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МЕТОДИКА ВИКЛАДАННЯ ІНОЗЕМНОЇ МОВИ

КОНСПЕКТ ЛЕКЦІЙ

з курсу «Методика викладання іноземної мови та зарубіжної літератури» для здобувачів освіти першого (бакалаврського) рівня за спеціальністю 035 «Філологія» спеціалізацією 035.041 Германські мови і літератури (переклад включно), перша − англійська

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Рекомендовано до друку Науково-методичною радою Одеського національного університету імені І. І. Мечникова Протокол № 4 від 14 вересня 2023 року

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Introduction

An important challenge of today is to enhance the effectiveness of professional training for graduates of higher education institutions, particularly for bachelor's degrees in philology. In the context of globalization and rapid development across various fields of knowledge, the demand for foreign language proficiency continues to rise. Consequently, there is an increasing need for foreign language teachers. The lecture outline "Methodology of Teaching Foreign Languages" aims to equip undergraduate students with theoretical knowledge about the psychological foundations, innovative technologies, and modern teaching methods of English language instruction in secondary schools. It also acquaints them with the methodological principles and specifics of foreign language teaching, explores the interconnection between English language teaching methodology and other disciplines, reveals the main objectives of English language lessons in schools, and develops practical skills in employing both traditional and contemporary teaching methods and techniques for English language instruction.

The objectives of the lecture outline are to provide students with fundamental knowledge of English language teaching principles in schools, prepare them for teacher planning, teach language as a system, and foster students' abilities in all forms of communicative activities. Additionally, it aims to introduce methods and techniques of English language teaching using modern tools and forms of organizing the educational process, as well as incorporating information and communication technologies.

Lecture 1.

Theme: The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages in its Cultural Context. The Common Reference Levels. Materials development in language teaching. Psycholinguistic peculiarities of language learning process.

1.1. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages in its Cultural Context

As stated by the CEFR authors, one of the main objectives in education is to encourage contemporary language teaching approaches that foster independent thinking, judgment, and action, as well as social skills and responsibility. The emphasis in teaching is on learners developing their personal

knowledge and abilities [1, p. 2-4].

Communicative language competence is considered as comprising multiple elements, including linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic components. Each of these components involves knowledge, skills, and practical know-how. **Linguistic competences** encompass understanding lexical, phonological, and syntactic aspects of a language, as well as its system, regardless of the social value of its variations and the practical functions of its usage. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) considers this component within an individual's communicative language competence, which includes not only the breadth and quality of knowledge

(such as distinguishing phonetic sounds and having a wide and precise vocabulary) but also the cognitive organization of this knowledge (how a speaker organizes lexical items within associative networks) and its accessibility (activation, recall, and availability). Proficiency in a phonetic system may vary in terms of conscious and effortless expression. The organization and accessibility of vocabulary, collocations, and expressions may also depend on the cultural characteristics of the community or communities in which an individual has been socialized and where their learning has taken place [1, p. 13-14].

Sociolinguistic competences refer to the understanding and application of language in social and cultural contexts. These competences are influenced by societal conventions, which include rules of politeness, norms governing relationships across generations, genders, classes, and social groups, as well as the linguistic structure of significant communal rituals. The sociolinguistic aspect greatly affects communication between individuals from different cultures, even if they are not always aware of its impact.

Pragmatic competences involve the practical use of linguistic resources, including the ability to perform language functions and speech acts. They rely on familiar scenarios or patterns of interactive exchanges and also encompass skills in managing discourse, maintaining cohesion and coherence, recognizing different types and forms of text, and using appropriate syntax and stylistic techniques. These competences, in addition to being linguistic in nature, are shaped by interactions and cultural environments in which they are developed. Language learners and users activate their communicative language competence during **various language activities,** such as reception, production, interaction, or mediation (such as interpreting or translating). These activities can involve both spoken and written texts.

Reception and production processes, whether oral or written, are crucial for communication and interaction. However, these terms have distinct

roles when considered individually. Receptive activities involve activities like silent reading and listening, which are essential for understanding media or texts. They play a vital role in various forms of learning, such as comprehending course materials, using grammar references and textbooks at different proficiency levels, and working with reference materials. On the other hand, productive activities are necessary in academic and professional settings, including delivering oral presentations and writing studies and reports. It's important to note that these activities hold social value, as they are used to judge the quality of written work or the fluency of spoken language during presentations.

Interaction occurs when at least two individuals engage in oral and/or written exchanges, where production and reception alternate and may overlap, especially in oral communication. Interlocutors can simultaneously speak and listen to each other. Even in situations where turn-taking is strictly observed, listeners often anticipate the speaker's message and prepare a response. Learning to interact involves more than just receiving and producing utterances. Interaction is highly valued in language usage and learning because it plays a vital role in effective communication [1, p. 13-14].

Within both receptive and productive modes, **mediation activities,** whether written or oral, enable communication between individuals who cannot directly communicate with each other for various reasons. Translation or interpretation, paraphrasing, summarizing, or transcribing provide a rephrased version of a source text to a third party who doesn't have direct access to it. Mediating language activities involve (re)processing existing texts and hold a significant position in the normal functioning of societies' linguistic interactions [1, p. 13-14].

1.2. The Common Reference Levels.

The CEFR establishes a shared foundation for developing language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, exams, and textbooks throughout Europe. It offers a comprehensive description of what language learners need to learn in order to use a language effectively for communication, as well as the knowledge, skills, and abilities they need to develop in order to achieve communicative competence. The description also encompasses the cultural aspects of language usage. Furthermore, the Framework defines proficiency levels that enable learners' progress to be assessed at each stage of learning and throughout their lives.

The proficiency of a language learner refers to their skill level in using the language. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) provides a framework consisting of **six broad levels** to assess a learner's proficiency: A (Basic User), including A1 (Breakthrough) and A2 (Waystage); B (Independent User), including B1 (Threshold) and B2 (Vantage); C (Proficient User), including C1 (Effective Operational Proficiency) and C2 (Mastery, Proficient User). A proficient user is someone who possesses a native-like or near native-like ability in the language, typically corresponding to the C2 level according to the CEFR. In CEFR terms, a proficient user can effortlessly comprehend almost everything they hear or read, summarize information from various spoken and written sources, construct coherent arguments, and express themselves spontaneously, fluently, and precisely, even in complex situations [1, p.22-25].

1.3. Materials Development in Language Teaching

The term "materials" refers to anything used by teachers or learners to facilitate language learning. Examples of materials include videos, DVDs, emails, YouTube, dictionaries, grammar books, workbooks, photocopied exercises, newspapers, and live talks by native speakers. Materials development is both a field of study and a practical endeavor. It involves studying the design, implementation, and evaluation of language teaching materials, as well as the use of materials by teachers to provide language input.

There are **fundamental principles** that apply to the development of language teaching materials:

Impact: Materials should have a profound effect on learners by capturing their curiosity, interest, and attention. This can be achieved through novelty, variety, attractive presentation, appealing content, and achievable intellectual challenges.

Learner's comfort: Materials should help learners feel at ease, as research shows that less anxious learners acquire language better. Learners are more comfortable with written materials that have white space, culturally relatable content, and materials that are designed to help them learn rather than constantly test them.

Active participation: Materials should encourage and support learners' active participation. Learners should be prompted to explore and uncover knowledge independently, and they should have the necessary cognitive readiness to grasp the concepts being taught.

Authentic use: Learners should be exposed to materials that reflect authentic language use. Materials should draw learners' attention to the linguistic aspects of the input and provide opportunities for effective communication in the target language .

Delayed effects of instruction: Materials should consider that the positive effects of instruction often occur with a delay. Learners should not be expected

to immediately use a new language feature effectively. Materials should also cater to learners' different learning styles, motivation, and attitudes [11, p.8-12].

1.4. Psycholinguistic peculiarities of language learning process.
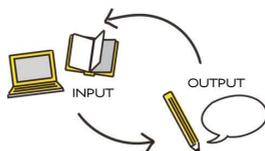
To plan lessons that go beyond mere entertainment, it is essential to have a clear understanding of how individuals think while learning a language. By aligning our planned activities with the stages of students' progress in language learning, we can better facilitate the learning process. The stages of students' progress when learning a new language item with the following labels are as follows: ignorance (the learner has no knowledge of the language item), exposure (the learner encounters examples of the language item through listening or reading, but doesn't pay particular attention to it), noticing (the learner begins to realize that there is a language feature they don't fully understand), understanding (the learner starts to examine the language item more closely, attempting to deduce the rules of formation and meaning with the help of reference materials, explanations, and other aids), practice (the learner tries to incorporate the language item into their speech or writing, possibly with hesitancy and errors), active use (the learner fully integrates the language item into their own speech, using it relatively easily and with minimal errors) [7, p.110-115].

The distinction between **authentic and restricted exposure** lies in whether the language input comes from realistic texts or closely resembles natural language usage (authentic exposure: reading magazines, books, articles;

listening to casual conversations; watching English films) or whether the input is noticeably simplified or contains an unusually high number of examples of a specific language feature (restricted exposure: reading or listening to coursebook texts designed to introduce specific language items; reading examples of particular language features in a grammar book).

Input refers to the spoken or written language learners are exposed to. Language acquisition cannot occur without input. In the 1980s, Stephen Krashen, an American applied linguist, introduced the input hypothesis, which distinguishes between acquisition and learning. Krashen argues that input is sufficient for language acquisition (subconscious and free from anxiety) to take place, while learning involves consciously studying and practicing individual language items. Krashen emphasizes the importance of comprehensible input, which means language that students understand to some extent, even if it is slightly above their current production level. The input should also include grammatical forms that are slightly more advanced than the learner's current interlanguage system (the transitional grammatical system created by a learner in the process of learning a new language, situated between their first language and the target language) [7, p.110-115]. Teachers can assist learners by modifying or controlling the input to ensure its intelligibility. This is a natural practice when interacting with young children (using caretaker speech) or learners of a foreign language. In both cases, the input is simplified and delivered at a slower pace. Researchers suggest that these modifications may aid the development of the learner's interlanguage. **Output** refers to the language produced by learners, whether spoken or written. The output hypothesis states that output is a necessary condition for language acquisition. Merrill Swain argues that learners need to be encouraged to produce comprehensible output. If learners are only exposed to comprehensible input, they may understand the message but overlook how the message is formulated. By being pushed to produce language, learners are more likely to notice gaps in their language

knowledge. Pushing learners involves providing feedback and encouraging them to repeat and improve their output in terms of speed and accuracy [7, p.110-115].

In 2001, Lorin W. Anderson, David R. Krathwohl, and their team released a revised version of the Educational Learning Objectives originally formulated by Benjamin S. Bloom and his team back in 1956. This revised framework, commonly referred to as Bloom's Taxonomy, encompasses six distinct categories within the cognitive process dimension: Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation. These six categories are systematically organized in a hierarchical manner, reflecting increasing levels of complexity, progressing from the most basic to the most advanced. Bloom's Taxonomy serves as a widely adopted system for classifying learning objectives and assessment methods.

In the Revised Bloom's Taxonomy (RBT), Anderson and Krathwohl introduced two key dimensions that shape learning objectives: the knowledge dimension and the cognitive process dimension. The knowledge dimension encompasses the core subject matter being taught, while the cognitive process dimension describes the specific actions and mental processes involved in engaging with the material. Essentially, the knowledge dimension is represented as nouns, while the cognitive process dimension is articulated as verbs. The knowledge dimension further divides into four categories: factual knowledge, conceptual knowledge, procedural knowledge, and metacognitive knowledge, marking an expansion from the previous three categories found in Bloom's Taxonomy.
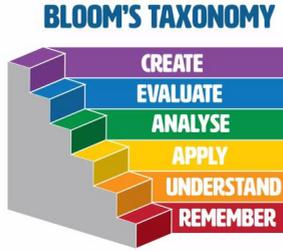
Table 1.1 presents a comparative analysis of the distinctions between Bloom's Taxonomy and RBT, highlighting three fundamental differences: (a) the shift from using nouns in Bloom's Taxonomy to employing verbs in RBT; (b) the repositioning of the evaluation and synthesis categories; and (c) the alteration of the term "synthesis" to "create."

Table 1.1

Changes of Cognitive Process Dimension

Bloom's Taxonomy	Knowledge	Comprehension	Application	Analysis	Synthesis	Evaluation
Revised Bloom'sTaxonomy	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyse	Evaluate	Create

Explanations for each category in the knowledge dimension and the cognitive dimension are described in tables 1.2 and 1.3, which are derived from Anderson et al. The authors compiled examples for each category by adjusting the context to language teaching. Besides, the Operational Verb in Table 1.3 was adapted from Retnawati et al [4, p. 5-9].

Table 1.2

Knowledge Dimension

Types and Sub-types	Examples
a. Factual Knowledge – The basic elements that students must know how to be familiar with their scientific discipline or to solve problems in it	
1) Knowledge of terminology	Vocabulary, Phonetic Symbols
2) Knowledge of specific details and elements	Alphabets, Numbers, Day Names, Month Names
b. Conceptual Knowledge – The interrelationships between basic elements in a larger unitary structure that allows each element to function together	
1) Knowledge of classifications and categories	Word classes: Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, etc.
2) Knowledge of principles and generalizations Usage and Rule of Indonesian	Spelling System General Manual
3) Knowledge of theories, models, and structures	Theories of Text, Written Text Model, Active/Passive. Structure Sentence
c. Procedural Knowledge – How to do things; The method of conducting an investigation;and criteria for using skills, workflows, techniques, and methods	
1) Knowledge of subject-specific skills and algorithms	The skills used to make text; how to make a dialogue
2) Knowledge of subject-specific techniques and methods	Presentation technique, skimming, scanning and literary criticism
3) Knowledge of criteria for determining when to use appropriate procedures	The criteria used to determine when to use a type of text
d. Metacognitive Knowledge – Knowledge of how to obtain knowledge in general and awareness of how a person acquires knowledge	
1) Strategic knowledge	Knowledge to understand novels easily and precisely, knowledge of how to read fast
2) Knowledge about cognitive tasks, including appropriate contextual and conditional knowledge	Knowledge to be able to do a test (spoken or written), and school assignment effectively
3) Self-knowledge	Knowledge on how to recognize one's strengths and weaknesses related to the four language skills (reading, listening, writing, speaking)

Table 1.3

Cognitive Process Dimension

Categories & Cognitive Processes	Alternative Terms	Explanation and Examples	Operational Verbs
a. Remember – take relevant knowledge from long-term memory			
1) Recognizing	Identifying	Make good use of the knowledge taken from the long-term memory into appropriate learning material *Example:* Recognize the names of days in foreign language	Choose Quote Mention Explain Draw Count Identify Register Show Label Index Pair Name Mark Read Aware Memorize Imitate Note Repeat Reproduce Review State Learn Tabulate Code Trace Write
2) Recalling	Retrieving	Take relevant knowledge from long-term memory *Example:* Remember how to greet and address in foreign language	
b. Understand – develop meaning based on the instructional message, including spoken, written, and graphic communication			
1) Interpreting	Clarifying, paraphrasing, representing, and translating	Change one form to another (example: change numeric form to verbal) *Example:* Paraphrase speech, changing nominal form to verbal	Estimate Describe Categorize Specify Detail Associate Compare Count Contrast

			Change
2) Exemplifying	Illustrating and instantiating	Look for examples or specific illustration of a concept or principle *Example:* Provide examples for one or several types of text (written)	Maintain Elaborate Intertwine Differentiate Discuss Explore Exemplify Explain State
3) Classifying	Categorizing and subsuming	Include something into categorize (example: concept or principle) *Example:* Classify words based on word classes	Scheme Extend Conclude Predict Summarize
4) Summarizing	Abstracting and generalizing	Abstract general themes or key points *Example:* Write a summary of an event on video	
5) Inferring	Concluding, extrapolating, interpolating, and predicting	Arrange logical conclusions from the information obtained *Example:* Infer the grammatical rules based on the example given when learning foreign language	
6) Comparing	Contrasting, mapping, and matching	Identify the correlation between two ideas, objects, etc. *Example:* Compare the structure of active and passive sentences	

7) Explaining	Constructing and models	Construct a causal model of a system *Example:* Explain how to form noun phrases based on the example collection of phrases that have been studied	
c. Apply – carry out or use procedures in certain circumstances			
1) Executing	Carrying out	Implement procedures to complete known tasks *Example:* Roleplay (simulate an existing dia-logue)	Assign Sort Determine Implement Adjust Calculate Modify Classify Count Build Arrange Accustom Prevent Portray Use Assess Practice Dig Declare Adapt Investigate Operate Question Conceptualize Execute Predict Produce Process Link Compile Simulate Solve Commit Tabulate
2) Implementing	Using	Implement procedures for completing unknown tasks *Example:* Arrange dialogue with new contexts	

d. Analyze – break down the material into several parts, and determine the correlation between the parts, and relate them with the overall structure or purpose			
1) Differentiating	Discriminating, distinguishing, focusing, and selecting	Distinguish relevant and irrelevant, or important and unimportant parts of the materials that have been presented *Example:* Distinguish one type of text (writing) from another text	Analyze Audit Resolve Affirm Detect Diagnose Select Detail Nominate Diagrammatize Correlate Rationalize Test Enlighten Explore Outline Summarize Conclude Analyze Infer Command Edit Relate Choose Measure Train Transfer
2) Organizing	Finding coherence, integrating, outlining, parsing, and structuring	Determine how elements work or function in a structure *Example:* Determine a text structure, determine the use of words and sentence patterns for specific purposes	
3) Attributing	Deconstructing	Determine the point of view, bias, value or purpose behind the material that has been presented *Example:* Determine the author's point of view in the editorial text	
e. Evaluate – make evaluations based on criteria and standards			
1) Checking	Coordinating, detecting, monitoring, and testing	Detect inconsistencies and errors in a process or product; determine the process or product that has internal consistency; and detect the	Compare Infer Asses Direct Criticize Consider Decide Separate

		effectiveness of a procedure that is implemented *Example:* Check the veracity of the contents of the writing; check the use of words, grammar, structure used in text	Predict Clarify Assign Interpret Maintain Detail Measure Summarize Prove Validate Test Support Select Project
2) Critiquing	Judging	Detect inconsistencies between a product and external criteria; determine which products have external consistency; detect suitability of the procedure for a given problem *Example:* Evaluate written or spoken words that are appropriate or easy to understand among several choices	
f. Create – put elements together in a coherent or overall functional form; reorganize elements into new patterns or structures			
1) Generating	Hypothesizing	Make alternative hypotheses based on criteria *Example:* Make a report based on observation	Abstract Organize Animate Collect Categorize Code Combine Arrange Compose Build Overcome Connect Invent
2) Planning	Designing	Create a procedure to complete a task *Example:* Outline an essay framework,	

			Create
		arrange a report writing	Correct
3) Producing	Constructing	Create a product	Design
			Plan
		Example:	Spell
		Produce a spoken	Enhance
		and written text	Clarify
		with own creation	Facilitate
			Form
			Formulate
			Generalize
			Group
			Integrate
			Limit
			Show
			Prepare
			Produce
			Summarize
			Reconstruct
			Make

Self-assessment questions.

1. Define the ultimate aim of education as stated by the CEFR authors.
2. Discuss the components that comprise Communicative Language Competence.
3. Provide definitions for linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences. Illustrate your answer with examples. Dwell on language activities.
4. Speak about a framework of levels established by the CEFR to assess a learner's proficiency.
5. Enumerate the key principles relevant to the development of materials for the teaching of languages.
6. Provide definitions for authentic/restricted exposure; input/output; acquisition/learning. What are the revised Bloom's taxonomies? What is the difference of revised Bloom's taxonomy?

Lecture 2.

History of language teaching methods. The nature of approaches and methods in language teaching. Major trends in twentieth-century language teaching. The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching. The Audiolingual Method.

2.1. History of Language Teaching. The nature of approaches and methods in language teaching.

When examining the history of language teaching methods, we can observe that the motivations behind modern methodological advancements were similar to those that have always been central to discussions on how to teach foreign languages. Changes in language teaching methods over time have reflected the recognition of evolving language proficiency requirements, such as a shift towards prioritizing oral proficiency over reading comprehension as the objective of language study. These changes have also been influenced by evolving theories regarding the nature of language and language acquisition.

While English is currently the most commonly studied foreign language worldwide, 500 years ago Latin held that position due to its dominance in education, commerce, religion, and government in the Western world. However, in the sixteenth century, political changes in Europe led to French, Italian, and English gaining importance, gradually displacing Latin as a spoken and written language. The study of Latin then took on a different purpose, with its grammar and rhetoric serving as the model for foreign language study from the 17th to the 19th century. In this period, students entering "grammar school" in England were initially taught through memorization of grammar rules, declensions, and conjugations, translation, and practice in writing sample sentences. Once basic proficiency was established, students progressed to advanced grammar and rhetoric studies. Although there were occasional attempts to promote alternative

educational approaches, Latin remained a fundamental discipline seen as essential for higher education [6, p. 3-18].

As "modern" languages began to be included in European school curricula in the 18th century, they were taught using the same methods employed for teaching Latin. Textbooks consisted of abstract grammar rules, vocabulary lists, and sentences for translation. Speaking the foreign language was not the primary objective, and oral practice was limited to students reading aloud the translated sentences.
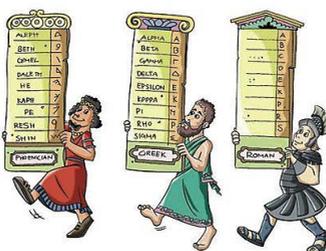
By the 19th century, this Latin-based approach had become the standard method of teaching foreign languages in schools and became known as the **Grammar-Translation Method.** This method originated from German scholarship and was initially called the Prussian Method in the United States. The Grammar-Translation Method focused on the following key aspects:

The goal of learning a foreign language was primarily to read its literature or to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development it provided.

Reading and writing were the main focuses, with little to no attention given to speaking or listening skills.

Vocabulary selection was based on the texts used, and words were taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study, and memorization.

Sentences served as the fundamental unit for teaching and language practice, with a significant portion of the lessons dedicated to translating sentences to and from the target language.

Emphasis was placed on accuracy.

Grammar was taught deductively through the presentation and study of rules, which were practiced through translation exercises [6, p. 18-36].

The native language of students was used to explain new concepts and facilitate comparisons between the foreign language and their native language.

The Grammar-Translation Method dominated European and foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s, and although it continues to be used in some parts of the world today, it has been modified and is no longer practiced as a method in the same way. However, solely focusing on Grammar-Translation prevents students from receiving natural language input that aids language acquisition and hinders their ability to actively use the language for communication. While this method teaches about language, it does not effectively promote effective communication.

In the mid- to late 19th century, opposition to the Grammar-Translation Method emerged in various European countries, leading to a reform movement that laid the groundwork for the development of new language teaching approaches.

During the mid-nineteenth century, several factors led to a rejection of the Grammar-Translation Method. The increase in opportunities for communication among Europeans created a need for oral proficiency in foreign languages. Noteworthy figures like T. Prendergast and F. Gouin observed that children rely on contextual cues and memorized phrases to understand and speak languages. They advocated for teaching learners the fundamental structural patterns of a language. These ideas influenced later approaches such as Situational Language Teaching and Total Physical Response, which emphasized presenting new teaching items in clear contexts and using gestures and actions to convey meaning [6, p. 18-36].

Despite the innovators' ideas and methods, there were challenges in gaining wider acceptance and implementation. However, teachers and linguists

began to discuss the necessity for new language teaching approaches, laying the groundwork for broader pedagogical reforms through their writings and speeches.

In the 1880s, linguists like Henry Sweet, Paul Passy, and Wilhelm Vietor emerged as intellectual leaders, contributing to the acceptance of reformist ideas. The field of phonetics provided new insights into speech processes, leading to the establishment of the International Phonetic Association in 1886 and the creation of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), enabling accurate transcription of sounds in any language.

Henry Sweet argued that methodological principles should be based on scientific language analysis and psychological studies. In his book "The Practical Study of Languages" (1899), he outlined four principles for developing teaching methods: careful selection and limitation of what is taught, organizing teaching materials according to the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), and grading materials from simple to complex.

Late nineteenth-century reformers like Vietor, Sweet, and others shared similar beliefs about the principles underlying a new approach to teaching foreign languages. These included prioritizing spoken language, applying phonetics in teaching and teacher training, introducing the language through listening before written forms, presenting words in sentences and meaningful contexts rather than in isolation, teaching grammar inductively after practice in context, and minimizing translation while using the native language for explanations and comprehension checks [6, p. 18-36].

These principles formed the theoretical foundations of language teaching but didn't assume the form of a specific method.

In the 19th century, L. Sauveur, through his **Natural Method,** advocated for intensive oral interaction in the target language. He opened a school in Boston in the late 1860s, and his approach became known as the Natural Method. Sauveur and other proponents argued that a foreign language could be

taught without translation or the learner's native language, using demonstration, action, and direct conveyance of meaning. Teachers initially replaced textbooks, focusing on pronunciation and using known words to teach new vocabulary through mime, demonstration, and pictures.

These natural language learning principles laid the groundwork for the **Direct Method**, which gained prominence in the United States through the successful language schools of Sauveur and M. Berlitz. The Direct Method emphasized the following principles in practice: conducting classroom instruction exclusively in the target language, teaching everyday vocabulary and sentences, building oral communication skills through carefully structured question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small classes, inductively teaching grammar, presenting new teaching points orally, teaching vocabulary through demonstration, objects, and pictures, and emphasizing correct pronunciation and grammar. Both speaking and listening comprehension were emphasized [6, p. 18-36].

While the Direct Method succeeded in private language schools with motivated learners and native-speaking teachers, its implementation in secondary school education was challenging. The method relied heavily on teachers' proficiency rather than textbooks, making it difficult for all teachers to adhere to its principles.

During the 1920s, the utilization of the Direct Method in educational institutions outside of commercial schools in Europe experienced a decrease. Meanwhile, in the United States, the groundwork for Audiolingualism was being established, while in Britain, the Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching was being developed, both during the 1920s and 1930s.

2.2. Major trends in twentieth-century language teaching. The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching.

In 1963, Edward Antony, an American applied linguist, identified three levels of conceptualization and organization, namely approach, method, and technique.

An approach refers to a collection of interconnected assumptions that address the nature of language teaching and learning. It is based on fundamental principles and describes the essence of the subject matter to be taught [6, p. 19].

A method, on the other hand, entails a comprehensive plan for the systematic presentation of grammar materials. It should align with the selected approach without any contradictions and serve as a procedural framework.

A technique is an implementation strategy or specific tactic employed to achieve immediate objectives. Techniques must be in harmony with both the method and the approach, ensuring consistency throughout the language teaching process [6, p. 19].

The most vibrant era of approaches and methods spanned from the 1950s to the 1980s. During this period, the Audiolingual Method and the Situational Method emerged, but were eventually replaced by the Communicative Approach. Concurrently, other methods surfaced, such as the Silent Way, the Natural Approach, and the Total Physical Response. In the 1990s, Content-Based Instruction and Task-Based Language Teaching gained prominence. Additionally, various approaches originally developed in general education, including Cooperative Learning, Whole Language Approach, and Multiple Intelligences, have been adapted for second language settings.

The Oral Approach, also known as Situational Language Teaching, refers to a teaching approach in language education that was developed by British applied linguists between the 1930s and 1960s. This approach has had a lasting impact and has influenced the design of numerous ESL/EFL textbooks and courses, many of which are still in use today.

The origins of this approach can be traced back to the work of British applied linguists during the 1920s and 1930s. During this time, several influential figures in applied linguistics laid the groundwork for a systematic approach to language teaching methodology. Among the leaders of this movement were Harold Palmer and A.S. Hornby, who were prominent figures in British language teaching in the twentieth century. One of the initial areas of focus in method design was the role of vocabulary, as language teaching specialists widely agreed that vocabulary acquisition was crucial in foreign language learning [6, p. 36-45].

In some countries, there was an increasing emphasis on developing reading skills as the primary goal of foreign language study. Harold Palmer, Michael West, and other experts produced A General Service List of English Words in 1953, which became a standard reference for developing teaching materials. These efforts to establish a scientific and rational basis for selecting vocabulary content in language courses represented the first steps towards establishing principles of syllabus design in language teaching.

Palmer particularly emphasized the challenges posed by grammar for foreign learners. He viewed grammar as the underlying patterns of spoken language. Alongside Palmer, Hornby, and other British applied linguists, the grammatical structures of English were analyzed and categorized into sentence patterns. These patterns served as a tool to help internalize the rules of English sentence structure.

From the 1920s onwards, Palmer, Hornby, and other British linguists developed a methodology that encompassed systematic principles of selection, gradation, and presentation. These principles were collectively known as the Oral Approach to language teaching, and by the 1950s, it had become the accepted British approach to teaching English. The main characteristics of this

approach were as follows: teaching begins with spoken language, materials are initially taught orally before being introduced in written form, the target language is used in the classroom, new language points are introduced and practiced in situational contexts, vocabulary selection follows specific procedures to cover essential general service vocabulary, grammar items are graded according to the principle of teaching simple forms before complex ones, and reading and writing skills are introduced once an adequate lexical and grammatical foundation is established [6, p. 36-50].

It was during the 1960s that the third principle became a prominent aspect of the approach, and the term "situational" started to be used more frequently to describe the Oral Approach. Speech was considered the foundation of language, and the structure was seen as central to speaking ability. Language learning was viewed as habit formation, involving three processes: receiving knowledge through exposure, reinforcing it through repetition, and applying it in practical usage until it becomes a personal skill.

"Situational" referred to the use of concrete objects, pictures, and real-life materials to demonstrate the meanings of new language items. Practice techniques commonly employed included guided repetition, substitution activities, such as chorus repetition, dictation, drills, and controlled oral-based reading and writing tasks. The teacher played a crucial role, resembling a skilled conductor who draws out music from performers. Lessons were typically teacher-centered, with learners initially required to listen and repeat the teacher's words and respond to questions and commands. As the learning progressed, more active participation was encouraged. The teacher's responsibilities encompassed timing, providing oral practice to reinforce textbook structures, revision, addressing individual needs, testing, and developing language activities beyond the scope of the textbook [6, p. 36-45].

Dr. Howard Gardner, an education professor at Harvard University, developed **the theory of multiple intelligences** in 1983. **Multiple Intelligences** (MI) is a learner-centered philosophy that views human intelligence as multi-dimensional. Traditionally, intelligence has been perceived as a single, innate capacity that remains constant throughout a person's life. This perspective is reflected in IQ tests, such as the Stanford-Binet test. However, Gardner proposed the "Multiple Intelligences Model" in 1993, specifically applicable to language education. According to Gardner, individuals possess a combination of eight primary intelligences, with the potential addition of a ninth called "existentialist intelligence." These intelligences can be described as follows:

Linguistic intelligence: the ability to effectively use language ("word smart").

Logical-mathematical intelligence: the capacity for rational thinking and problem-solving ("number/reasoning smart").

Spatial intelligence: the aptitude for forming mental models and understanding spatial relationships ("picture smart").

Bodily-Kinesthetic intelligence: proficiency in physical coordination and body movement ("body smart").

Musical intelligence: a keen sensitivity and understanding of music ("music smart").

Interpersonal intelligence: the ability to effectively interact and collaborate with others ("people smart").

Intrapersonal intelligence: self-awareness and a deep understanding of oneself ("self smart").

Naturalist intelligence: a comprehension of natural patterns and the ability to understand and appreciate nature ("nature smart").

Dr. Gardner's theory expands the concept of intelligence beyond a singular dimension, recognizing and valuing the diverse ways in which individuals excel across various intelligences [6, p. 115-125-45].

2.3. The Audiolingual Method

The Coleman Report in 1929 recommended a reading-based approach to foreign language teaching for use in American schools and colleges. Rapid silent reading was the goal.

The entry of the USA into World War II had a significant effect on language teaching in America. To supply the U.S. government with personnel who were fluent in German, French, Italian, Chinese and other languages, who could work as interpreters, code-room assistants, and translators, it was necessary to set up a special language training program. The Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) was established in 1942. Fifty-five American universities were involved in the program by the beginning of 1943.

The objective of the army programs was for students to attain conversational proficiency in a variety of foreign languages. Students studied 10 hours a day, 6 days a week. There were generally 15 hours of drill with native speakers and 20 to 30 hours of private study spread over two to three-6 week sessions. The methodology of the Army Method derived from the intensity of contact with the target language rather than from any well-developed

methodological basis. It was a program innovative mainly in terms of the procedures used and the intensity of teaching. The language was taught by systematic attention to pronunciation and by intensive oral drilling of its basic sentence patterns [6, p. 50-71].

The combination of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures, and behaviorist psychology led to the Audiolingual Method. The term Audiolingualism was coined by professor Nelson Brooks in 1964. The key methodological principles: foreign language learning is a process of habit formation; new language items in the target language are to be presented in spoken form before seen in written form; teaching a language involves teaching aspects of the cultural system of the native speakers. Audiolingualism is a teacher-dominated method.

Dialogues and drills from the basis of audiolingual classroom practices. dialogues were used for repetition and memorization. The use of drills and pattern practice is a distinctive feature of the Audiolingual Method. Various kinds of drills are used:

Repetition (students repeat an utterance aloud as soon as they have heard it without looking at a printed text. Sound is considered as important as from and order.

Inflection (one word in an utterance appears in a different form when repeated).

Replacement (one word in an utterance is replaced by another).

Restatement (the student expresses an utterance differently and addresses it to someone else according to instructions).

Completion (the student hears an utterance in an incomplete from, he/she rephrases it completed from).

Transposition (a change in word order is required when a new word is added) [6, p. 50-71].

Expansion (when a new word is added it takes a new place in the sequence).

Contraction (a single word stands for a phrase or a clause).

Transformation (a sentence is transformed by being made negative or interrogative, or by means of changes in tense, mood, voice, aspect or modality of verbs, or number of nouns etc).

Integration (two separate utterances are integrated into one).

Rejoinder (the student responds in one of the required ways (be polite; express regret; disagree) to a given utterance).

Restoration (the student is given a sequence of words, he/she uses these prompts and has to restore the sentence to its original form) [6, p. 50-71].

Audiolingualism reached its period of most widespread use in the 1960s and was applied both to the teaching of foreign languages in the USA and to the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. The theoretical attack on audiolingual beliefs resulted from changes in American linguistic theory in the 1960s. The MIT linguist Noam Chomsky rejected the structuralist approach to language description as well as the behaviourist theory of language learning. Language is not a habit structure. Much of language use is not imitated behaviour from underlying knowledge but is created anew from abstract rules. Sentences are not learnt by imitation and repetition but "generated" from the learner's competence [6, p. 50-71].

The lack of an alternative to Audiolingualism led in the 1970s and 1980s to a period of innovation and experimentation. Several alternative method proposals appeared in the 1970s, including Total Physical Response, the Silent Way.

Audiolingualism gained widespread popularity in the 1960s and was utilized for teaching foreign languages in the United States, as well as teaching English as a second or foreign language. However, in the 1960s, changes in American linguistic theory led to a theoretical critique of audio lingual beliefs.

Linguist Noam Chomsky from MIT rejected the structuralist approach to language description and the behavior [6, p. 50-71].

Language does not solely rely on habitual patterns. While some language usage may involve imitating existing knowledge, much of it is actually generated from abstract rules, rather than learned through imitation and repetition. In the 1970s and 1980s, due to the absence of an alternative to Audiolingualism, there was a phase of innovation and experimentation. During this time, various alternative language teaching methods were introduced, such as Total Physical Response and the Silent Way [6, p. 50-71].

Self-assessment questions.

1.	Present a concise review of the history of language teaching methods. Think of the influential factors.

2.	Dwell on the Grammar-Translation Method.

3.	Highlight the difference between the following terms: an approach, a method, a technique.

4.	Speak of the Reform Movement and natural language learning principles that provided the foundation for the Direct Method.

5.	Dwell on major trends in twentieth-century language teaching. The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching.

6.	Present your understanding of Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences.

7.	Enumerate drills and pattern practice applicable to the Audiolingual Method.

<center>**Lecture 3.**</center>

<center>**Alternative Approaches and Methods. Total Physical Response. The
Silent Way. Suggestopedia. The Lexical Approach. Current
Communicative Approaches.**</center>

<center>**3.1. Alternative Approaches and Methods. Total Physical Response.**</center>

Total Physical Response (TPR) is an approach to teaching languages
that focuses on coordinating speech and physical actions. It was developed by
James Asher, a psychology professor at San Jose State University, in the early
1970s. The method is based on the idea that when young children learn
language, they respond to commands with physical actions before producing
verbal responses. Therefore, adults learning a foreign language should emulate
this process.

A key factor for successful learning in TPR is the absence of stress.
According to Asher, stress-free environments facilitate first language
acquisition. The primary goals of TPR are to develop oral proficiency at a
beginner level and eventually teach basic speaking skills. The main classroom
activity in TPR is practicing imperative drills, while conversational dialogues
are introduced after approximately 120 hours of instruction. Other activities
include role plays in everyday situations like restaurants, supermarkets, or gas
stations, as well as slide presentations. Asher emphasizes that the teacher's role
is not to directly teach but to create learning opportunities. Additionally, Asher
suggests that TPR should be combined with other methods and techniques. TPR
is most suitable for teaching young learners or beginner adults, as it may be
challenging to sustain a methodology based on acting out commands in more
advanced levels over an extended period of time [6, p.73-81].

<center>34</center>

3.2. The Silent Way.
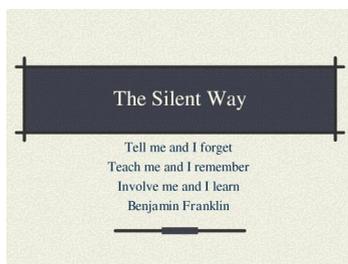
The method known as **Silent Way**, developed by Caleb Gattegno, focuses on minimizing the teacher's speaking in the classroom while encouraging the learner to actively produce language. Gattegno believed that language learning is a personal process, with the learner taking the main role, and the teacher serving as a facilitator. The teacher's responsibilities include teaching, assessing, and allowing the learner to take charge of their learning. Vocabulary is considered essential in this approach, and the selection of vocabulary is seen as crucial. The ultimate objective is for learners to achieve near-native fluency and emphasis is placed on correct pronunciation. Two aids commonly used in this method are Fidel charts and Cuisenaire rods, which are small colored blocks of varying lengths [6, p.81-90].

3.3. Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia, on the other hand, was developed by Georgi Lozanov, a Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator. It is based on the concept that the human mind is highly suggestible and capable of accelerated learning under specific conditions. Suggestopedia incorporates various elements, such as classroom decoration, furniture arrangement, music, and authoritative teacher behavior.

The main goal of Suggestopedia is to rapidly develop advanced conversational proficiency. The method involves a 30-day course divided into ten units, with classes held for four hours a day, six days a week. Learning activities in Suggestopedia include imitation, question and answer exercises, and role play [6, p. 100-108].

3.4. The Lexical Approach.

The Lexical Approach in language teaching is based on the idea that words and word combinations are the fundamental elements of language learning. Lewis and other scholars have introduced the term "lexical approach" to describe their proposals for an instructional approach centered around vocabulary. The significance of lexical units, referred to by various terms such as "holophrases" (Corder), "prefabricated patterns" (Hakuta), "gambits" (Keller), "speech formulae" (Peters), and "lexicalised items" (Pawley and Syder), has been emphasized in research on both first and second language acquisition. The focus on vocabulary arose from developments in corpus linguistics, particularly the investigation of collocation and word frequency. Research using extensive computer databases of language corpora has examined patterns of phrases and clauses in different types of texts, including spoken language samples. Notable corpora used for such studies include the COBUILD Bank of English Corpus, the Cambridge International Corpus, and the British National Corpus, which contains over 300 million words. These corpora, among others, serve as valuable sources of information on collocations and other multiword units in English. However, the question remains: How can lexical

material be organized for instructional purposes? Researchers such as Nation and Nattinger have proposed various criteria for classifying collocations and chunks. The most effective distinction for pedagogical purposes is considered to be the categorization of lexical phrases as social interactions, necessary topics, and discourse devices [6, p. 132-141].

3.5. Current Communicative Approaches

The origins of **Communicative Language Teaching** (CLT) can be traced back to changes in the British language teaching tradition. The shift was away from isolated instruction of language systems such as vocabulary and grammar, and towards teaching how these systems are used in real communication. The focus moved from solely developing linguistic competence to encompassing communicative competence, a concept introduced by Dell Hymes. This broader view contrasted with Noam Chomsky's narrower understanding of competence, now known as linguistic competence, which pertains to the knowledge of constructing grammatically correct sentences. Hymes emphasized the importance of appropriacy in communication, encompassing knowing when, where, and with whom to speak, and in what manner. This emphasis on real-life language use led to the adoption of authentic materials originally intended for non-classroom audiences. Interactive communicative activities, such as information-gap tasks, jigsaw activities, games, role plays, and simulations, became common in teaching practices [6, p.153].

In Littlewood's depiction of pre-communicative and communicative activities, pre-communicative activities aim to provide students with the grammatical competence necessary for communicative activities. These activities include structural exercises, vocabulary and grammar drills, and pronunciation exercises. Meaningful repetition is emphasized to avoid monotony and to help students feel comfortable in their engagement with these activities. Quasi-communicative activities, on the other hand, involve limited communicative tasks that prepare students for the upcoming communicative activities. These activities focus on rehearsing specific utterances selected by the teacher. The purpose of communicative activities is to provide holistic task-based practice, enhance motivation, facilitate natural learning, and create a context that supports learning [6, p.155-178].

There are two types of communicative activities: functional communicative activities and social interaction activities. In functional communicative activities, the teacher structures the situation in a way that learners need to bridge an information gap to solve a problem. The learners are required to work towards a definite solution or decision. While the range may be limited due to the classroom environment, the language content and complexity can be varied through the materials used. Social interaction activities are closer to real-life communication situations outside the classroom, where language serves as both a functional tool and a form of social behavior. Learners are expected to consider social factors alongside functional aspects when choosing their language expressions. Consequently, the language they produce is evaluated not only for functional effectiveness but also for social acceptability [6, p.155-178].

CLT is guided by several principles: learners acquire a language by using it for communication, classroom activities should aim for authentic and meaningful communication, different language skills should be integrated in

communication, learning involves experimentation and learning from mistakes, and fluency is a crucial aspect of communication.

Self-assessment questions.

1. Explain the main principles of such alternative approaches and methods as Total Physical Response, The Silent Way and Suggestopedia.

2. Frame the overall concepts of The Lexical Approach.

3. Dwell of the ways of application of Communicative Language Teaching approach.

Lecture 4.

Classroom Management. Classroom interaction. Creating Lesson Stages. Sequencing Lesson Components. Formal Lesson Planning. Lesson Aims. Learners and Their Needs. The Age Characteristics of Learners as the Main Planning Criterion. Means of Motivating Language Learners. Learning Styles.

4.1. Classroom Management. Classroom interaction. Creating Lesson Stages. Sequencing Lesson Components. Formal Lesson Planning. Lesson Aims.

The primary responsibility of a teacher is to establish an environment conducive to learning. The ability to create and manage a successful classroom is crucial for the overall effectiveness of a course. A significant aspect of this involves one's attitude, intentions, personality, and interactions with students. Additionally, teachers require organizational skills and techniques, commonly referred to as classroom management. This encompasses various areas such as arranging seating and groups, organizing activities (sequencing, setup, instructions, monitoring, timing), maintaining authority (capturing and retaining attention, assigning tasks), evaluating lessons, addressing unexpected issues, enforcing appropriate discipline, and concluding lessons. It also includes utilizing tools and techniques like the blackboard and other classroom aids, employing gestures to enhance instruction clarity, speaking clearly at an appropriate volume and pace, utilizing silence effectively, adjusting language complexity and quantity based on student proficiency.

It's important to recognize that a comprehensive teaching sequence is comprised of smaller segments. Within a teaching sequence, we must ensure the presence of three key elements: engagement, study, and activation, which can be combined in various ways.

4.2. Learners and Their Needs. The Age Characteristics of Learners as the Main Planning Criterion.

Students worldwide, regardless of age, are learning English, but their motivations for studying the language can vary significantly. Some students learn English because it is part of their primary or secondary school curriculum, while others choose to study it for personal reasons. Many individuals learn English when they move to a community where it is the national language (such as the UK, Canada, or New Zealand) or a prominent language for culture and commerce. Certain students require English for Specific Purposes (ESP), such as legal language, tourism, business, banking, or nursing. Others need English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Additionally, many people learn English with the aim of facilitating international communication and travel (General English). These varying learning purposes influence the content and subjects taught to students.

The ultimate goal of teachers is to empower students to become proficient self-regulators. Instead of being passive recipients of information, students are encouraged to utilize academic resources to develop high-level cognitive skills.

Regarding age, learners can be classified as children, young learners, young adults, or adults. In the context of education, the term "children" generally refers to learners aged approximately 2 to 14. "Young learners" typically refers to students between the ages of about 5 and 9, while "very young learners" are usually aged between 2 and 5. The term "adolescent" is

commonly used for students aged approximately 12 to 17, whereas "young adults" are generally considered to be between 16 and 20.

Children do not solely concentrate on the content being taught; instead, they absorb and assimilate information from their surroundings. Visual, auditory, and tactile experiences are crucial for their understanding, complementing the teacher's explanations. Children respond positively to individual attention from the teacher and feel pleased when they receive approval. Activities that relate to their lives and experiences generally elicit favorable responses. However, children often have a relatively short attention span, indicating a limited willingness to remain engaged in a single activity [4].

As children grow older, their capacity for abstract thinking expands. They become more capable of discussing abstract concepts and are receptive to the necessity of intellectual learning. Adolescent students possess immense potential for creative thinking, exhibit a strong inclination towards subjects that interest them, and undergo a quest for identity and a need for self-esteem.

In contrast, adults draw upon a broader range of life experiences, both as individuals and as learners. They typically display more discipline than adolescents and dedicate themselves to the learning process even when it may seem monotonous. Adult learners bring with them a wealth of previous learning experiences, which can either hinder their progress (if they have encountered negative learning experiences in the past) or shape their strong opinions about teaching methods. Teachers need to consider and accommodate these perspectives.

With younger children, teachers can offer a diverse array of games, songs, and puzzles. When working with a group of adolescents, teachers should be mindful of each student's social standing among their peers and exercise caution when providing corrections or assigning roles within activities [4].

4.3. Means of Motivating Language Learners

Motivations for education differ among students and are generally classified as intrinsic (focused on the content or process of learning itself) or extrinsic (focused on the rewards, vocational advantages, or social benefits of academic study). Scientists further categorize these motivations into four types: academic or personal intrinsic, vocational or social intrinsic, academic or personal extrinsic, and vocational or social extrinsic. While most students have a combination of orientations, some prioritize the subject matter, while others focus on the broader advantages of education. Several factors contribute to high motivation levels, including attitudes toward the target language and its speakers, long-term and short-term goals, desire for self-esteem and achievement, intrinsic interest and enjoyment of the learning process, emotional engagement, group dynamics (competitive, collaborative, or individualistic), and teacher attitudes. Teachers play a pivotal role in motivating their students to study.

Effective educational practices that have been found to motivate language learners and engage them in their studies include setting a personal example through behavior, creating a pleasant and stress-free classroom atmosphere, presenting tasks effectively, establishing a positive relationship with learners, boosting learners' linguistic self-confidence, making language classes interesting, utilizing collaborative learning techniques, promoting learner

autonomy, personalizing the learning process, enhancing learners' goal-orientedness, and introducing learners to the target language's culture [5].

4.4. Learning Styles.

Students respond differently to various stimuli such as pictures, sounds, music, and movement. Experience and research have shown that certain types of activities can stimulate students' learning more effectively than others. Therefore, it is important to consider **students' learning styles** when developing language-learning materials and organizing the language learning process. Scientists have identified different learning styles among students, including visual (preferring written language), auditory (preferring spoken language), kinaesthetic (preferring physical activities), studial (focusing on linguistic features and correctness), experiential (prioritizing communication over correctness), analytic (focusing on discrete language components), global (responding to language chunks and extracting useful language from them), dependent (relying on teachers and textbooks for learning), and independent (learning through personal experience and employing autonomous learning strategies) [11].

Self-assessment questions.

1. Speak of the required organizational skills and techniques of a teacher, commonly referred to as classroom management.
2. Explore the various approaches to designing lesson stages and organizing lesson components.

3. Consider the age-related characteristics of learners as the primary criterion for planning.
4. Provide the definition for "motivation". Dwell on the types of motivation and means of motivating language learners.
5. Dwell on students' learning styles.

<center>**Lecture 5.**</center>

<center>**Integrated Skills. Receptive skills: listening and reading. Task-based listening. Approaches to reading.**</center>

5.1. Integrated Skills.

During these challenging times, it is crucial for teachers to quickly acquire new and effective methods to assist students in enhancing their language abilities. In the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), the term "four skills" primarily refers to productive skills such as speaking and writing, as well as receptive skills like listening and reading. This division into four skills plays a pivotal role in course design and lesson planning. When examining an individual's overall competences, the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) authors emphasize the importance of skills based on procedural abilities. The document underscores that once skills related to specific aspects of language learning are refined, students can become more self-assured. However, the challenge of developing and implementing language learning materials and activities that encompass all four skills rather than treating them separately remains a significant area of focus in scientific research, as it has not been completely resolved [4]. While the focus may be on developing a particular skill, the activities almost always involve all four skills.

5.2. Receptive skills: listening and reading. Task-based listening

Reasons for Listening. Engaging in active listening is beneficial for learners' pronunciation. By exposing themselves to English being spoken and comprehending it, they naturally internalize the appropriate elements of pitch,

intonation, stress, and phonetics, both at the level of individual words and in the context of connected speech. Listening to various texts serves as valuable models for pronunciation, and the more learners actively listen, the more proficient they become in understanding spoken language. Effective spoken communication relies not only on our ability to speak but also on our aptitude for attentive listening.

The teacher's voice is one of the primary sources of listening material for learners, and it is discussed in J. Harmer's book "How to Teach English" [3, p. 137] regarding the manner in which teachers should communicate with students.

To develop a comprehensive understanding of English, students should be exposed to different variations of the language. Even within a single country, there exist numerous regional varieties, and it is evident that Englishes worldwide will exhibit diverse characteristics.

Listening can be categorized into different **types**. Intensive listening involves deliberate practice of listening skills and studying how English is spoken. On the other hand, extensive listening refers to listening done outside the classroom, often for enjoyment or other purposes. When engaging in extensive listening, students should choose audio materials that they find enjoyable to listen to.

Sources of listening material often come in the form of recorded extracts, which are commonly produced commercially as part of coursebooks or supplementary resources. These recorded extracts differ from live listening, which refers to real-life face-to-face interactions in the classroom, such as bringing in guest speakers. The advantage of live listening is that students can engage with the speaker and find the experience more exciting [3, p. 133-146].

Developing listening skills requires students to be capable of listening to various types of content in different ways. They should be able to identify paralinguistic cues such as intonation, articulation, pauses, volume, speed, and tone, which help understand mood and meaning. Additionally, they need to

listen for specific information such as time and numbers, as well as grasp the overall understanding of the material.

There are several **principles** to follow when teaching **listening**:

Encourage students to listen as frequently and extensively as possible.

Help students prepare for listening by introducing the topic, engaging in discussions, or using visual aids like pictures. It is also optional to have pre-task work, such as reviewing vocabulary or grammar structures or reading relevant materials, to ensure students are in the right mindset [3, p. 133-146].

Keep the recorded material concise: two minutes of content can offer substantial listening practice.

Play the recording a sufficient number of times to allow students to fully grasp the information.

Avoid being solely influenced by one strong student's opinion or answer.

Aural comprehension suggests receiving: experiencing sound and paying attention to it; understanding: making sense of sounds as information; evaluating: critical assessment of sounds; responding: verbal and non-verbal reaction; remembering: categorizing and retaining information [3, p. 133-146].

When the teachers implement a listening activity into the classroom, they ought to take into account the difficulties the learners may come across: idiosyncratic or regional pronunciations (warsh yer hands?); collapsed language (gonna, wanna); redundancy and false starts (what he said was, he said...); colloquialisms or slang (like, you know; howzitgoin?) speech speed, intonation, stress. Contexts for listening are also to be considered. Interpersonal listening involves taking part in party conversation; bus stop conversation about weather; phone conversation with friend and listening to someone recounting personal anecdote or someone telling a story. Informational includes taking part in job interview; giving directions or instructions; phone call inquiring about computer repair and listening to news on radio or TV, lecture, and recorded phone information.

The following **one-way listening activities** can be used in the classroom: play 3 different sounds. Students make up a story that integrates all three sounds; listening for information; spot the difference (two versions of a story); picture dictation (put the pictures in order); matching games (description).

In two-way listening activities, the listening takes place in the context of a dialogue of some kind: asking for clarification: phrases need to be taught and posted; describe and draw (listening to instructions, describing objects); map game (identical maps, agree on starting place, one student gives directions and other follows); dictogloss.

5.3. Approaches to reading
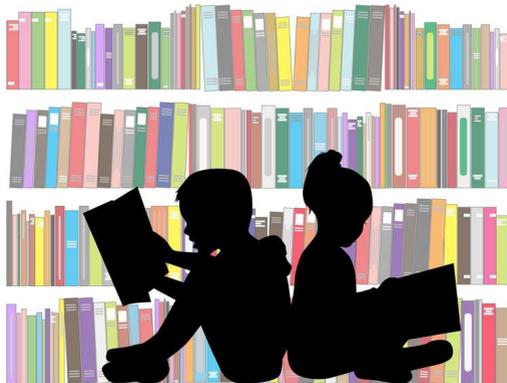
Reasons for reading. Many students express a desire to read English texts for various reasons such as career advancement, academic purposes, or simply for enjoyment. Reading plays a crucial role in language acquisition, as it enhances vocabulary, spelling, and writing skills. Additionally, reading texts serves as a valuable source of guidance for English writing [3, p. 99-112].

Different types of reading. It is important to differentiate between extensive and intensive reading. Extensive reading refers to reading activities that students engage in regularly, both inside and outside the classroom. This includes reading novels, websites, magazines, and other reference materials. Whenever possible, extensive reading should be done for pleasure, as Richard

Day refers to it as "joyful reading." Joyful reading can be defined as the independent reading of a substantial amount of material for information or enjoyment.

The Extensive Reading Foundation (ERF): The ERF is a non-profit organization that advocates and supports extensive reading in the context of learning English as a foreign language.

Intensive reading, on the other hand, involves a more detailed examination of reading materials and typically occurs within the classroom setting. The specific genres and topics chosen for intensive reading may be determined by the students' specific learning goals. Intensive reading is often accompanied by study activities where students analyze the text, extract meaning, and examine grammar and vocabulary usage [3, p. 99-112].

Reading levels. Authentic texts are written for competent language users rather than specifically for language learners. Striking a balance between genuine English texts and the students' abilities and interests is important. Beginner students can grasp some degree of authentic written material, such as menus, timetables, signs, and basic instructions. Lower-level students are encouraged to utilize simplified or graded texts for extensive reading. This allows them to experience the pleasure of reading books even without the assistance of a teacher [3, p. 99-112].

Encouragement is given to lower level students to utilize simplified or graded texts for extensive reading. Consequently, these students can experience the joy of reading books even in the absence of a teacher's assistance.

When it comes to reading skills, students must possess the ability to perform various tasks with a given text. One such skill is **scanning,** which involves swiftly searching through a text to locate specific information. An analogy can be drawn to searching for a telephone number in a directory, where we scan the page for the desired person's name. This skill enables students to avoid reading every word and line, as it impedes successful scanning.

Another important skill is **skimming**, which allows students to grasp the general idea of a text. Skimming is commonly employed when reading newspapers, messages, and emails. Students should understand that reading every word is unnecessary when skimming, and timed tasks are often used by teachers to promote speed.

Reading for detailed comprehension focuses on thorough understanding of the text, while scanning for specific information enhances the ability to quickly locate particular details such as words, numbers, dates, or times [3, p. 99-112].

Regarding reading activities, pre-reading activities conducted by teachers prior to exploring a text involve assisting students in establishing personal connections, recognizing language patterns to derive meaning, and modeling learning strategies. Learners are encouraged to focus on visuals, make predictions, relate the text to their prior knowledge, and form mental pictures of the content.

During the exploration of a text, teachers employ expression and gestures, read and reread the text, check for comprehension, encourage students to repeat aloud or chant, and provide graphic organizers to aid in understanding. Students are encouraged to pay attention to text features, highlight key words or ideas, sketch or make notes, and transfer essential information from the text to a graphic organizer.

D. Jean Clandinin and F. Michael Connelly provide an overview of various read aloud activities, which include interactive read aloud, shared reading, guided reading, independent reading, and read alouds with picture

books. In interactive read aloud, educators demonstrate skilled reading and expose learners to texts that may be beyond their current reading abilities. Shared reading involves educators reading together with learners using big books or interactive whiteboards, offering support and strategies for word recognition and comprehension. Guided reading entails educators selecting texts at learners' instructional levels and working with small groups to develop reading and comprehension skills. Independent reading allows learners to engage with self-selected materials and apply what they have learned independently. Read alouds with picture books involve educators not only exposing learners to reading but also engaging them in discussions and focusing on listening, speaking, and visual aspects of the books.

When selecting texts for these activities, researchers such as B. Derewianka and P. Jones suggest considering several factors. These factors include whether the text aligns with learners' zone of proximal development (referring to the gap between what learners can do independently and what they can achieve with guidance), whether it is engaging for the learners, whether it relates to other parts of the curriculum, whether learners have the necessary background knowledge to comprehend the text, the genre and length of the text, the layout of the text including images and design features, the availability of supportive materials, and the appropriateness of the text's language, including vocabulary usage.

Self-assessment questions.

1.   Provide your understanding of the phenomenon "integrated skills" used in the field of ELT.

2.   Dwell on teaching listening (reasons for listening, kinds of listening, listening skills, aural comprehension, listening principles, approaches to listening)

3.   Speak of teaching reading (kinds of reading, reading levels, reading skills, read aloud activities, approaches to reading).

Lecture 6.

Teaching writing. Writing sequences. Correcting written work. Communicative activities. Role-plays, simulations. Grammar Teaching. Restricted output: drills, exercises, dialogues and games.

6.1. Teaching writing. Writing sequences. Correcting written work

Reasons for teaching writing. There are numerous reasons to encourage students to engage in writing, both inside and outside the classroom. Firstly, writing provides them with more time to think compared to spontaneous conversations, allowing for greater language processing and reflection. It's important to differentiate between writing-for-learning and writing-for-writing.

Similar to speaking, writing is a productive skill that involves various sub-skills. Learners need to be able to construct grammatically correct sentences, connect and punctuate these sentences, choose an appropriate writing style, convey the direction of their message, and anticipate the reader's potential questions to structure the message effectively [3, p.112-123].

To develop these skills, students require a solid knowledge base not only in vocabulary and grammar, but also in terms of cohesive discourse. This includes being familiar with different types of texts such as informal letters, instructions, and product descriptions. If classroom writing primarily focuses on spelling or grammar, many of these crucial sub-skills may be overlooked.

J. Harmer and S. Thornbury describe several approaches to teaching writing:

A language-based approach typically concentrates on the "lower-level" aspects of writing. It involves the learner's ability to produce accurate and complex sentences that demonstrate internal coherence and connect to neighboring sentences.

In a text-based approach, the emphasis is on learners analyzing and imitating models of specific text types.

A product approach suggests that writing evolves through a creative process that includes planning (generating ideas, setting goals, and organizing), drafting, revising (including editing and proofreading), and publishing.

A communicative approach views writing as a means of communication, where the writer interacts with the reader(s) for a specific purpose. It proposes that classroom writing tasks should be purposeful, and writers should consider their readers throughout the writing process.

A **genre-based approach** highlights the close association between text models and their contexts of use, analyzing them in functional terms as much as in linguistic terms. This approach has had a significant impact on the teaching of academic writing [9, p.248-250].

The practice of **writing-for-learning** serves as a helpful tool or aid to assist students in practicing and applying the language they have been studying. For instance, students may be given a task to write five sentences using a specific structure or incorporating five newly learned words or phrases.

On the other hand, **writing-for-writing** focuses on fostering the students' development as writers. This process involves planning, drafting, reviewing, editing, and ultimately producing a final version or publishing their work [9, p.248-250].

When it comes to the writing process itself, we propose a set of strategies to enhance the literacy skills of aspiring writers. By analyzing and summarizing the perspectives of teacher trainers and experts in English Language Teaching

(ELT) such as J. Harmer, J. Scrivener, and S. Thornbury, we have formulated the following techniques for teaching writing:

1. Generate ideas through brainstorming.

2. Draft Preparation: Formulate the language, focus on the main message, and jot down ideas on paper without worrying too much about accuracy. It is recommended to work in a quiet and concentrated environment.

3. Revision: Make necessary modifications to the draft, expand the content, adjust the style, and ensure the logical flow of sentences. Refer to sample texts of similar nature as a model for your own work. Analyze the layout, overall message, organization of information, specific phrases and sentences used, distinct grammatical features, writing style, and techniques employed to engage the reader.

4. Proofreading and Editing: Make final changes and corrections, paying close attention to spelling, punctuation, and grammar.

5. Presentation of the Writing: Share the written piece with others through various means. There are several ways to "publish" students' writing, such as reading it aloud, submitting it to a magazine, creating a hard-bound book, sharing it in a reading party, entering it into a contest, compiling a class anthology, recording it, sending it to a penpal, sharing it with family, hosting an "author's tea" event, making a hard-bound book, creating a large-format book, or sharing it with younger students.

Ronald L. Partin advocates for the implementation of engaging homework assignments in his article "Homework That Helps." These tasks not only stimulate students' interest but also contribute to skill development. By incorporating activities that are both enjoyable and educational, learners are motivated to actively participate and reinforce the skills being taught. Some examples of suggested tasks include interviewing individuals about their professions or hobbies, creating designs for an ideal vehicle, home, school, or government, crafting new myths, tracing one's family tree, interviewing

someone about a historical event they experienced, inventing a game to teach others, planning a trip with itinerary and expenses, devising a balanced diet for a week for the entire family, and updating a fairy tale to suit modern times.

When considering the integration of writing in a lesson that emphasizes various skills, it is essential to recognize that writing always serves a specific purpose and caters to a distinct audience. The way we write, such as the tone, style, genre, format, and medium, depends on the purpose and intended readership. Narrative writing connects a sequence of events to entertain, while recounting involves retelling events without much focus on setting, plot, or conflict/climax. Children should learn to both write and tell stories simultaneously. Research indicates that children start forming stories as early as two years old but refine their storytelling abilities gradually. As writers mature, their stories become more intricate and coherent.

Expressive writing encompasses personal and informal writing that reflects our thoughts as they develop. It can be found in blogs, diaries, and journals, serving as a means to express thoughts, feelings, ideas, and interpretations of events. On the other hand, expository writing aims to explain, persuade, or instruct, as seen in reports, textbooks, memos, and flyers.

Here are some examples of **writing activities** that incorporate other language skills. The first one is titled "Very Short Story" and can be approached in different ways: individually, where students write a brief story about a bunny, a turtle, and a pond; in groups, where they compare their stories with others at their table, noting similarities and differences; or as a whole class, discussing the purpose of the text and imagining the intended audience. Students analyze the text to identify its purpose and intended readership based on the content provided.

The second activity is called "Jack and Jill" writing task. The teacher either writes the well-known Mother Goose nursery rhyme on the chalkboard or distributes printed copies of it to the students.

The rhyme goes like this:

Jack and Jill ascended the hill to retrieve a bucket of water. Jack stumbled and suffered a head injury, And Jill tumbled shortly thereafter. Jack quickly got up and hurried home With all the speed he could muster. He went to bed and wrapped his head With vinegar and brown paper.

Afterward, the teacher assigns the students to different groups and assigns them specific tasks:

Group A: Compose a newspaper report detailing this incident. Group B: Write the subsequent chapter of the story, but without using rhymes. Group C: Create a police report documenting the incident. Group D: Imagine you are Jill and describe this event in your diary. Group E: Pretend to be the teacher of Jack and Jill, and write a letter to their parents explaining the situation and its causes. Group F: Write a dialogue among Jack, Jill, and their mother discussing this incident.

6.2. Communicative activities. Role-plays, simulations

Reasons for teaching **spoken language** are manifold. **Speaking activities** provide valuable opportunities for students to practice their speaking skills in a controlled environment, resembling real-life conversations. Such tasks allow students to utilize the language they have acquired, offering feedback for both the teacher and students. By frequently engaging in speaking exercises, students

can reinforce their ability to effortlessly use different language components stored in their minds [3, p.123-133].

Speaking activities are specifically designed to foster "speaking-as-a-skill" as described by Scott Thornbury in his book "How to Teach Speaking." This approach emphasizes the purpose of communication beyond linguistic proficiency.

Accuracy, an essential aspect of language learning, refers to how well learners adhere to the rules of the language. Typically, it is measured in terms of grammatical correctness. However, accuracy can also encompass the appropriate use of vocabulary and pronunciation. Assessing accuracy is relatively straightforward and often serves as a gauge of a learner's progress.

Fluency, on the other hand, focuses on the ability to effectively communicate in real-time situations. When someone is described as fluent in a language, it implies that they can speak idiomatically, accurately, without excessive pauses, without a noticeable accent, and in a manner suitable for the given context.

Communicative activities aim to encourage learners to utilize the language they are studying in meaningful and realistic ways, often involving the exchange of information or opinions [3, p.123-133].

Considering the given definition, select the items on the following list which are communicative activities: 1. repeating sentences that you say; 2. doing oral grammar drills; 3. reading aloud from the coursebook; 4. giving a prepared speech; 5. acting out a scripted conversation; 6. giving instructions so that someone can use a new machine; 7. improvising a conversation so that it includes lots of examples of a new grammar structure; 8. one learner describes a picture in the textbook while the others look at it.

Some keys to getting a good discussion:

Frame the discussion well;

Do not jump into the deep end, use lead-in activities to make learners motivated to talk;

Give students preparation time. Something the teacher should always remember is that people need time to assemble their thoughts before any discussion. It is challenging to have to give immediate and articulate opinions in your own language, let alone in a language they are struggling to learn. Consequently, it is important to give students pre-discussion rehearsal time. For instance, teachers can put the students into small buzz groups to explore the discussion topic before organising the discussion with the whole class;

Do not interrupt the natural flow of the conversation;

Break the rules! [3, p.123-133].

Speaking activities. In **simulations**, students engage in scenarios that mimic real-life situations. Teachers assign tasks such as simulating an airport check-in, a job interview, or a presentation at a conference.

Role-plays are another way of replicating the real world, but in this case, students are assigned specific roles. They are given information about who they are and often their perspective on a particular subject. Their task is to speak and act from the viewpoint of their assigned character.

Here are three role cards that briefly outline different perspectives to encourage a small group discussion on vegetarianism and meat consumption:

You firmly believe that meat eating is natural for humans and that vegetarians are missing out on an essential part of their diet.

You have been following a vegetarian diet for the past five years because you believe it is healthier.

While you enjoy the taste of meat, you choose not to consume it due to moral reasons. You believe it is ethically wrong to kill animals.

To complete the activity, two more role cards need to be written.

You have recently transitioned to a plant-based diet because you are concerned about the environmental impact of meat production and its contribution to climate change [3, p.123-133].

You have a medical condition that requires you to avoid consuming meat and follow a strictly vegetarian or vegan diet to maintain your health.

When it comes to speaking activities, teachers play an important role. Their involvement is acceptable as long as they don't overshadow the students. Prompting students is often necessary, but teachers should do so with empathy and sensitivity. Additionally, the following activities can also be beneficial in helping students develop their speaking skills.

Information-gap activities involve two speakers who possess different pieces of information, and by sharing that information, they can complete the entire picture. An example of such an activity is "Describe and Draw," where teachers can engage students in developing spatial relations concepts. This activity provides learners with the opportunity to describe an image, draw what they see, and then describe their drawing. In each group or pair, one student is given an image with the instruction not to show it to others. They must describe the image using its details to their group or partner, who then attempts to draw the image based on the instructions provided. The student with the picture provides instructions and descriptions, while the "artist" asks questions for clarification.

Another activity is "Find the Differences." In this activity, students work in pairs, each with a similar picture (unknown to them) to their partner's. Without showing their pictures, they must identify the differences between them. This requires a lot of describing, questioning, and answering to discover the discrepancies.

To encourage storytelling, the information gap principle can be used. Students are grouped and given a sequence of pictures that narrate a story. After examining the pictures, the images are taken away. New groups are formed,

consisting of one student from each original group. The new groups must reconstruct the original picture sequence. Successful story reconstruction depends on students describing the pictures they have seen, discussing them, and determining their proper order.

Teachers can provide students with objects or pictures and have them invent a story connecting the objects in groups. Students can also be encouraged to retell stories they have read or found online, which helps activate previously learned language. The most engaging stories are often those shared by students about themselves, their families, or their friends [3, p.123-133].

In the "Favorite Objects" activity, students are prompted to tell personal stories about their favorite objects. They describe these objects by discussing when and why they acquired them, how they use them, why they hold significance, and any related anecdotes. Students share their stories within groups, and then the groups present to the class, highlighting the most unusual or interesting favorite object.

The balloon debate is an activity where a group of students imagine being in a balloon that is losing air. They are informed that only one person can survive in the balloon, and the rest must jump out. Each student represents a famous character or profession and must present arguments as to why they should be the one allowed to survive [3, p.123-133].

The moral dilemma activity involves presenting students with a moral dilemma and asking them to make a decision on how to resolve it. For example, students may be told about a student who was caught cheating on an important exam. They are then provided with the student's circumstances and given five possible courses of action to choose from, ranging from publicly exposing the student to ignoring the incident.

Your task is to assign five different roles to students for a role-play based on the following situation, which represents a moral dilemma: In a department store, a woman named Kate is observed taking bread and cheese without paying

for them. It is known that she is very poor, and if she is charged and taken to court, she will likely be sent to prison and her children will be placed in an orphanage. A meeting has been quickly organized in the department store to decide what to do about Kate [3, p.123-133].

6.3. Grammar Teaching. Restricted output: Drills, Exercises, Dialogues and Games

The teaching of grammar encompasses various aspects.

Prescriptive grammar refers to the rules of language usage that dictate what is considered correct or incorrect by certain groups. Traditional grammar books often provide such rules, such as using "fewer" instead of "less" for counting items or avoiding sentences beginning with "and." This approach is known as prescriptive grammar since it prescribes correct usage.

Descriptive grammar systematically describes the rules governing the combination and sequencing of words to form sentences in a particular language. It focuses on how people actually speak the language and is based on data collected from native speakers, often in the form of a corpus - a collection of spoken or written texts used to study language use.

Pedagogical grammar is a type of descriptive grammar specifically designed for teaching and learning purposes. It emphasizes grammar as a subsystem of overall language proficiency and is based on a standardized form of the language, excluding non-standard usages.

Mental grammar refers to an individual's internalized representation of a language. It is part of a person's linguistic competence and encompasses their knowledge of grammar.

The topic of grammar teaching is contentious, with different perspectives among teachers. Language teaching methods have ranged from minimal or no explicit grammar instruction to extensive grammar instruction. Some approaches, such as the natural method and audiolingualism, advocate for grammar acquisition through exposure to examples and inductive learning, while others, like the grammar-translation method, adopt a deductive learning approach, presenting rules first followed by examples. The consciousness-raising approach lies between these extremes, challenging learners to reconsider and restructure their existing mental grammar through data manipulation [10].

The communicative approach to teaching language allows for various approaches to grammar instruction. Task-based learning proponents argue that engaging learners in problem-solving activities using language will naturally develop their mental grammar. However, advocates of the weaker version of the communicative approach support pre-teaching grammar before production. This view aligns with cognitive learning theory, which suggests that conscious attention to grammatical form, known as "focus on form," accelerates language learning and helps correct errors before they become ingrained.

Regarding the presentation of grammar, a deductive approach starts with presenting a rule followed by examples illustrating its application. This approach is time-efficient and aligns with students' expectations about classroom learning. However, it can foster a teacher-centered environment and the belief that learning solely involves knowing the rules. On the other hand, the inductive approach encourages learners to discover rules themselves, promoting active involvement, meaningful understanding, and additional language practice. However, this approach may mislead students into prioritizing rule discovery over productive practice, and it requires careful lesson planning [10].

Various **exercise types and grammar practice activities** can be employed, including gap-filling tasks, ordering tasks (correcting word order in sentences), expansion tasks (creating sentences or texts from given prompts), transformation tasks (changing direct to indirect speech or active to passive voice), grammar dictation, picture dictation, split tasks, grammar quizzes, memory tests, story-building activities, questionnaires, and board games.

Self-assessment questions.

1. Speak of teaching writing (approaches to teaching writing, writing activities).

2. Dwell on teaching speaking (communicative activity, speaking activities, accuracy, fluency). Role-plays, simulations, and information gap activities.

3. Enumerate approaches to grammar teaching. Dwell on the types of grammar rules, exercise types and grammar-practice activities.

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