactions in the classroom and when they have to find their own words (e.g. Allen et al, 1990). This is best achieved by asking learners to perform oral and written tasks.

Principle 8. ***The opportunity to interact in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency***

Input and output both co-occur in oral interaction. According to the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996), interaction fosters acquisition when a communication problem arises and learners are engaged in negotiating for meaning.

Johnson (1995) identifies four key requirements for interaction to create an acquisition-rich classroom: 1) creating contexts of language use where students have a reason to attend to language; 2) providing opportunities for learners to use the language to express their own personal meanings; 3) helping students to participate in language-related activities that are beyond their current level of proficiency; 4) offering a full range of contexts that cater for a "full performance" in the language.

Thus creating the right kind of interaction for acquisition constitutes a major challenge for teachers. One solution is to incorporate small group work into a lesson. When students interact amongst themselves, acquisition-rich discourse is more likely to ensue.

Principle 9. ***Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners***

There is considerable variability in the rate of learning and in the ultimate level of achievement. In particular, learning will be more successful when: 1) the instruction is matched to students' particular aptitude for learning; 2) the students are motivated.

Teachers can cater to variation in the nature of their students' aptitude by adopting a flexible teaching approach involving a variety of learning activities; by using simple learner-training materials designed to make students more aware of their own approaches to learning and to develop awareness of alternative approaches. Thus, increasing the range of learning strategies at learners' disposal is one way in which teachers can help them to learn. Dornyei's research has shown the kinds of teaching strategies that teachers can employ to develop and maintain their students' intrinsic motivation (2001). He points in particular to the need for "instructional clarity" (such obvious recipes as "explain things simply" and "teach at a pace that is not too fast and not too slow"). Dornyei also makes the obvious point that "the best motivational intervention is simply to improve the quality of our teaching" (p. 26).

Principle 10. ***In assessing learners' L2 proficiency, it is important to examine free as well as controlled production***

Norris and Ortega's (2000) meta-analysis of studies investigating form-focussed instruction demonstrated that the extent of the effectiveness of instruction is dependent on the way in which it is measured. They distinguished four types of measurement:

1. Metalinguistic judgement (e.g. a grammaticality judgment test).
2. Selected response (e.g. multiple choice).

3. Constrained constructed response (e.g. gap filling exercises).

4. Free constructed response (e.g. a communicative task).

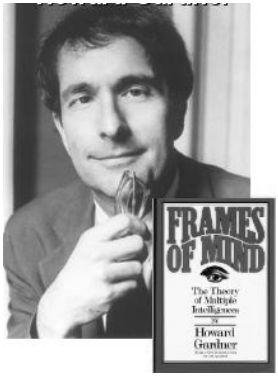
They found that the degree of effect was greatest in the case of (2) and (3) and least in (4). Yet, arguably, it is free constructed response (e.g. a communicative task) that constitutes the best measure of learners' L2 proficiency, as it is this that corresponds most closely to the kind of language use found outside the classroom. The ability to get a multiple choice question right amounts to very little if the student is unable to use the target feature in actual communication.

Free constructed responses are best elicited by means of tasks. The performance elicited by means of tasks can be assessed in three ways (Ellis, 2003): 1) a direct assessment of task outcomes; 2) discourse analytic measures; 3) external ratings. Discourse analytic measures are not practical for busy classroom teachers as they require transcribing speech and then painstakingly calculating number of error free clauses and clause complexity. External ratings are practical but they require considerable expertise to ensure that the ratings of learner performance are valid and reliable. A direct assessment of task outcomes holds out the most promise. However, it is only possible with closed tasks (an i.e. task for which there is a single correct outcome). An example would be a "Spot the Difference Task" where learners are asked to interact in order to find a specified number of differences in two similar pictures. In this task, assessment would consist of establishing whether they were able to successfully identify the differences.

These 10 general principles have been derived from Ellis's understanding of Second Language Acquisition. This model has its limitations and is open to criticism, in particular that it is not socially sensitive because it fails to acknowledge the importance of social context and social relations in the language learning process [31; 32].

Exercise 5. **Explain the essence of each of the ten principles in your own words. To which of the principles in second language acquisition do you personally attribute greater importance?**

4.4 The Theory of Multiple Intelligences by Harold Gardner



Howard Gardner

In 1983 Prof. Howard Gardner, a cognitive psychologist from Harvard Graduate School of Education published his book "Frames of Mind" that blew apart our traditional thoughts about IQ, and has become a source of inspiration for many teachers. His work redefined what intelligence is and expanded the traditional notion of intelligence. He further developed his ideas in "Intelligence Reframed" (1999).

Intelligence has traditionally been defined and measured in terms of linguistic and logical-mathematical abilities. Traditional IQ or intelligence tests are based on a test called the Stanford-Binet, founded on the idea that intelligence is a single, unchanged, inborn capacity. Gardner notes that traditional IQ tests measure only logic and language (linguistic and mathematical competencies), yet the brain has other equally important types of intelligence.

Having studied the cognitive profiles of gifted children, people from diverse cultures, idiot savants, and brain damaged individuals he realized that intelligence was expressed in multiple forms – thus he identified kinaesthetic, visual-spatial, musical, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligences in addition to linguistic and logical-mathematical abilities. Daniel Goleman has added a ninth "Emotional intelligence". This includes the ability to empathize, control impulse, and self-motivate.

The *rationale of his theory* can be summarized as follows:

– all human beings possess multiple intelligences, which can be nurtured and strengthened, or ignored and weakened;

– each individual has 7 (9 in the latest version suggested by other psychologists and cognitivists) intelligences in varying amounts;

– each person has a different intellectual composition; the inventory of someone's strengths can change in time;

– these intelligences are located in different areas of the brain and can either work independently or together;

– these intelligences may define the human species;

– knowing multiple intelligences is meant not to label people, but to empower them;

– we can improve education by addressing the multiple intelligences of our students (all of them can be enhanced through training and practice).

Gardner (1993) proposed a view of natural human talents that is labeled the "Multiple Intelligences Model". Multiple Intelligences (MI) refers to a

learner-based philosophy that characterizes human intelligence as having multiple dimensions that must be acknowledged and developed in education. Gardner posits eight native "intelligences", which are described as follows:

1. *Linguistic*: the ability to use language in special and creative ways, which is something lawyers, writers, editors, and interpreters are strong in.

2. *Logical/mathematical*: the ability to think rationally, often found with doctors, engineers, programmers, and scientists.

3. *Spatial*: the ability to form mental models of the world, something architects, decorators, sculptors, and painters are good at.

4. *Musical*: a good ear for music, as is strong in singers and composers;

5. *Bodily/kinesthetic*: having a well-coordinated body, something found in athletes and craftspersons.

6. *Interpersonal*: the ability to be able to work well with people, which is strong in salespeople, politicians, and teachers.

7. *Intrapersonal*: the ability to understand oneself and apply one's talent successfully, which leads to happy and well-adjusted people in all areas of life.

8. *Naturalist*: the ability to understand and organize the patterns of nature.

The more awareness students have of their own intelligences and how they work, the more they will know how to use that intelligence to access the necessary information and knowledge from a lesson.

If we accept that different intelligences predominate in different people, it suggests that the same learning task may not be appropriate for all of our students. While people with a strong logical/mathematical intelligence might respond well to a complex grammar explanation, a different student might need the comfort of a diagram and physical demonstration because their strength is in the visual/spatial area. Other students who have a strong interpersonal intelligence may require a more interactive climate if their learning is to be effective.

The idea of Multiple Intelligences has attracted the interest of many educators as well as the general public. Teachers and parents who recognize their learners'/children's particular gifts and talents can provide learning activities that build on those inherent gifts. Some schools in the United States have indeed remade their educational programs around the MI model.

Applications of MI in the language teaching have been more recent. In them language is held to be integrated with music, bodily activity, interpersonal relationships, and so on.

The MI model can be used to serve the needs of language learners within a classroom setting:

– For a student to be involved and successful, the learning material needs to be structured around the strengths of individual students.

– A rich mix of learning activities variously calling upon the eight different intelligences makes for an interesting, lively, and effective classroom for all students.

– The different facets of language are best served instructionally by linking their learning to the most appropriate kind of MI activity.

– An MI approach helps to develop the whole person within each learner, which best serves the person's language learning requirements as well.

– Since language learning involves culture learning as well, it is useful for the language learner to study language in a context that recognizes and honours a range of diversely valued intelligences.

MI is an increasingly popular approach to characterizing ways in which learners are unique to developing instruction to respond to this uniqueness. There are entire schools as well as language programs being restructured around the MI perspective [29; 33; 42].

Exercise 6. **Fill in the table with the names of proper intelligences according to the activities they require. The first has been done for you. The intelligences to use are: Bodily/Kinesthetic, Interpersonal, Logical/Mathematical, Musical, Spatial, and Intrapersonal.**

Intelligence	Activities and Materials
Linguistic Intelligence	Lectures, small- and large-group discussions, books, worksheets, word games, listening to cassettes or talking books, publishing (creating class newspapers or collections of writing), student speeches, storytelling, debates, journal keeping, memorizing, using word processors
	Scientific demonstrations, logic problems and puzzles, science thinking, logical-sequential presentation of subject-matter, creating codes, story problems, calculations
	Charts, maps, diagrams, videos, slides, movies, art and other pictures, imaginative storytelling, graphic organizers, telescopes, microscopes, visual awareness activities, visualization, photography, using mind maps, painting or collage, optical illusions, student drawing
	Creative movement, Mother-may-I?, cooking and other "mess" activities, role plays, hands-on activities, field trips, mime
	Playing recorded music, playing live music (piano, guitar), music appreciation, student-made instruments, singing, group singing, mood music, Jazz Chants
	Cooperative groups, peer teaching, group brainstorming, conflict

	mediation, board games, pair work
	Independent student work, individualized projects, options for homework, inventories and checklists, personal journal keeping, self-teaching/programmed instruction, reflective learning, journal keeping, interest centers, self-esteem journals, goal-setting

Exercise 7. **Find Appendix C "Multiple Intelligences Profile" and identify which of the intelligences you are personally strong in.**

4.5 Language Learning Styles and Strategies by Rebecca Oxford

According to R.L. Oxford, there are two key variables affecting language learning: styles, i.e., the general approaches to learning a language; and strategies, the specific behaviors or thoughts learners use to enhance their language learning. These factors influence the student's ability to learn in a particular instructional framework.

Rebecca L. Oxford

Language learning styles and strategies are among the main factors that help determine how – and how well – our students learn a second or foreign language (L2). Information about language learning styles and strategies is valid regardless of what the learner's first language is.

Learning styles are the general approaches – for example, global or analytic, auditory or visual – that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject.

Learning strategies are defined as "specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques – such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task – used by students to enhance their own learning" [36]. When the learner consciously chooses strategies that fit his or her learning style and the L2 task at hand, these strategies become a useful toolkit for active, conscious, and purposeful self-regulation of learning. R.L. Oxford has classified learning strategies into six groups: cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social.

Learning styles and strategies of individual students can work together with – or conflict with – a given instructional methodology. If there is

harmony between (a) the student (in terms of style and strategy preferences) and (b) the combination of instructional methodology and materials, then the student is likely to perform well, feel confident, and experience low anxiety. If clashes occur between (a) and (b), the student often performs poorly, feels unconfident, and experiences significant anxiety. Sometimes such clashes lead to serious breakdowns in teacher-student interaction. These conflicts may also lead to the dispirited student's outright rejection of the teaching methodology, the teacher, and the subject matter.

Learning Styles

Ehrman and Oxford (1990) cited 9 major style dimensions relevant to L2 learning. Four dimensions of learning style are likely to be among those most strongly associated with L2 learning are: sensory preferences, personality types, desired degree of generality, and biological differences.

Learning styles are not dichotomous (black or white, present or absent). They generally operate on a continuum or on multiple, intersecting continua. For example, a person might be more extraverted than introverted, or more closure-oriented than open, or equally visual and auditory but with lesser kinesthetic and tactile involvement. Few if any people could be classified as having all or nothing in any of these categories.

Sensory Preferences Dimension. Sensory preferences can be broken down into four main areas: visual, auditory, kinesthetic (movement-oriented), and tactile (touch-oriented). Sensory preferences refer to the physical, perceptual learning channels with which the student is the most comfortable. Visual students like to read and obtain a great deal from visual stimulation. For them, lectures, conversations, and oral directions without any visual backup can be very confusing. In contrast, auditory students are comfortable without visual input and therefore enjoy and profit from unembellished lectures, conversations, and oral directions. They are excited by classroom interactions in role-plays and similar activities. They sometimes, however, have difficulty with written work. Kinesthetic and tactile students like lots of movement and enjoy working with tangible objects, collages, and flashcards. Sitting at a desk for very long is not for them; they prefer to have frequent breaks and move around the room.

Personality Types Dimension. Another style aspect that is important for L2 education is that of personality type, which consists of four strands: extraverted vs. introverted; intuitive-random vs. sensing-sequential; thinking vs. feeling; and closure-oriented/judging vs. open/perceiving. Ehrman and

Oxford (1989, 1990) found a number of significant relationships between personality type and L2 proficiency in native-English-speaking learners of foreign languages.

Extraverted vs. Introverted. By definition, extraverts gain their greatest energy from the external world. They want interaction with people and have many friendships, some deep and some not. In contrast, introverts derive their energy from the internal world, seeking solitude and tending to have just a few friendships, which are often very deep. Extraverts and introverts can learn to work together with the help of the teacher. Enforcing time limits in the L2 classroom can keep extraverts' enthusiasm to a manageable level. Rotating the person in charge of leading L2 discussions gives introverts the opportunity to participate equally with extraverts.

Intuitive-Random vs. Sensing-Sequential. Intuitive-random students think in abstract, futuristic, large-scale, and nonsequential ways. They like to create theories and new possibilities, often have sudden insights, and prefer to guide their own learning. In contrast, sensing-sequential learners are grounded in the here and now. They like facts rather than theories, want guidance and specific instruction from the teacher, and look for consistency. The key to teaching both intuitive-random and sensing-sequential learners is to offer variety and choice: sometimes a highly organized structure for sensing-sequential learners and at other times multiple options and enrichment activities for intuitive-random students.

Thinking vs. Feeling. Thinking learners are oriented toward the stark truth, even if it hurts some people's feelings. They want to be viewed as competent and do not tend to offer praise easily – even though they might secretly desire to be praised themselves. Sometimes they seem detached. In comparison, feeling learners value other people in very personal ways. They show empathy and compassion through words, not just behaviors, and say whatever is needed to smooth over difficult situations. Though they often wear their hearts on their sleeves, they want to be respected for personal contributions and hard work. L2 teachers can help thinking learners show greater overt compassion to their feeling classmates and can suggest that feeling learners might tone down their emotional expression while working with thinking learners.

Closure-oriented/Judging vs. Open/Perceiving. Closure-oriented students want to reach judgments or completion quickly and want clarity as soon as possible. These students are serious, hardworking learners who like to be given written information and enjoy specific tasks with deadlines.

Sometimes their desire for closure hampers the development of fluency (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989). In contrast, open learners want to stay available for continuously new perceptions and are therefore sometimes called "perceiving." They take L2 learning less seriously, treating it like a game to be enjoyed rather than a set of tasks to be completed. Open learners dislike deadlines; they want to have a good time and seem to soak up L2 information by osmosis rather than hard effort. Open learners sometimes do better than closure-oriented learners in developing fluency (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989), but they are at a disadvantage in a traditional classroom setting. Closure-oriented and open learners provide a good balance for each other in the L2 classroom. The former are the task-driven learners, and the latter know how to have fun. Skilled L2 teachers sometimes consciously create cooperative groups that include both types of learners, since these learners can benefit from collaboration with each other.

Desired Degree of Generality Dimension. This strand contrasts the learner who focuses on the main idea or big picture with the learner who concentrates on details. Global or holistic students like socially interactive, communicative events in which they can emphasize the main idea and avoid analysis of grammatical minutiae. They are comfortable even when not having all the information, and they feel free to guess from the context. Analytic students tend to concentrate on grammatical details and often avoid more free-flowing communicative activities. Because of their concern for precision, analytic learners typically do not take the risks necessary for guessing from the context unless they are fairly sure of the accuracy of their guesses. The global student and the analytic student have much to learn from each other. A balance between generality and specificity is very useful for L2 learning.

Biological Differences. Differences in L2 learning style can also be related to biological factors, such as biorhythms, sustenance, and location. Biorhythms reveal the times of day when students feel good and perform their best. Some L2 learners are morning people, while others do not want to start learning until the afternoon, and still others are creatures of the evening, happily "pulling an all-nighter" when necessary. Sustenance refers to the need for food or drink while learning. Quite a number of L2 learners do not feel comfortable learning without a candy bar, a cup of coffee, or a soda in hand, but others are distracted from study by food and drink. Location involves the nature of the environment: temperature, lighting, sound, and even the firmness of the chairs. L2 students differ widely with regard to

these environmental factors. The biological aspects of L2 learning style are often forgotten, but vigilant teachers can often make accommodations and compromises when needed.

L2 learners clearly need to make the most of their style preferences. However, occasionally they must also extend themselves beyond their style preferences. By providing a wide range of classroom activities that cater to different learning styles, teachers can help L2 students develop beyond the comfort zone dictated by their natural style preferences. The key is systematically offering a great variety of activities within a learner-centered, communicative approach.

By far the most common type of assessment tool for L2 learning styles is the written survey. In surveys, students answer questions that reveal their particular style preferences. Style surveys vary in reliability and validity, but in the last few decades they have provided data from which teachers and students have begun to understand L2 styles.

Learning Strategies

L2 learning strategies are specific behaviors or thought processes that students use to enhance their own L2 learning. The word strategy comes from the ancient Greek word strategia, which means steps or actions taken for the purpose of winning a war.

A given strategy is neither good nor bad; it is essentially neutral until the context of its use is thoroughly considered. What makes a strategy positive and helpful for a given learner? A strategy is useful if the following conditions are present: a) the strategy relates well to the L2 task at hand; b) the strategy fits the particular student's learning style preferences to one degree or another; c) the student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other relevant strategies. Strategies that fulfill these conditions "make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations". Learning strategies can also enable students to become more independent, autonomous, lifelong learners.

Yet students are not always aware of the power of consciously using L2 learning strategies for making learning quicker and more effective. Skilled teachers help their students develop an awareness of learning strategies and enable them to use a wider range of appropriate strategies.

When left to their own devices and if not encouraged by the teacher or forced by the lesson to use a certain set of strategies, students typically use learning strategies that reflect their basic learning styles. However, teachers

can actively help students “stretch” their learning styles by trying out some strategies that are outside of their primary style preferences. This can happen through strategy instruction.

Learning strategies are intentionally used and consciously controlled by the learner. In our field, virtually all definitions of strategies imply conscious movement toward a language goal.

In subject areas outside of L2 learning, the use of learning strategies is demonstrably related to student achievement and proficiency. Students who frequently employ learning strategies enjoy a high level of self-efficacy, i.e., a perception of being effective as learners.

The most effective strategy instruction appears to include demonstrating when a given strategy might be useful, as well as how to use and evaluate it, and how to transfer it to other related tasks and situations. So far, research has shown the most beneficial strategy instruction to be woven into regular, everyday L2 teaching, although other ways of doing strategy instruction are possible.

Six major groups of L2 learning strategies have been identified by Oxford (1990). Alternative taxonomies have been offered by O’Malley and Chamot (1990) and others.

Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways, e.g., through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing information to develop stronger schemas (knowledge structures), practicing in naturalistic settings, and practicing structures and sounds formally. According to R.L. Oxford, cognitive strategies are significantly related to L2 proficiency.

Metacognitive strategies (e.g., identifying one’s own learning style preferences and needs, planning for an L2 task, gathering and organizing materials, arranging a study space and a schedule, monitoring mistakes, and evaluating task success, and evaluating the success of any type of learning strategy) are employed for managing the learning process overall. Studies of EFL learners in various countries uncovered evidence that metacognitive strategies are often strong predictors of L2 proficiency.

Memory-related strategies help learners link one L2 item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding. Various memory-related strategies enable learners to learn and retrieve information in an orderly string (e.g., acronyms), while other techniques create learning and retrieval via sounds (e.g., rhyming), images (e.g., a mental picture of the word itself or the meaning of the word), a combination of sounds and images

(e.g., the keyword method), body movement (e.g., total physical response), mechanical means (e.g., flashcards), or location (e.g., on a page or blackboard). Memory-related strategies have been shown to relate to L2 proficiency in L2 courses designed for native-English speaking learners of foreign languages. Memory strategies are often used for memorizing vocabulary and structures in initial stages of language learning, but learners need such strategies much less when their arsenal of vocabulary and structures has become larger.

Compensatory strategies (e.g., guessing from the context in listening and reading; using synonyms and "talking around" the missing word to aid speaking and writing; and strictly for speaking, using gestures or pause words) help the learner make up for missing knowledge. Oxford (1990, 1999) contends that compensation strategies of any kind aid in language learning. Oxford and Ehrman (1995) demonstrated that compensatory strategies are significantly related to L2 proficiency in their study of native-English-speaking learners of foreign languages.

Affective strategies, such as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk, have been shown to be significantly related to L2 proficiency.

Social strategies (e.g., asking questions to get verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms) help the learner work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language. Social strategies were significantly associated with L2 proficiency.

Many assessment tools exist for uncovering the strategies used by L2 learners. Self-report surveys, observations, interviews, learner journals, dialogue journals, think-aloud techniques, and other measures have been used. Each one of these has advantages and disadvantages. The most widely used survey, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (see appendix D), has been translated into more than 20 languages and used in dozens of published studies around the world.

Various learning strategy instruments have disclosed the following: L2 learning strategy use is significantly related to L2 learning motivation, gender, age, culture, brain hemisphere dominance, career orientation, academic major, beliefs, and the nature of the L2 task. A number of these findings have been summarized in Oxford (1999).

L2 teachers could benefit by assessing the learning styles and the strategy use of their students, because such assessment leads to greater understanding of styles and strategies. Teachers also need to assess their styles and strategies, so that they will be aware of their preferences and of possible biases.

The more that teachers know about their students' style preferences, the more effectively they can orient their L2 instruction, as well as the strategy teaching that can be interwoven into language instruction, matched to those style preferences. Without adequate knowledge about their individual students' style preferences, teachers cannot systematically provide the needed instructional variety.

Styles and strategies help determine a particular learner's ability and willingness to work within the framework of various instructional methodologies. Instead of choosing a specific instructional methodology, L2 teachers would do better to employ a broad instructional approach, notably the best version of the communicative approach that contains a combined focus on form and fluency. Such an approach allows for deliberate, creative variety to meet the needs of all students in the class.

L2 teachers should consider various ways to prepare to conduct strategy instruction in their classes. Helpful preparatory steps include taking teacher development courses, finding relevant information in print or on the Internet, and making contacts with specialists.

There is growing evidence that L2 teachers should conduct strategy instruction in their classrooms. They may start with small strategy interventions, such as helping L2 readers learn to analyze words and guess meanings from the context, rather than with full-scale strategies-based instruction involving a vast array of learning strategies and the four language skills, i.e., reading, writing, speaking and listening. Other teachers might want to move rapidly into strategies-based instruction interwoven with the general communicative language teaching approach. In evaluating the success of any strategy instruction, teachers should look for individuals' progress toward L2 proficiency and for signs of increased self-efficacy or motivation [29; 33; 36].

Exercise 8. **Match the learning styles and style dimensions.**

Style dimensions	Learning styles

1) Sensory preferences 2) Personality types 3) Desired degree of generality	a) Closure-oriented/judging vs. Open/perceiving b) Extraverted vs. Introverted c) Global/holistic vs. Analytic d) Intuitive-random vs. Sensing-sequential e) Thinking vs. Feeling f) Visual, Auditory, Kinesthetic (movement-oriented), Tactile (touch-oriented)

Exercise 9. **Complete the table of learning strategies with examples of their practical application.**

Learning Strategies					
Cognitive	Meta-cognitive	Memory-related	Compen-satory	Affective	Social

AFTER READING

Exercise 10. **In a small group, share what each of you perceives to be your more dominant learning style. Talk about examples of how you manifest those styles in your approach to learning foreign languages.**

Exercise 11. **In small groups imagine lists of activities or techniques in foreign language classes that illustrate the following styles. Be ready to share the results with the rest of the class.**

Learning style	Activities/techniques
Visual	
Auditory	
Kinesthetic (movement-oriented)	
Tactile (touch-oriented)	
Extraverted	
Introverted	
Intuitive-random	
Sensing-sequential	
Closure-oriented/judging	
Open/perceiving	
Global/holistic	

Analytic	

Exercise 12. **Discuss and find out the instances in which you have used any of the learning strategies.**

Exercise 13. **Think and say:**

a) in what ways you have been helped by a teacher (or through your own effort) to become aware of your learning strengths and weaknesses;

b) what actions (strategies) you can take to capitalize on your strengths and compensate for your weaknesses;

c) when you were learning a foreign language at school, what strategically-based advice you would like to have had that you did not have at the time. Appendix D may be helpful for you.

Exercise 14. **Did you know that…**

1. S. Krashen's place in language education is comparable to that of Dr. Benjamin Spock in child rearing or Steven Spielberg in film. He developed the first comprehensive theory of second language development, was the co-founder of the Natural Approach, the inventor of sheltered subject matter teaching, and helped develop the gradual exit model for bilingual education. His ideas about the difference between learning and acquisition have strongly influenced the field of ESL/EFL for several decades…

2. Dr. R. Ellis is known as the "Father of Second Language Acquisition". Prof. Ellis's textbooks on Second Language acquisition and Grammar are core textbooks in TESOL and Linguistics programs around the world.

3. The most widely used instrument for learners to identify strategies is R. Oxford's (1990) strategy inventory for Language Learning (SILL), a questionnaire that has now been tested in many countries. R. Oxford's "The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning" and "The Style Analysis Survey" are used in up to 20 different languages.

P A R T V

MODERN TECHNOLOGIES IN TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

"What we have to learn to do, we learn by doing."

Aristotle

PRE-READING

Exercise 1. **What technologies in your view may be used for teaching foreign languages? Have you experienced Cooperative language learning, corpus linguistics, or blogs as a learner/teacher?**

WHILE READING

Exercise 2. **Read the text that follows and prepare a mind-map on the topic in question.**

5.1 Cooperative language learning (CLL)

Teaching foreign languages in the modern classroom requires using effective educational technologies that may facilitate communication in the target language. One of modern technologies enjoying vast popularity in teaching foreign languages is CLL which is part of a more general instructional approach known as Collaborative Learning (CL). The early twentieth century U.S. educator John Dewey is usually credited with promoting the idea of building cooperation in learning into regular classrooms on a regular and systematic basis. Cooperative learning advocates draw heavily on the theoretical work of developmental psychologists Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky, both of whom stress the central role of social interaction in learning.

In second language teaching, CLL is seen as an extension of the principles of Communicative Language Teaching, and as a learner-centered approach to teaching.

Cooperative Learning *is an approach to teaching that makes maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of learners in the classroom.*

Cooperative learning *is the instructional use of small groups through which students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning.* It may be contrasted with competitive learning in which students work against each other to achieve an academic goal such as a grade of "A".

A central idea of CLL is that learners develop *communicative competence* in a language by conversing in socially or pedagogically structured situations. CLL also seeks to develop learners' *critical thinking skills*. Another important dimension of CLL is that it seeks to develop classrooms that foster *cooperation* rather than competition in learning.

McGroarty (1989) offers ***six learning advantages for ESL students*** in CLL classrooms:

1) increased frequency and variety of second language practice through different types of interaction;

2) possibility for development or use of language in ways that support cognitive development and increased language skills;

3) opportunities to integrate language with content-based instruction;

4) opportunities to include a greater variety of curricular materials to stimulate language as well as concept learning;

5) freedom for teachers to master new professional skills, particularly those emphasizing communication;

6) opportunities for students to act as resources for each other, thus assuming a more active role in their learning.

CLL does not assume any particular form of language syllabus. What defines CLL is the systematic and carefully planned use of group-based procedures in teaching as an alternative to teacher-fronted teaching. Johnson et al., (1994) describe three ***types of cooperative learning groups:***

1. *Formal cooperative learning groups*. These last from one class period to several weeks. These are established for a specific task and involve students working together to achieve shared learning goals.

2. *Informal cooperative learning groups*. These are ad-hoc groups that last from a few minutes to a class period and are used to focus student attention or to facilitate learning during direct teaching.

3. *Cooperative base groups*. These are long term, lasting for at least a year and consist of heterogeneous learning groups with stable membership whose primary purpose is to allow members to give each other the support, help, encouragement, and assistance they need to succeed academically.

The success of CL is crucially dependent on the nature and organization of group work. Olsen and Kagan (1992) propose the following ***key elements***

of successful group-based learning in CL: positive interdependence, group formation, individual accountability, social skills, structuring and structures.

Positive interdependence occurs when group members feel that what helps one member helps all and what hurts one member hurts all. It is created by the structure of CL tasks and by building a spirit of mutual support within the group. For example, a group may produce a single product such as an essay or the scores for members of a group may be averaged.

Group formation is an important factor in creating positive interdependence. Factors involved in setting up groups include:

– deciding on the size of the group (typical group size is from two to four);

– assigning students to groups (groups can be teacher-selected, random, or student-selected);

– student roles in groups (each group member has a specific role to play in a group, such as noise monitor, turn-taker monitor, recorder, or summarizer).

Individual accountability involves both group and individual performance (e.g. by assigning each student a grade on his or her portion of a team project or by calling on a student at random to share with the whole class, with group members, or with another group).

Social skills determine the way students interact with each other as teammates. Usually some explicit instruction in social skills is needed to ensure successful interaction.

Structuring and Structures refer to the ways of organizing student interaction and different ways students are to interact.

Numerous descriptions exist of activity types that can be used with CLL. Coelho (1992) describes ***three major kinds of cooperative learning tasks*** and their learning focus, each of which has many variations.

Team practice (from common input – skills development and mastery of facts):

– all students work on the same material;

– practice could follow a traditional teacher-directed presentation of new material and for that reason is a good starting point for teachers and/or students new to group work;

– the task is to make sure that everyone in the group knows the answer to a question and can explain how the answer was obtained or understands the material. Because students want their team to do well, they coach and tutor each other to make sure that any member of the group could answer for all of them and explain their team's answer;

– when the teacher takes up the question or assignment, anyone in a group may be called on to answer for the team;

– this technique is good for review and for practice test; the group takes the practice test together, but each student will eventually do an assignment or take a test individually;

– this technique is effective in situations where the composition of the groups is unstable (e.g., in adult programs). Students can form new groups every day.

Jigsaw (differentiated but predetermined input – evaluation and synthesis of facts and opinions):

– each group member receives a different piece of information;

– students regroup in topic groups (expert groups) composed of people with the same piece to master the material and prepare to teach it;

– students return to home groups (jigsaw groups) to share their information with each other;

– students synthesize the information through discussion;

– each student produces an assignment of part of a group project, or takes a test, to demonstrate synthesis of all the information presented by all group members;

– this method of organization may require team-building activities for both home groups and topic groups, long-term group involvement, and rehearsal of presentation methods;

– this method is very useful in the multilevel class, allowing for both homogeneous and heterogeneous grouping in terms of English proficiency;

– information-gap activities in language teaching are jigsaw activities in the form of pair work. Partners have data (in the form of text, tables, charts, etc.) with missing information to be supplied during interaction with another partner.

Cooperative projects (Topics/resources selected by students – discovery learning):

– topics may be different for each group;

– students identify subtopics for each group member;

– steering committee may coordinate the work of the class as a whole;

– students research the information using resources such as library reference, interviews, visual media;

– students synthesize their information for a group presentation: oral and/or written. Each group member plays a part in the presentation;

– each group presents to the whole class;

– this method places greater emphasis on individualization and students' interests. Each student's assignment is unique;

– students need plenty of previous experience with more structured group work for this to be effective.

Olsen and Kagan (1992) describe the following ***examples of CLL activities:***

1. *Three-step interview:*
   a) Students are in pairs; one is interviewer and the other is interviewee;
   b) Students reverse roles;
   c) Each shares with team member what was learned during the two interviews.
2. *Roundtable:*
   a) There is one piece of paper and one pen for each team;
   b) One student makes a contribution and
   c) Passes the paper and the pen to the student of his or her left;
   d) Each student makes contributions in turn. If done orally, the structure is called *Round Robin*.
3. *Think-Pair-Share:*
   a) Teacher poses a question (usually a low-consensus question);
   b) Students think of a response;
   c) Students discuss their responses with a partner;
   d) Students share their partner's response with the class.
4. *Solve-Pair-Share:*
   a) Teacher poses a problem (a low-consensus or high-consensus item that may be resolved with different strategies);
   b) Students work out solutions individually;
   c) Students explain how they solved the problem in Interview or Round Robin structures.
5. *Numbered Heads:*
   a) Students number off in teams.
   b) Teacher asks a question (usually high-consensus).
   c) Heads Together – students literally put their heads together and make sure everyone knows and can explain the answer.
   d) Teacher calls a number and students with that number raise their hands to be called on, as in traditional classroom.

In Cooperative Learning, ***group activities*** are the major mode of learning. They are carefully planned to maximize students' interaction and to facilitate students' contribution to each other's learning. Pair grouping is the most typical CLL format, ensuring the maximum amount of time both learners spend engaged on learning tasks. Pair tasks in which learners

alternate roles involve partners in the ***role*** of tutors, checkers, recorders, and information sharers.

The learner is a member of a group who must work collaboratively on tasks with other group members. Learners have to learn teamwork skills. Learners are also taught to plan, monitor, and evaluate their own learning.

The role of the teacher in CLL differs considerably from the role of teachers in traditional teacher-fronted lesson. The teacher has to create a highly structured and well-organized learning environment in the classroom, setting goals, planning and structuring tasks, establishing the physical arrangement of the classroom, assigning students to groups and roles, and selecting materials and time. An important role for the teacher is that of a facilitator of learning. In his or her role as facilitator, the teacher must move around the class helping students and groups as needs arise. Teachers speak less than in teacher-fronted classes. They provide broad questions to challenge thinking, they prepare students for the tasks they will carry out, they assist students with the learning tasks, and they give few commands, imposing less disciplinary control. The teacher may also have the task of restructuring lessons so that students can work on them cooperatively.

Research findings on CLL are generally supportive. Still CLL is not without its critics, however. Some have questioned its use with learners of different proficiency levels, suggesting that some groups of students (e.g., intermediate and advanced learners) may obtain more benefits from it than others. In addition, it places considerable demands on teachers, who may have difficulty adapting to the new roles required of them. Proponents of CLL stress that it enhances both learning and learners' interaction skills [29, 33, 42].

5.2. Corpus Linguistics

The ***corpus*** is:

– *a "collection of texts – written, transcribed speech, or both – that is stored in electronic form and analyzed with the help of computer software programs"* [2];

– *a collection of naturally occurring samples of language which have been collected and collated for easy access by researchers and materials developers who want to know how words and other linguistic items are actually used* [17].

A corpus ***may vary*** from a few sentences to a set of written texts or recordings. Corpora can consist of either written or spoken language. In language analysis corpuses usually consist of a relatively large, planned collection of texts or parts of texts, stored and accessed by computer.

A corpus is designed to represent ***different types of language*** use in terms of varieties of language, dialects, styles, and registers (J.C. Richards) [43]. Speech corpora have been classified into conversations of many kinds: theater/television scripts, speeches, casual conversation, business letters, ESP texts and even classroom language.

From a corpus of millions of words (made up of novels, scientific articles, plays, newspapers, brochures, speeches, recorded conversations, etc) the computer can give ***quick accurate information about how often words are_used, and in what linguistic contexts.*** Computer corpora have allowed dictionary makers to say how frequently individual words are used.

Corpus linguistics is a branch of discourse analysis that has experienced phenomenal growth and interest over the last decade. According to H. D. Brown, it *is an approach to linguistic research that relies on computer analysis of language* [29].

J. C. Richards defines it as *an approach to investigating language structure and use through the analysis of large databases of real language examples stored on computer* [42].

The emphasis in corpus linguistics is on ***naturally occurring language,*** that is, texts created by users of the language for a communicative purpose.

The advent of computer science presents almost endless ***possibilities for analysis.*** With some data banks boasting hundreds of millions of words our capacity to analyze language as it is actually used is greatly enhanced. We are now able to identify word frequencies and co-occurances.

Issues amenable to corpus linguistics include the meanings of words across registers, the distribution and function of grammatical forms and categories, the investigation of lexico-grammatical associations (associations of specific words with particular grammatical constructions), the study of discourse characteristics, register variation, and (when learner corpora are available) issues in language acquisition and development.

For example, according to the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, the word “idea” co-occurs with the word “good” (as in “good idea”), four times more often than with any other word, such as “great idea” or “right idea”. Grammatical patterns can also be identified. Biber et al (1999) noted that the use of the word “get” as a passive verb rarely includes

a “by” prepositional phrase that identifies an agent, and that most commonly, verbs in the “get” passive describe negative circumstances (“get hit, get stuck, get involved”) and are much more common in conversation than in fiction, news, or academic prose.

At their simplest, software programs with language corpora show how particular words are used. These “key words in context” appear on the screen embedded in the sentences or phrases where they occur. Each line of the concordance is taken from the different texts stored on the corpus.

Concordance (concordancing), according to J.C. Richards, is a list of all the words which are used in a particular text or in the works of a particular author, together with a list of the contexts in which each word occurs (usually not including frequent grammatical words such as articles and prepositions) [45]. Concordances have been used in the study of word frequencies, grammar, discourse and stylistics. In recent years the preparation of concordances by computers has been used to analyze individual texts, large samples of writing by a particular author, or different genres and registers. Computer concordances are now often used in the preparation of dictionaries, since they enable lexicographers to study how words are used in a wide range of contexts.

Concordancer is software that searches for words of phrases in a corpus and displays the selected item or items in a list together with their surrounding context. Concordancers enable the uses of words to be displayed together with contexts of use and are used in discourse analysis and other forms of language analysis. They are also sometimes used by teachers to provide students with examples of authentic language use.

A computer program may left-sort a word immediately before the key words in context (in alphabetical order) or right-sort a word (in alphabetical order of the words immediately following the key words in context). Apart from left- and right-sorting we can also get examples of a word from only the spoken corpus or from the written corpus – so that we can see if a word is used differently in speech and writing. We can ask it to give us only key words in context sentences from fiction or from newspapers to learn more about language use in certain genres. We can ask the software to give us examples of the word only when used as a noun. We can also find out how common a word is, too, and may be able to do a number of more complex tasks as well.

For teaching foreign languages, the ***benefits of corpus linguistics*** have been and will continue to be explored as this field grows. Recently, for example, some interesting possibilities have emerged:

– access by textbook writers and curriculum developers to naturally occurring language sub-categorized into very specific varieties, styles, registers, and genres;

– integration of grammar and vocabulary teaching;

– studies of learner language;

– corpus-based classroom activities that use "concordancing" and other techniques as the focus of classroom lessons.

Students who consult a language corpus get the thrill of being language researchers and of seeing evidence that is immediately persuasive. The authenticity of this language makes it instantly attractive. Here the students are looking at compelling language evidence which they can evaluate themselves.

Still some ***disadvantages*** need to be noted.

First, just because words, forms, and co-occurances are highly frequent may not mean they are highly useful in a language learner's progress to proficiency. If students accept all uses of a word in a concordance as equally valid they may have problems since at least some uses which the program throws up will be idiosyncratic (individual, peculiar, characteristic) or, in some cases, just plain wrong. A simple rule is that the more often a pattern occurs, the more confident the student can be that this is a common usage. Where it only occurs once they might want to check with a dictionary or a teacher.

Second, many of the data that have been amassed reflect English in the Inner Circle (countries traditionally considered to be dominated by native speakers of English, e.g., United States, United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand) and may not represent the reality of English encountered by learners in the Outer (countries that use English as a common lingua franca and in which English is for many people nativized, e.g., India, Singapore, the Philippines, Nigeria, Ghana) and Expanding circles.

Finally, even the decisions by corpus linguists of what to include in their corpora can be the result of their intuitive decisions or even their biases (H.D. Brown) [29]. In other words, language corpora can be problematic because of the texts that are put into them (J. Harmer) [33]. We need, therefore, to know how a corpus was assembled, so that we can be sure it is appropriate for us and for our students.

Despite these drawbacks, corpus linguistics holds promise for enlightening not only our language teaching methodology, but for understanding the nature of linguistics discourse in general.

5.3. Blogs

The rapid development in technology has given rise to new forms of communication among people. E-mail, Internet access, sending messages via mobile phones, using chat rooms have had an impact on how people communicate and write, the frequency with which they communicate and, possibly, the content.

As one of the major language skills, writing serves a number of purposes. *Writing activities and products:*

– provide a means of communication when the recipient and sender are not in close physical proximity;

– offer a way of maintaining social relationships and sharing personal information;

– allow individuals to record their emotions, feelings of happiness, fear or anxiety;

– are a means of disseminating information and news;

– provide a permanent record;

– can serve as a means of entertainment and amusement;

– assist participants to develop skills which make them persuasive, critical and analytical readers and writers.

Given this variety of functions, writing activities can naturally take on a broad range of forms and presentations.

Potentially, writing assignments have an audience which extends beyond the classroom. The responsibility of teachers is to plan for and present students with challenging writing assignments which are relevant to and match the needs for which writing is engaged; to promote meaningful, relevant and purposeful writing experiences among students of all ages. This may be achieved through the use of blogs.

The traditional definition of a ***blog*** is of *a special kind of website consisting of regular entries or posts arranged in reverse chronological order – that is with the most recent post at the top of the main page* [20; 28]. Typically, each post is a short piece of text, though images are often included, and generally entries contain links to other websites.

Blogging can be viewed not merely as *an activity with certain characteristics* but as an emerging *writing genre* in its own right. Blogs have been compared to journals or online diaries, offering a way for students to engage in reflective writing on any topic. In this sense, blogging serves as a means of promoting writing among students that requires higher-order thinking skills such as the ability to evaluate and synthesize.

Through postings on blogs, students have a real, wider audience that transcends the classroom teacher and peer students within one's classroom, school or country. The community of collaborators and supporters is innumerable. If the message is to be understood by an international audience, students have to be sensitive to the content and ways in which they are going to express themselves. Hence the careful choice of language to ensure that the intended message comes across. In addition, a piece of writing is open to feedback from a known as well as an unknown audience. The teacher and fellow students are no longer the only two sources from whom to acquire or seek knowledge, information or feedback. The latter can therefore be received from familiar and not so familiar people.

Another way in which blogs can revolutionise the classroom is that responses to blog postings can be immediate. Teachers and colleagues can quickly respond to a student's blog, providing immediate feedback not feasible by traditional paper evaluation methods, and it takes less time to manage.

Another advantage of blogs is the communication afforded to parents enabling them to be connected to their child's classroom. They can see class assignments, as well as read their children's postings, perhaps gaining new insights about their offspring. The blog can serve as a natural writing portfolio, visibly displaying writing skill improvement as the year progresses.

Blogs promote self-expression and highly personalized content. Bloggers can collect news stories to write about and then edit/react to each other's work; can add comments or critiques to shared class readings.

Blogs are also a useful writing tool for teachers as they can use blogs to highlight selected writings and contributions of their students; focus on the content, collaboration and documentation of completed tasks; offer a medium of peer support where teachers themselves collaborate and share ideas (Huffaker, 2004).

Irrespective of the themes, looks and writing styles or genres chosen by the authors, *good blogs* are characterised by three features: frequency, brevity and personality (Evans, as cited in Mortensen and Walker (2002).

Blogging software is flexible and may be used successfully across a range of cultural and educational settings. Blogger, WordPress, Class Blogmeister, etc. are among many ***free blogging hosting services*** available to the teacher:

Finding out the ***students' past and present experiences*** of blogging and other online environments will help to provide an assessment of their technical skills, and expertise. Harnessing these abilities and dovetailing them with language teaching and learning goals can release and motivate, whereas trying to stifle them can prove counterproductive.

Exploring and valuing the students' online experience will also give an insight into their "default" style of conversation and connection in online environments. This is important in deciding if that default style of conversation needs to simply be given free rein or further developed when using blogs. The teacher sets the tone and agenda when using blogs.

After the launch of the blogging community, teachers can use a number of ***effective approaches*** to maintain interest and encourage reading, writing and independent learning:

– choosing subject material for lessons using blogs that is varied and engaging for students keeps interest high. It is easy to use a blog to set tasks rather like an online worksheet;

– using subject material that originated in blogs in the wider blogging community is an effective way of modelling and encouraging collaboration;

– regular writing by teachers on their blogs models both the process of writing and the innate value of communicating in another language. This is particularly important if teachers want to encourage students to write freely on their own blogs outside of planned lesson times;

– highlighting and hyperlinking by teachers of writing from students within their own class community serves to provide students with an audience for their writing and encourages them that their work is valued. It also models the important process of connecting ideas among students;

– encouraging students to comment on each other's writing is most useful when guidelines are developed, in partnership with students, to lay down the purpose of commenting;

– posting references to useful websites on teacher blogs offers students concurrent learning opportunities outside the classroom context and encourages students to take ownership of their learning. Encouraging students to find and post their own online resources gives them opportunities to facilitate and teach others;

– teachers who ask interesting questions to engage language learners in discussion tend to get interesting answers;

– if the activity within the online or face-to-face community begins to wane, then the teacher can motivate the students by restating the purpose and vision of what they are aiming for;

– celebrating achievements and events on blogs are a good way of creating lasting memories for both teachers and students.

The teacher may also use blogs:

– to refine some technical skills in the use of blogs as a writing tool;

– to direct and refer students to potential topics worth writing about;

– to instruct students to start a dialogue with others by responding to genuine queries;

– to invite students to elaborate upon topics by extending initial information;

– to invite responses by ending a posting with a question;

– to involve students explicitly in grammatical work;

– to react to and learn from the postings of other teachers;

– as a noticeboard, to encourage each other and their students.

The students may use blogs:

– to find a voice and establish themselves;

– to introduce themselves, their likes, dislikes, preferences, favourite topics (singers, food, hobbies, etc.);

– to express opinions and beliefs;

– to respond to teachers' requests and questions;

– to share news [20; 28].

Exercise 3. **Answer the questions**

1. Which kinds of research does Cooperative learning rely on? Can you explain the ties?

2. What differentiates cooperative learning from the competitive one? And what benefits does CLL bring into the classroom?

3. What types of groups may one belong to when involved in CLL? Were you ever engaged into any of the types?

4. What are the key characteristics of CLL? Do you find them useful for a foreign language class?

5. What cooperative learning tasks do you know? Do they really possess the CLL characteristics? What examples of CLL activities do you remember?

6. What roles does the teacher and learners perform in the CLL classroom? Are they different from those in the teacher-centered classroom?

7. What is a corpus? What does it include? What makes computer corpora helpful for researchers, teachers, students?

8. What is corpus linguistics? What is a concordance? What opportunities does the concordance bring?

9. How may a teacher use language corpora? Can you imagine any other activities?

10. What shortcomings do language corpora possess? Do you find them serious obstacles?

11. What is a blog? What foreign language learning opportunities does blogging bring? What problems may students/teachers face when blogging?

12. What are the ways to use blogs for teachers and students?

Exercise 4. **Fill in the lines with the missing information (1 word/combination in every line).**

1. …, Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotsky.

2. Communicative competence, …, cooperation.

3. Interaction, language skills, content-based instruction, …, new professional skills, active learning.

4. Formal cooperative learning groups, informal cooperative learning groups, … .

5. Positive interdependence, group formation, …, social skills, structuring and structures.

6. Team practice, jigsaw, … .

7. Three-step interview, Roundtable, Round Robin, …, Solve-Pair-Share, Numbered Heads.

8. …, checkers, recorders, information sharers.

9. Organizer, planner, controller, … .

Exercise 5. **Recollect what unites the following:**

1. Scripts, speeches, casual conversations, business letters, ESP texts, classroom language – … .

2. Word frequency, linguistic context – … .

3. Corpus, concordance, concordancer – … .

4. Access to authentic language, teaching grammar and vocabulary, study of learner language, corpus-based activities – … .

5. Website, regular entries/posts, images, links to other websites – … .

6. Journal, diary, blog – … .

7. International audience, feedback, immediate responses, writing portfolio, self-expression – … .

8. Frequency, brevity, personality – … .

AFTER READING

Do research on the topic:

1. Recall if you were ever involved in the CLL in your foreign language classes. Were they productive for you? What skills did they help you develop? Did you perform different functions? Which functions did your teachers perform? Did the activities possess the characteristics of the CLL? Describe your experiences in writing (20–30 sentences).

2. CLL obviously possesses some pluses. Can you imagine any minuses that may probably hamper effective learning of a foreign language?

3. Learn more about such a notion as "teacher-facilitator". How does it work in practice in a foreign language class and outside it? Why is it related to the CLL?

4. Surf the web and find some language corpus. Explore its potential. Get ready to present your findings in the classroom.

5. Find a language corpus. Choose a word you'd like to explore. Use the corpus to build a concordance. Produce a few activities around the given word and the concordance to be done in the classroom.

6. Talk to a few students and learn about their blogging experiences. Have they ever used blogs for educational purposes? Get ready to summarize your findings in class.

7. In small groups try to imagine as many activities to be organized by using blogs as possible. Get ready to share them with the class and choose the best ones.

Exercise 6. **Did you know that …**

1. A blog is a blend of the term web log. The term "weblog" was coined by Jorn Barger in 1997. The short form, "blog" was coined by Peter Merholz, who jokingly broke the word weblog into the phrase we blog in 1999. Most blogs are primarily textual, although some focus on art (art blog), photographs (photoblog), videos (video blogging or vlogging), music

(MP3 blog), and audio (podcasting). Microblogging is another type of blogging, featuring very short posts.

2. Because of the time and difficulty and expense involved in creating a concordance in the pre-computer era, only works of special importance, such as the Vedas, Bible, Qur'an or the works of Shakespeare, had concordances prepared for them.

3. Concordancing techniques are widely used in national corpora such as American National Corpus, British National Corpus, and Corpus of Contemporary American English available on-line.

APPENDIX A

SELF-EDUCATION QUOTES

1. “All men who have turned out worth anything have had the chief hand in their own education.” *(Sir Walter Scott)*

2. “Education is not a product: mark, diploma, job, money – in that order; it is a process, a never-ending one.” *(Bel Kaufman)*

3. “Formal education will make you a living; self-education will make you a fortune.” *(Jim Rohn)*

4. “I am learning all the time. The tombstone will be my diploma.” *(Eartha Kitt)*

5. “I have never let my schooling interfere with my education.” *(Mark Twain)*

6. “If you meet at dinner a man who has spent his life in educating himself – a rare type in our time … you rise from table richer, and conscious that a high ideal has for a moment touched and sanctified your days. But Oh! my dear Ernest, to sit next to a man who has spent his life in trying to educate others! What a dreadful experience that is!” *(Oscar Wilde)*

7. “Just as eating against one’s will is injurious to health, so studying without a liking for it spoils the memory, and it retains nothing it takes in.” *(Leonardo Da Vinci)*

8. “Learn everything you can, anytime you can, from anyone you can – there will always come a time when you will be grateful you did.” *(Sarah Caldwell)*

9. “Let us rise up and be thankful, for if we didn’t learn a lot today, at least we learned a little, and if we didn’t learn a little, at least we didn’t get sick, and if we got sick, at least we didn’t die; so, let us all be thankful.” *(Buddha)*

10. “Live as if you were to die tomorrow. Learn as if you were to live forever.” *(Mahatma Gandhi)*

11. “Only the curious will learn and only the resolute overcome the obstacles to learning. The quest quotient has always excited me more than the intelligence quotient.” *(Eugene S. Wilson)*

12. “Self-education is, I firmly believe, the only kind of education there is.” *(Isaac Asimov)*

13. “The illiterate of the 21st century will not be those who cannot read and write, but those who cannot learn, unlearn, and relearn.” *(Alvin Toffler)*

14. “The only person who is educated is the one who has learned how to learn and change.” *(Carl Rogers)*

15. “The purpose of learning is growth, and our minds, unlike our bodies, can continue growing as we continue to live.” *(Morris Adler)*

16. “The secret of the man who is universally interesting is that he is universally interested.” *(William Dean Howells)*

17. “The wisest mind has something yet to learn.” *(George Santayana)*

18. “There’s only one corner of the universe you can be certain of improving, and that’s your own self.” *(Aldous Huxley)*

19. “Through the power of self-education you can be anything you want to be or do anything you want to do. Self-education power does not require money, fixed time or fixed life style. Options are extremely flexible. Rewards are unlimited. You can control your destiny.” *(Bob Webb)*

20. “We learn more by looking for the answer to a question and not finding it than we do from learning the answer itself.” *(Lloyd Alexander)*

21. “What is important is to keep learning, to enjoy challenge, and to tolerate ambiguity. In the end there are no certain answers.” *(Martina Horner)*

22. “What sculpture is to a block of marble, education is to an human soul.” *(Joseph Addison)*

23. “Whenever you are asked if you can do a job, tell ’em, “Certainly I can!” Then get busy and find out how to do it.” *(Theodore Roosevelt)*

24. “Whoever ceases to be a student has never been a student.” *(George Iles)*

25. “Whoever will cultivate their own mind will find full employment. Every virtue does not only require great care in the planting, but as much daily solicitude in cherishing as exotic fruits and flowers; the vices and passions (which I am afraid are the natural product of the soil) demand perpetual weeding. Add to this the search after knowledge … and the longest life is too short. ” *(Lady Mary Wortley Montagu)*

26. “You can teach a student a lesson for a day; but if you can teach him to learn by creating curiosity, he will continue the learning process as long as he lives.” *(Clay P. Bedford)*

27. “You learn something every day if you pay attention.” *(Ray LeBlond*)

APPENDIX B

SOME RATIONAL READING STRATEGIES AND METHODS

1 Before Reading Strategies

1. **Visual Aids.** Pictures and other visual material can activate your prior knowledge. Use the Internet to search for pictures related to your title/topic to give you visual images of what you are about to read.

2. **Brainstorming.** Examine the title of the selection you are about to read. List all the information that comes to mind about this title. Use these pieces of information to recall and understand the material. Use this knowledge to reframe or reorder what you know, or to note what you disagree with, for further research.

3. **Concept or mind mapping.** This is a type of brainstorming where you place the title/subject as the main idea, then develop a "mind map" around it. It can be effective either in a group or by yourself.

4. **Pre-questions.** Often chapters in texts provide organizing questions. You can also write out a series of questions you expect to be answered when reading. Examples:

Definition	Examples	Characteristics	Experience
What is....? Where does ... fit? What group does ... belong to?	What is a good example of ...? What are similar examples that share attributes but differ in some way?	How would I describe...? What does ... look like? What are its parts?	What experience have I had with ....? What can I imagine about ...?

5. **Group discussions.** Group discussions will help you to discover what you bring to your reading, and what your fellow students bring, as well as shared experiences. If you find they have new background information, ask for more information from them

6. **Author Consideration.** Depending upon the content area, a discussion of the author of the particular work can be helpful to the understanding of it. What is the author trying to say? What is his point of view and his reason for writing the particular work?

7. **KWL.** It's a good strategy for group discussions. This strategy consists of three steps to use with expository text. Develop three columns with each question in a column and list out responses:

What do I Know?	What do I Want to learn?	What did I Learn?

2 While Reading Strategies

1. **Get a grasp of how the material is organized**: scan the section for titles, headings, sub-headings, and topic sentences to get its general idea; pay attention to graphs, charts, and diagrams; read the summary at the end of a chapter if there is one; check the beginning and the end for leading questions and exercises.

2. **First read for what you do understand**, and to determine difficulty. Mark what you do not understand to review later.

3. **Practice the "look-away method" as you read.** Periodically look away from the text and ask yourself a stimulus question relating to the text. Phrase the question positively. Respond, or restate, in your own words. Make connections and associations, but don't use this exercise to memorize but rather understand.

4. **Look up words** whose meanings are important to your understanding of the material, but you cannot discern from the context.

5. **Use graphics, pictures, colors, or movement** to visualize and connect ideas. Use whatever techniques work to help you understand.

6. **Organize your notes** by connecting ideas you choose into an outline or concept map. Pay attention to relationships between ideas.

7. **Re-read the section you have chosen with the framework** (outline or concept map) you have constructed in mind. Separate out what you do understand from what you do not.

8. **Read to the end**. Do not get discouraged and stop reading. Ideas can become clearer the more you read. When you finish reading, review to see what you have learned, and reread those ideas that are not clear.

9. **Do not panic if you do not understand your reading.** Set it aside, and read it again the next day. If necessary, repeat. This allows your brain to process the material, even while you sleep. This is referred to as distributed reading.

10. **Consult with your teacher** if the reading is still a challenge.

3 Comprehension Strategies and Methods

1. **Survey, Question, Read, Recite, and Review.** Survey, Question, Read, Recite, and Review, called SQ3R or SQRRR is a five-step reading strategy. The name is an abbreviation of the five steps of the strategy.

Survey or skim (two minutes): Before beginning reading look through the whole chapter. See what the headings are – the major ones and the subheadings; check for introductory and summary paragraphs, references, etc. Resist reading at this point, but see if you can identify 3 to 6 major ideas in the chapter.

Question (usually less than 30 seconds): Ask what the chapter is about: What is the question that this chapter is trying to answer? Or what question do I have that this chapter might help answer? Repeat this process with each subsection of the chapter, as well, turning each heading into a question. (As a variation of this technique, the reader can write the important question down; this is called SQW3R).

Read (at your own pace): Read one section at a time, looking for the answer to the question proposed by the heading.

Recite/write or recall (about a minute): Say out loud or write down a key phrase that sums up the major point of the section and answers the question. This should be in the reader's own words, not just a phrase from the book. Research shows that we remember our own (active) connections better than the ones given to us (passive), indeed that our own hierarchies are generally better than the best prefab hierarchies.

Review (less than five minutes): After repeating steps 2-4 for each section you have a list of key phrases that provides a sort of outline for the chapter. Test yourself by covering up the key phrases and seeing if you can recall them. If you can't recall one of your major points, that's a section you need to reread. The Review part is usually meant to be an ongoing process. Flashcards, notes, or other materials made during one of the above five steps can be used to review, a few minutes every day for several days.

SQ3R is a comprehension method originally created as a study skill strategy for college students. However, with direct teaching and practice, it works with students starting in the early elementary levels as well.

In order to fully develop an understanding of SQ3R, students need to have an understanding of text structures and be able to generate main ideas. Teachers need to take time to carefully introduce, teach, model, and provide

practice of each step. After an ample amount of time teaching and practicing the steps, students should practice applying it to various types and lengths of texts.

While the technique was introduced in 1946 by Francis Pleasant Robinson in his book, *Effective Study*, the principles behind SQ3R were first documented in the 1930s.

2. **The PQRST.** The PQRST is a method used by students to keep them on track. This method prioritizes the information in a way that relates directly to how they will be asked to use that information in an exam. The method can be modified to suit any particular form of learning in most subjects. It allows more accurate timing of work rather than the student having to decide how much time to attribute to a topic. PQRST is an acronym for *P*review, *Q*uestion, *R*ead, *S*ummary, *Test*.

Preview: the student looks at the topic to be learned by glancing over the major headings or the points in the syllabus.

Question: then questions to be answered once the topic has been thoroughly studied are formulated.

Read: reference material related to the topic is read through, and the information that best relates to the questions is chosen.

Summary: the student summarizes the topic, bringing his or her own ways of summarizing information into the process, including written notes, spider diagrams, flow diagrams, labeled diagrams, mnemonics, or even voice recordings.

Test: then the student answers the questions created in the question step as fully as possible, avoiding adding questions that might distract or change the subject.

3. **The Black-Red-Green.** It is a thoroughgoing method (developed through the Royal Literary Fund) which helps the student to ensure that every aspect of the question posed has been considered, both in exams and essays.

The student underlines relevant parts of the question using three separate colours (or some equivalent). *BLA*ck denotes "*BLA*tant instructions", i.e. something that clearly must be done; a directive or obvious instruction. *RE*d is a *RE*ference Point or *RE*quired input of some kind, usually to do with definitions, terms, cited authors, theory, etc. (either explicitly referred to or strongly implied). *GRE*en denotes *GRE*mlins, which are subtle signals one might easily miss, or a "*GRE*EN Light" that gives a hint on how to proceed, or where to place the emphasis in answers.

APPENDIX C

MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES PROFILE

Most of us have a mixture of different intelligences – the interesting thing is to find out each person's unique profile. What is yours? Put a tick against each item that is true about you.

1. I can hear words in my head before I speak or write them down.
2. I often have music playing while I'm studying or working.
3. I play at least one sport or physical activity regularly
4. I enjoy being out in the countryside and feel "trapped" in cities.
5. I prefer group sports to solo sports.
6. I keep a personal diary or journal.
7. I learn more from listening or reading than I do from TV or films.
8. I often see clear visual images when I close my eyes.
9. I regularly spend time alone meditating, or thinking about important questions.
10. I like things to be measured, analyzed, categorized or quantified in some way.
11. English and history are easier for me than math and science.
12. I am very interested in ecology and preserving the planet.
13. People come to me for advice.
14. My best ideas often come to me when I'm walking or doing something physical.
15. I can generally find my way around unfamiliar territory.
16. I often make tapping sounds or sing melodies while working or studying.
17. I enjoy teaching people what I know.
18. I find it much easier to do geometry than algebra.
19. I consider myself to be strong-willed or fiercely independent.
20. I can easily imagine how something would look from all angles.
21. If I hear a tune once or twice, I can usually sing it fairly accurately, and I can tell if a note is out of tune.
22. I consider myself (or others have called me) a leader.
23. I read books or attend seminars to learn more about myself.
24. I believe that most things have a rational explanation.
25. I find it difficult to sit still for long.
26. I like classifying things and sorting them into categories.
27. I have a special hobby or interest that I mostly keep to myself.

28. I play an instrument and/or I know the tunes to many songs or pieces of music.

29. I need to practice a new skill by doing it rather than hearing about it or seeing it.

30. I wonder about how things work.

31. I enjoy word games, tongue twisters, nonsense rhymes or puns.

32. I like to observe things closely and keep detailed records.

33. I can double or triple a cooking recipe or carpentry measurement in my head.

34. I often have a tune in my head.

35. Other people sometimes ask me to explain the meanings of words I use.

36. I enjoy solving jigsaw puzzles, mazes, or other visual puzzles.

37. I feel comfortable in a crowd.

38. I beat my friends in chess, checkers or other strategy games.

39. I know a lot about biology, rocks or stars.

40. I frequently use hand gestures or other forms of body language when conversing.

Multiple Intelligences Profile	
Type of Intelligence	Question No.
Linguistic	1, 7, 11, 31, 35
Logical-Mathematical	10, 24, 30, 33, 38
Spatial-Visual	8, 15, 18, 20, 36
Musical	2, 16, 21, 28, 34
Bodily-Kinesthetic	3, 14, 25, 29, 40
Interpersonal	5, 13, 17, 22, 37
Intrapersonal	6, 9, 19, 23, 27
Naturalist	4, 12, 26, 32, 39

APPENDIX D

Strategy	Substrategy	Example
Direct Strategies: Memory, Cognitive, and Compensation Strategies		
I *Memory* strategies	A Creating mental linkages	1 Grouping 2 Associating/elaborating 3 Placing new words into a context
	B Applying images and sounds	1 Using imagery 2 Semantic mapping 3 Using key words 4 Representing sounds in memory
	C Reviewing well	1 Structured viewing
	D Employing action	1 Using physical response or sensation 2 Using mechanical techniques
II *Cognitive* strategies	A Practicing	1 Repeating 2 Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems 3 Recognizing and using formulas and patterns 4 Recombining 5 Practicing naturalistically
	B Receiving and sending messages	1 Getting the idea quickly 2 Using resources for receiving and sending messages
	C Analyzing and reasoning	1 Reasoning deductively 2 Analyzing expressions 3 Analyzing contrastively (across languages) 4 Translating 5 Transferring
	D Creating structure for input and output	1 Taking notes 2 Summarizing 3 Highligting
III *Compensation* strategies	A Guessing intelligently	1 Using linguistic clues 2 Using other clues
	B Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing	1 Switching to the mother tongue 2 Getting help 3 Using mime or gesture 4 Avoiding communication partially or totally 5 Selecting the topic 6 Adjusting or approximating the message 7 Coining words 8 Using a circumlocution or synonym

The table termination

Strategy	Substrategy	Example
Indirect Strategies: Metacognitive, Affective, and Social Strategies		

OXFORD'S STRATEGY CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM (1990)

I *Metacognitive* strategies	A Centering your learning	1 Overview and linking with already known material. 2 Paying attention. 3 Delaying speech production to focus on listening
	B Arranging and planning your learning	1 Finding out about language learning. 2 Organizing. 3 Setting goals and objectives. 4 Identifying the purpose of a language task (purposeful listening/reading/speaking/writing). 5 Planning for a language task. 6 Seeking practice opportunities
	C Evaluating your learning	1 Self-monitoring. 2 Self-evaluating
II *Affective* strategies	A Lowering your anxiety	1 Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation. 2 Using music. 3 Using laughter
	B Encouraging yourself	1 Making positive statements 2 Taking risks wisely 3 Rewarding yourself
	C Taking your emotional temperature	1 Listening to your body 2 Using a checklist 3 Writing a language learning diary 4 Discussing your feelings with someone else
III *Social* strategies	A Asking questions	1 Asking for clarification or verification. 2 Asking for correction
	B Cooperating with others	1 Cooperating with others. 2 Cooperating with proficient users of the new language
	C Empathizing with others	1 Developing cultural understanding. 2 Becoming aware of others

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FOREIGN PEDAGOGICAL EXPERIENCE AS A MEANS OF SELF-EDUCATION OF A PROSPECTIVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER

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