

جزوه سوم روش تدریس ۳

V. Communicative Language Teaching



تاریخچه ی این روش به اواخر سال های ۱۹۶۰ بر می گردد، زمانی که آموزش سنتی زبان در حال تغییر بود. هدف این روش کاربرد شیوه های ارتباطی است. در این روش تأکید بیشتر بر روی fluency است تا accuracy.

اصول روش CLT

هدف معلمی که از این روش استفاده می کند چیست؟

توانایی برقراری ارتباط از سوی زبان آموزان به زبان مقصد هدف اصلی معلم است. برای این کار آنها باید اطلاعاتی در مورد، ساختار، عملکرد و معنای زبان داشته باشند. باید بدانند که ساختارهای مختلف ممکن است یک عملکرد داشته باشند و نیز اینکه یک ساختار می تواند عملکردهای متفاوت داشته باشد. و آنها باید بتوانند از بین این ساختارها مناسب ترین را انتخاب کنند تا معنا را منتقل کند.

نقش معلم و دانش آموزان چیست؟

معلم فرایند ارتباط در کلاس را تسهیل می بخشد. برای انجام این کار او شرایطی را بوجود می آورد تا ارتباطات را تقویت کند. در طول انجام فعالیت ها، او مانند یک مشاور عمل می کند که به سوالات آنها پاسخ می دهد و عملکردشان را کنترل می کند و اشتباهات دانش آموزان را ثبت می کند تا بعداً روی آنها کار کند. بعضی اوقات معلم مانند دانش آموزان در بحث ها شرکت می کند. دانش آموزان در تمام مراحل درگیر بحث و گفتگو هستند و آنها مسئول یادگیری خودشان می باشند.

ویژگی های این روش چیست؟

مهم ترین ویژگی این روش آنست که همه فعالیت هایی که انجام می شود با هدف برقراری ارتباط است. آنها از طریق بازی، نقش پذیری و حل مسئله زبان را یاد می گیرند.

این گونه فعالیت ها بنا به گفته Morrow دارای سه ویژگی مشترک هستند، choice، information gap و feedback. یکی دیگر از ویژگی ها، استفاده از مواد آموزشی معتبر است.

نقش متقابل معلم و دانش آموز چگونه است؟

معلم بعضی قسمت های درس را توضیح می دهد. همچنین او فعالیت های کلاسی را تسریع می بخشد. دانش آموزان بطور دائم در حال برقراری ارتباط با یکدیگر و با معلم هستند.

Kish Preservice Knowledge Enhancement Series (Language Teaching Knowledge)

با احساسات دانش آموزان چگونه برخورد می شود؟ زمانی که آنان احساس کنند که یادگیری زبان یک کار مفید است، تشویق می شوند که زبان یاد بگیرند. همچنین معلم به آنان فرصتی می دهد تا عقاید و احساساتشان را ابراز کنند. در نهایت بوسیله تعامل دانش آموزان با یکدیگر، احساس امنیت بیشتری بین آنان برقرار می شود.

نگرش زبانی و فرهنگی چگونه است؟

زبان برای برقراری ارتباط است. توانش زبانی، دانستن ساختارها و معانی تنها بخشی از توانایی های ارتباطی هستند. جنبه دیگر توانایی برقراری ارتباط و دانستن عملکرد زبان است. فرهنگ همان شیوه ی زندگی روزانه مردمی است که به آن زبان صحبت می کنند.

تأکید بر کدام قسمت ها و مهارت های زبانی است؟

بر عملکرد بیشتر از ساختار زبان تأکید می شود و بر روی هر چهار مهارت زبان از ابتدا کار می شود.

نقش زبان مادری دانش آموزان چیست؟

استفاده درست و به موقع زبان مادری در این روش اشکالی ندارد. در حین فعالیت های کلاسی و مشخص کردن تکالیف، از زبان مقصد استفاده می شود.

ارزشیابی چگونه صورت می گیرد؟

در این روش معلم هم *accuracy* و هم *fluency* را ارزیابی می کند. معلم بطور غیر رسمی عملکرد دانش آموزان را ارزیابی می کند و این کار را در نقش یک مشاور انجام می دهد. در حالت رسمی تر معلم یک تست ترکیبی می گیرد به عنوان مثال، برای ارزیابی مهارت نوشتن، معلم از زبان آموزان می خواهد تا یک نامه به دوست خود بنویسند.

معلم چگونه اشتباهات دانش آموزان را تصحیح می کند؟

خطاهای مربوط به ساختارها در حین تمرینات متمرکز بر *fluency* به عنوان یک امر طبیعی شناخته می شود. زیرا دانش آموزان می توانند دانش زبانی محدودی داشته باشند اما باز هم قادر باشند به زبان مقصد ارتباط برقرار کنند. معلم این خطاها را ثبت می کند و آن ها را در تمرینات متمرکز بر *accuracy* یادآوری و تصحیح می کند.

Authentic materials

باید از مواد آموزشی استفاده کرد که شبیه موادی هستند که برای کسانی که زبان مادری آن هاست استفاده شده است. ما دیدیم که معلم از مقالات روزنامه استفاده می کند. همچنین به دانش آموزان تکالیف مختلفی مانند گوش دادن به رادیو و تلویزیون را می دهد.

Scrambled sentences

به دانش آموزان یک متن داده می شود که در آن جملات بهم ریخته است و آنان باید جملات را سر جای درست خود قرار دهند. این متن ممکن است متنی باشد که قبلاً دیده اند و یا یک متن کاملاً جدید باشد. این نوع تمرین به دانش آموزان انسجام زبان را نشان می دهد.

Language games

این نوع تمرینات در این روش معمول است. دانش آموزان از این بازی ها لذت می برند و اگر بصورت درست طراحی شود می تواند به آموزش کمک زیادی کند.

Picture strip story

به یکی از دانش آموزان در یک گروه کوچک، یک تکه از داستان داده می شود. او اولین عکس داستان را به بقیه اعضای گروه نشان می دهد و از آنان می خواهد تا عکس دومی را پیش بینی کنند و این خود نوعی حل مسئله است.

Role play

این تمرین در این روش بسیار مهم است زیرا به دانش آموزان فرصت تمرین برقراری ارتباط در بافت ها و نقش های اجتماعی مختلف را می دهد. این تمرین در دو نوع structured و unstructured وجود دارد.

VI. Content - based instruction



آموزش محتوا محور به روشی گفته می شود که در آن، تدریس بر اساس محتوا و موضوعاتی که دانش آموزان بدست خواهند آورد سازماندهی شده است. محتوا در اینجا یعنی مواد و یا موضوعاتی که ما در حین برقراری ارتباط به زبان دوم بدست می آوریم.

اصول روش Content - based instruction

زبان آموزان زبان دوم را بهتر یاد می گیرند در صورتی که از زبان به عنوان وسیله ای برای بدست آوردن اطلاعات استفاده کنند در این روش، تمام توجه به انتقال متن است نه به قواعد زبانی، زیرا تمرکز تدریس بر اینست که چگونه مفهوم و اطلاعات از طریق متن و گفتگو منتقل می شود. استفاده از نامه ها، گزارشات، مقاله ها، سخنرانی ها و مباحثه از فعالیت های مورد استفاده در این روش است.

کاربرد زبان بر مهارت های ترکیبی است. بنابراین ممکن است دانش آموزان بخوانند و نکته برداری کنند، گوش کنند و خلاصه نویسی کنند؛ یا از چیزهایی که خوانده و یا نوشته اند به صورت شفاهی پاسخ دهند. و به جای اینکه به گرامر به عنوان یک بعد مجزای زبان نگاه کنند، آن را به عنوان جزئی از مهارت های دیگر حساب کنند. بنابراین زبان آموزان می بایست سعی کنند مهارت های دانش، زبان و تفکر را کنار هم قرار دهند. زبان هدفمند است. زبان برای هدف خاصی استفاده می شود. این هدف می تواند آموزشی (دانشگاهی)، جهانگردی، اجتماعی و یا تفریحی باشد.

تئوری یادگیری

۱. در موقعیت های رسمی آموزشی، زمانی که هدف اصلی یادگیری محتوای درسی است نه یادگیری زبان به خودی خود، زبان دوم بهتر یاد گرفته می شود.
۲. یادگیرندگان زبان دوم را بهتر یاد می گیرند زمانی که اطلاعاتی که بدست می آورند جالب و آموزنده باشد و به هدف دلخواه آنان هدایتشان کند.
۳. بعضی قسمت های محتوا به عنوان اساس یادگیری زبان، مفیدتر از دیگر قسمت ها هستند.
۴. زمانی که آموزش به نیازهای دانش آموزان اشاره می کند، آنها بهتر یاد می گیرند.
۵. تدریس براساس دانش و تجربیات قبلی دانش آموزان انجام می شود.

اهداف

فعال کردن و پرورش دادن مهارت های زبان انگلیسی موجود

بدست آوردن مهارت های یادگیری و شیوه هایی که می تواند در بالا بردن فرصت های یادگیری زبان بکار رود.

ارتقای مهارت های آکادمیک مربوط به مطالعات دانشگاهی در تمامی حیطه های رشته ی تحصیلی

وسعت بخشیدن به درک دانش آموزان از مردم انگلیسی زبان و صحبت کردن آنان

انواع فعالیت های یادگیری و تدریس

۱. ارتقا مهارت های زبانی

۲. واژه سازی

۳. سازماندهی بحث ها

۴. تعامل ارتباطی

۵. مهارت های مطالعه

۶. ترکیب محتوای آموزشی با گرامر

نقش یادگیرنده

یکی از اهداف CBI اینست که یادگیرندگان بطور خود مختار در مورد یادگیری خودشان عمل کنند و مسئولیت یادگیری خود را بر عهده بگیرند. همچنین دانش آموزان به یکدیگر در امر یادگیری کمک می کنند.

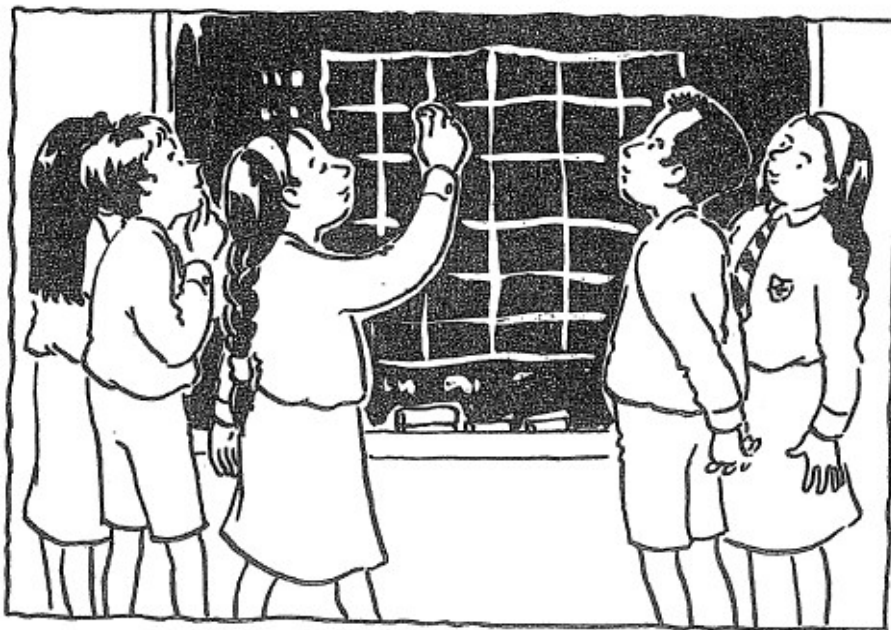
نقش معلم

آنها باید درباره موضوعی که می خواهند تدریس کنند دانش کافی داشته باشند و بتوانند آن را به دانش آموزان انتقال دهند. برای اینکه در طراحی مطالب درسی متن و درک مطلب در درجه اول قرار بگیرد، آنها باید مواد آموزشی مناسب و دقیقی را در کلاس استفاده کنند. معلم در نقش تحلیلگر نیازهای دانش آموزان وارد عمل می شود و یک کلاس دانش آموز محور برپا می کند.

نقش مواد آموزشی

موادی که در این روش استفاده می شود موادی هستند که یادگیری را تسهیل می بخشند. مواد آموزشی باید معتبر باشند یعنی موادی بکار برده شود که برای کسی که زبان مادری او همین زبان است استفاده شود.

VII. Task-based instruction



به روشی اطلاق می شود که در آن از تکالیف به عنوان هسته اصلی آموزش زبان استفاده می شود. دارای اصول زیر است:

۱. فعالیت هایی که شامل مکالمات واقعی هستند برای یادگیری زبان ضروری هستند.
۲. فعالیت هایی که در آن زبان برای انجام تکالیف معنادار به کار می رود موجب یادگیری بهتر می شوند.
۳. زبانی که برای یادگیرنده معنادار باشد، فرایند یادگیری را تسریع می بخشد.

اصول روش Task-based instruction

تئوری زبان

زبان وسیله ای برای انتقال معناست و در این روش نقش اصلی بر عهده ی معنا و مفهوم است.

چندین مدل زبان روش تکلیف محور را تشکیل می دهند:

طرفداران این روش به هر سه بعد ساختار، عملکرد و تعامل اهمیت می دهند.

Kish Preservice Knowledge Enhancement Series (Language Teaching Knowledge)

مکالمه نقش اصلی و مرکزی دارد و کلید یادگیری زبان است:

صحبت کردن و سعی در برقراری ارتباط با دیگران، اساس کسب زبان دوم است. بنابراین بیشتر تکالیف شامل مکالمات هستند.

تئوری یادگیری

تکالیف، فرایند درونداد و برونداد را برای امر یادگیری زبان تأمین می کنند.

تکالیف و پیشرفت در یادگیری به نوعی مانند محرک عمل می کنند.

دشواری های امر یادگیری می توانند مورد بحث قرار گرفته و حل شوند تا از آنها برای اهداف خاص آموزشی استفاده شود.

اهداف

زبان آموز می بایست بتواند بطور موثر و دقیق در اکثر فعالیت های زبانی ارتباط برقرار کند.

انواع فعالیت های آموزشی و یادگیری

پازل: یادگیرندگان تکه هایی از اطلاعات مختلف را مانند پازل کنار هم می گذارند تا به یک کلیت واحد دست یابند.

گفتگو برای کسب اطلاعات: یک دانش آموز یا گروهی از دانش آموزان یک قسمت از اطلاعات را دارند و گروه دیگر بقیه ی اطلاعات تکمیلی را آنها باید با یکدیگر گفتگو کنند تا اطلاعاتشان را کامل کنند.

حل مسئله: به دانش آموزان یک مسئله و مقداری اطلاعات داده می شود و آنها باید مسئله را حل کنند.

تصمیم گیری: به دانش آموزان مسئله ای داده می شود و چندین راه نیز پیش پای آنان گذاشته می شود. سپس آنها باید با گفتگو و مباحثه یکی را انتخاب کنند.

تبادل نظر: یادگیرندگان به بحث و تبادل نظر می پردازند. آنها نباید حتما به یک نتیجه برسند.

آنها نقش های متفاوتی را بر عهده دارند که شامل موارد زیر است:

۱. شرکت کننده در کارهای گروهی
۲. ناظر
۳. خلاق و ریسک پذیر

نقش معلم

شامل: ۱. انتخاب و واگذاری تکالیف است. ۲. آماده سازی یادگیرندگان برای انجام تکالیف. ۳. بالا بردن خودآگاهی یادگیرندگان.

علاقه مندان می توانند با مراجعه به منابع معرفی شده در انتهای این جزوه، علاوه بر روش های تدریس فوق موارد زیر را نیز مطالعه کنند:

- Silent way
- Suggestopedia (Desuggestopedia)
- Community language learning

جزوه چهارم

دانش تدریس ۱

Three Kinds of teachers

Basically, three kinds of language teachers can be identified. These are discussed below.

Teacher A: the explainer

Many teachers know their subject matter very well, but have limited knowledge of teaching methodology. This kind of teacher relies mainly on ‘explaining’ or ‘lecturing’ as a way of conveying information to the students. The students are listening, perhaps occasionally answering questions and perhaps making notes, but are mostly not being personally involved or challenged. The learners often get practice by doing individual exercise after one phase of the lecture has finished.

Teacher B: the involver

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 This teacher also knows the subject matter that is being dealt with. However, she is also familiar with teaching methodology; she is able to use appropriate teaching and organizational procedure and techniques. ‘Teacher explanations’ may be one of these techniques. This teacher is trying to involve the students actively and puts a great deal of effort into finding appropriate and interesting activities that will do this, while still retaining clear control over the classroom and what happen in it.

Teacher C: the enabler

This teacher knows about the subject matter and about the subject matter and about methodology, but also has an awareness of individuals and groups are thinking and feeling within her class. She actively responds to this in her planning and working methods and in building effective working relationships and a good classroom atmosphere. Her own personality and attitude are an active encouragement to learning.

This kind of teacher is confident enough to share control with the learners, or to hand it over entirely to them. Decisions made in her classroom may often be shared or negotiated. In many cases she takes her lead *from the students*; seeing herself as someone whose job is to create the conditions that enable the students to learn for themselves. Sometimes this will involve her in less traditional ‘teaching’; she may become a ‘guide’ or a ‘resource of information when needed’. Sometimes, when the class is working well under its own steam, when a lot of autonomous learning is going on, she may be hardly visible.

	Subject matter	Methodology	People
Explainer	✓		

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Involver	✓	✓	
Enabler	✓	✓	✓

These three descriptions of teachers are, of course, very broadly painted. There is no way to categorize all teaching under three headings; many teachers will find elements of which category that are true for them, or that they move between categories depending on the day and the class and the aims of a lesson. However, this simple categorization may help you to reflect on what kind of teaching you have mostly experienced in your life so far and may also help you to clarify what kind of teacher you see yourself as being now or in the future.

Learner characteristics

What are learner characteristics?

Learner characteristics include a learner's motivation, learning style, learning strategies, maturity and past language learning experience. They are factors which influence learners' attitude to learning a language, how they learn, how they respond to different teaching styles and approaches in the classroom, and how successful they are at learning a language. Below, you can find an elaboration on some of these characteristics.

Learning styles

Learning styles are the ways in which a learner naturally prefers to take in, Process and remember information and skills. Our learning style influences how

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we like to learn and how we learn best. Experts have suggested several different ways of classifying learning styles. They relate to the physical sense we prefer to use to learn our way of interacting with other people and our style of thinking. Here are some commonly mentioned learning styles:

visual	the learner learns best through seeing
auditory	the learner learns best through hearing
kinaesthetic	the learner learns best through using the body
group	the learner learns best through working with others
individual	the learner learns best through working alone
reflective	the learner learns best when given time to consider choices
impulsive	the learner learns best when able to respond immediately

You can see from these descriptions how learners with different learning styles learn in different ways, and need to be taught in different ways. We must remember, though, that learners may not fall exactly into any one category of learning style as they may have several styles.

Learning strategies

Learning strategies are the ways that learners choose and use to learn language. They include ways to help themselves identify what they need to learn, process, remember, and use new language. Using the right strategy at the right time can help us learn the language better. Some examples of learning strategies are:

Repeating new words in your head until you remember them

Experimenting/taking risks by using just-learnt language in conversations

Asking the teacher or others to give you feedback on your language use

Deciding to use the foreign language as much as possible, e.g. by talking to tourists

Recording yourself speaking, then judging and correcting your pronunciation

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Asking a speaker to repeat what he/she has said

Deciding what area of vocabulary you need to learn and then learning it

Thinking about how to memorize (remember) all the new words you meet in each lesson

Deciding to write each new vocabulary item on a separate card and display it on your fridge

Paraphrasing

Different learners use different strategies. Experts think that the strategies use most successfully depend on their character and learning style. This means there are no best strategies. But research shows that using strategies definitely makes learning more successful and that learners can be trained to use strategies.

Maturity

Maturity involves becoming grownup physically, mentally and emotionally. Children, teenagers and adults have different levels of maturity, which means they learn in different ways. Here are some of the main differences in maturity that influence language learning.

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Children	Teenagers	Adults
Need to move	Starting to keep still for longer periods but still need to move	Able to keep still for longer periods
Can concentrate for shorter periods	Concentration developing	Can concentrate for longer periods
Learn through experience	Beginning to learn in abstract ways, i.e. through thinking, as well as experiencing	Learn in more abstract ways
Are not very able to control and plan their own behaviour	Beginning to control and plan their own behaviour	Usually able to control and plan their own behaviour
Are not afraid of making mistakes or taking risks	May worry about what others think of them	Not so willing to make mistakes or take risks
Are not aware of themselves and/or their actions	Sometimes uncomfortably aware of themselves and/or their actions	Aware of themselves and/or their actions
Pay attention to meaning in language	Pay attention to meaning and increasingly to form	Pay attention to form and meaning in language
Have limited experience of life	Beginning to increase their experience of life	Have experience of life

Past language learning experience

Teenage and adult learners may have learnt English before. They may be used to learning in a particular way and have definite ideas about how to learn best. Teachers of adults (and sometimes teachers of teenagers) need to be aware of how their learners have learnt previously and how they want to learn now. The learners may welcome a change in method, but they may want to learn in the same way as they learnt before.

Other learner characteristics which can vary from learner to learner are their level of language, their motivation, and their motivation, and their general personality. Are they, for example, shy, outgoing, patient, curious, sensitive, etc.? All these qualities will affect how and how much each learner engages in different kinds of activities in the classroom.

When considering learner characteristics, teachers should pay careful attention to the following:

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1. We can find out what our learners' characteristics are by e.g. asking them, observing them, giving them questionnaires, asking at the end of a lesson whether they liked the activities done in class and why, and in what different ways they might like to work.
2. We can train learners to become aware of and use different learning strategies. This is part of learner training. We can, for example, give learners a list of strategies for remembering words and ask them which they prefer and why; or we can ask them how they arrived at a solution to a problem to raise their awareness of useful learning strategies.
3. Teachers can build into their lessons activities which match different learning styles, e.g. a listening activity followed by a reading activity followed by group work followed by a mingle (an activity which involves learners walking round the class talking to other students), followed by an exercise.
4. It is not possible for the teacher to match the learner characteristics of each learner all the time. Across a number of lessons teachers can try to vary how they teach so that they can match the learner characteristics of a range of learners.

Learner needs

What are learner needs?

When a learner learns a foreign language he or she has various kinds of needs which influence his/her learning. They could be personal needs such as a need for praise, learning needs such as a need to become more fluent, or professional

Kish Preservice Knowledge Enhancement Series (Language Teaching Knowledge) needs to learn English for giving presentations. Recognizing and trying to meet learner needs are part of being a good teacher.

The following table displays two kinds of needs which affect the learning that takes place in and outside of language classes.

LEARNER NEEDS	
Kind of needs	Where the needs come from
Personal needs	age gender cultural background interests educational background motivation
Learning needs	learning styles past language learning experience learning gap (i.e. gap between the present level and the target level of language proficiency and knowledge of the target culture) learning goals and expectations for the course learner autonomy availability of time
(Future) professional needs	language requirements for employment, training or education

Learners' needs can affect many things related to their learning, e.g. which methods or approaches they like the teacher to use, what topics interest them, what language and skills they need to focus on, what materials they prefer, etc. To meet learners' needs, schools often provide different kinds of courses, e.g. activity-based courses for younger learners, medical English for doctors, study skills courses for learners wishing to go to an English-medium (where all subjects are taught in English) school or university, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) courses for students needing to learn another subject in another language. Meeting learners' needs helps to motivate learners, making their course more relevant to them.

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Some choices the teacher can make to help address learners' personal and learning needs are shown below:

<i>Learner needs</i>	<i>How the teacher can meet learner needs</i>
Personal needs	Choosing suitable: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • materials • topics • pace (speed) of lessons • activities • approach to teaching (e.g. activity-based, topic-based) • treatment of individual learners • skills • interaction patterns (e.g. group, pair or individual work) • types of feedback (comments on learning)
Learning needs	Choosing suitable: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • materials and topics • activities • interaction patterns • approach to teaching • language and skills • level of language and skills • learning strategies • workload

جزوه پنجم دانش تدریس ۲

The Role of Error

What is the role of error?

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Making mistakes plays an important and useful part in language learning because it allows learners to experiment with language and measure their success in communicating. This chapter focuses on the kinds of mistakes and the part that mistakes play in language learning.

A simple classification

Mistakes are often categorized into error and slips. Errors occur when learners try to say something that is beyond their current level of knowledge or language processing (working on the language unconsciously to try to understand and learn it). Usually, because they are still processing or don't know this part of the language, learners cannot correct errors themselves because they don't understand what is wrong.

Slips are the result of tiredness, worry or other temporary emotions or circumstances. We make them because we are not concentrating on what we are saying or writing. They are not a result of incomplete language processing or a lack of knowledge. They happen simply because our attention is somewhere else at that moment. These kinds of mistakes can be corrected by learners themselves, once they realize they have made them.

What are the main reasons why your learners make mistakes?

There are two main reasons why second language learners make errors. The first reason is influence from the learner's first language (mother tongue/L1) on the second language (L2). This is called interference or transfer. Learners may use sound patterns, lexis or grammatical structures from their own language in English.

The second reason why learners make errors is because they are unconsciously (without knowing or being aware) working out, organizing and experimenting

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with language they have learnt, but this process is not yet complete. This kind of error is called a developmental error. These errors are common to all, whatever their L1, and are often similar to those made by a young first language speaker as part of their normal language development. Common developmental errors in English are using the past tense for the present perfect tense, or making mistakes with past verb forms. For example, very young first language speakers of English as well as English language learners often say things like ‘I goed’ instead of ‘I went’. Errors such as this one, in which learners wrongly apply a rule for one item of the language to another item, are the result of overgeneralization, i.e. applying a rule too widely. Once children develop their L1 language abilities, these errors disappear, and as a second language learner’s language ability increases, these errors often disappear, too.

Errors play a necessary and important part in language learning. They are part of learners’ interlanguage, i.e. the learners’ own version of the second language which they speak as they learn. Learners unconsciously process, i.e. analyze and reorganize their interlanguage. Interlanguage is not fixed. It develops and progresses as learners learn more. Experts think that interlanguage is an essential and unavoidable stage in language learning. In other words, interlanguage and errors are necessary to language learning.

Errors are a natural part of learning. They usually show that learners are learning and that their internal mental processes are working on and experimenting with language. By making mistakes you realize that you don’t know something and you try to put it right. As we communicate with others and see that our communication isn’t working, we try again, using other words or aiming for greater accuracy. We go through stages of learning new language, and each new piece of language we learn helps us learn more fully other pieces of language

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Developmental and interference errors can disappear by themselves, without
correction, as the learner learns more language. In fact, experts say that
correction may only help learners if they are ready for it, i.e. they are at the right
stage in their individual learning process, or interlanguage. There are three main
ways of helping learners develop their language. Firstly, learners need exposure
to lots of interesting language at the right level; secondly, they need to use
language to interact; and thirdly, they need to focus their attention on language
forms.

Sometimes errors do not disappear, but get fossilized. Fossilized errors are
errors which a learner does not stop making and which last for a long time, even
for ever, in his/her foreign language use. Fossilization of errors often happens
when learners, particularly adults, are able to communicate as much as they need
to in the foreign language and so have no communicative reason to improve
their language. These fossilized errors may be the result of lack of exposure to
the L2, the result of a learner's conscious (knowing/aware) or unconscious lack

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of motivation to improve their level of accuracy, or the fact that they cause no
problem in communication.

When considering errors language learners make, teachers should attend to the following:

1. It is important for teachers to think to think hard about whether, when and how to correct learners.
2. We can't expect instant or immediate learning. Learning is gradual, and errors will occur.
3. It's useful to think about what kind of mistake the learner is making – a slip or an error. If the mistake is a slip, the learner can correct him/herself, maybe with a little prompting from the teacher or another learner. Or, there may be no point in correcting a slip.
4. Sometimes, particularly in fluency activities, it is better not to pay attention to learners' mistakes, (i.e. ignore them), so that the learners have an opportunity to develop their confidence and their fluency, and to experiment and make mistakes with language.
5. Some learners within the same class may need to be corrected, while others may not, depending on their stage of learning, learning style and level of confidence. They may also need to be corrected in different ways.
6. Learners, particularly older ones, may find it useful to know that they make interference errors, and to be told which they are. Knowing about interference errors can help learners avoid them, especially in writing.
7. Ways of helping learners get beyond their errors are:

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Exposing them to lots of language that is just beyond their level of linguistic ability through reading or listening. This provides an unconscious challenge to learners' language processes and helps fit the pieces of the jigsaw into place.

Giving them opportunities to focus on the form of language, e.g. through exercise, reformulation (when the teacher corrects what the student has said by repeating their words correctly, but without drawing the learner's attention to their mistake) or correction.

Providing them with time in class to use language to communicate and interact and see if they can do so successfully.

Giving Feedback

What is giving feedback?

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Feedback is giving information to someone about their language and/or showing them that you have understood (or not) what they have said. In the classroom, teachers can give feedback to learners, and learners can give feedback to the teacher.

When teachers give feedback to learners, they give them information about their learning. Teacher feedback can focus on learners' language or skills, the ideas in their work, their behavior, their attitude to learning or their progress. We can give feedback or written feedback. The purposes of feedback are to motivate learners, to encourage learner autonomy and to help learners understand what their problems are and how they can improve. When learners give feedback to each other on aspects of their learning this is called peer feedback. Learners can also give feedback to teachers, for example on different aspects of the course and the lessons, such as materials, methodology (methods and procedures) and activities used in class.

Here are some examples of teacher feedback to learners.

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Example	Focus	Purpose
Oral: 'Well done. This is much better.'	Progress, language and ideas	Praising the learner and telling her she is doing well; encouragement.
Oral: 'Have another look at number four. There's a problem with spelling and I think there are more than two people.'	Language and ideas	Telling the learner there is a problem with one of the answers and that she needs to look at it again.
Oral: 'Let's look at the new structure on the board again. I think some of you have misunderstood how we use it.'	Language	Inviting learners to look again at language that they are having problems with.
Written: 'What an amazing story! You've used adjectives very well this time. Your work is much better this time. You have tried very hard.'	Ideas, language, attitude and progress	Praising the learner on her good level of work, and the effort she has made and in particular on one part of her writing (adjectives).
Oral: 'You've made good progress in all your work this month. Your written work is much more accurate.'	Language and progress	Informing the learner of her progress; encouragement.
Written: 'B / 70%. Have a look at grammar section 5 at the back of the coursebook and check again the difference in meaning between the past simple and the past perfect.'	Language	Giving a grade and informing the learner of what the problem was with her work and telling her exactly what she needs to review and how.

When considering feedback, teachers need to pay close attention to the following:

1. Teachers can also elicit feedback from their learners. This feedback can give information on whether learners like what they are doing, whether they are interested in the materials or activities, or whether they are having problems with the language.
2. Wherever possible, feedback should be balanced, focused and helpful. It needs to be balanced so that there is comment on positive aspects of a learner's work as well as areas he/she needs to improve; focused so that the learner knows

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exactly what the good points are and what the problems are; helpful so that the
learner knows what steps to take to improve.

3. Feedback which is particularly personal or sensitive should be given to
learners privately and not in front of the whole class.

Establishing and Maintaining Rapport

Introduction

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The term *rapport* refers to the quality of the relationship in a classroom: teacher-student and student-student. It is not primarily technique-driven, but grows naturally when people like each other and get on together.

Rapport is sometimes characterized as a kind of indefinable magic that some teachers manage to create where others fail, and, certainly, you can often detect when it is present within a few seconds of walking into a room: a sense of lively engagement, a roomful of people who are happy to be together and work together.

Despite the appearance of magic, good rapport is all down to a number of distinct, concrete, learnable elements. Any teacher can learn to create better rapport.

Techniques: Building Rapport

1. Be welcoming, be encouraging, be approachable

As far as reasonably possible, build in time and space for learners to talk to you as people. Don't cram lessons full from minute one to the end. Space for unstructured talk is good. Listen carefully when learners tell you things. Respond as a human.

2. Treat each learner as an individual

Don't view the class only as a class. As quickly as you can, learn names and start to see and believe in each person as an individual with potential. Let them see that this is how you view them.

3. Remember positive things about your students

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Keep a notebook in which you record and remind yourself of positive things individual students do, personal notes about them (hobbies, family, stories they tell, etc.). Let students know that you are interested in their lives beyond the classroom by asking about people or events they have mentioned previously. When a student is feeling down, remind them of their positive achievements.

4. Empathize

Try to see what things look like from the learners' point of view.

5. Be you rather than 'the teacher'

Don't forget obliged to be a teacher all the time, jumping in to save or solve. Don't talk from your hierarchical role. Ask genuine personal questions, and listen to the answers (not only the errors).

6. Don't fake happiness or pleasure

This can often come across as 'false'

7. Be culturally sensitive

Make sure that what you say and what you ask learners to do are not inappropriate for the local context.

8. Avoid sarcasm

It's almost impossible to pitch correctly and upsets people in ways that you cannot always see.

Gestures and Facial Expressions

Introduction

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With low-level classes, gestures and expressions add a crucial element to instructions and explanations. They provide visual support that helps learners to understand what is being said. They also allow the teacher to say less, which by itself may help to make the instruction or explanation clearer.

When you start to use gestures, learners will learn to associate the gesture with an instruction. After you have used a gesture a number of times, you will find that you can actually reduce the words you need to say – or even say nothing. For example, the gesture for ‘get into pairs’ along with the word ‘pairs’ may well be sufficient to get the class organized.

A word of warning though! Gestures and movements do not always mean the same things internationally. If you are working outside your own culture, or with students from can’t take anything for granted; in Bulgaria and some other countries, nodding left/right means ‘yes’ and up/down means ‘no’!

The aim of this lesson is, therefore, to make use of expressions and gestures to help reduce helpful or unclear teacher talk when giving instructions or explanations.

Techniques: General guidance for using gestures and expressions

1. Be sure your gestures are clear. Make them confidently. Don’t half do them because of embarrassment.
2. Go for bigger, wider gestures, rather than cramped-in closed-up ones.

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3. Remember that your gestures are seen from the opposite view point from the one you have visualize what the students can see from their angle, and adapt if necessary.
4. Allow enough time for your gestures to be seen before you stop them. For some key gestures, this may mean at least four or five seconds, rather than just putting your hand out and immediately withdrawing it.
5. Think of making gestures in three moves: (1) Making the gestures, (2) Holding it, as if ‘on pause’, (3) Stopping the gesture. It is Stage 2 (holding it) that is often the crucial one that goes wrong because it is done too quickly.
6. Eyebrows are very helpful for conveying reactions, especially for showing interest and encouraging further speaking. Exaggerate your normal eyebrow movements in class. And please don’t use raised eyebrows only to convey “that was bad behaviour”!
7. Don’t forget to encourage students to also use gestures and expressions. So much classroom practice is ‘armless’! Yet even dull repetition drills and exercises come alive with the added use of gestures. When you want students to repeat a sentence, check out your own way of saying it, and see what gestures and expressions you naturally use (such as a widening of arms). In class, model saying the words with the gestures, and get students to repeat words and movement. For example, imagine that you want to teach ‘I can’t stand ...’ if you get students to repeat sentences without feeling, expression or gesture, it is very forgettable. But if you yourself model saying, ‘I can’t stand broccoli’ with a face that reflects your negative reaction and perhaps an appropriate, ‘keep it away from me’ hand movement, this is much more enjoyable for students to copy and say to each other.

Techniques: Eye contact

One of the most important tools at your disposal is eye contact – and it’s definitely one to work on improving if you find it hard. The key techniques are to:

1. make eye contact with students (rather than avoiding it). Don’t use pieces of paper or books as a way of hiding. Try to keep in regular eye contact with people in the class, even when doing focused tasks such as writing on the board.
2. Allow your eye contact to remain relaxed, warm and unthreatening (rather than cold or staring).
3. Express how you feel, showing the person behind the eyes, your warmth, your changing reactions, sense of interest and enjoyment (rather than just mechanically moving the eyes).

A few suggestions:

- You cannot make eye contact with a whole class at once, but you can make eye contact with a number of individuals in it. When you teach the whole class from the front, don’t speak to ‘the room in general’ or ‘space slightly above everyone’s heads’ or ‘the back wall of the room’. Similarly don’t lock your gaze onto one or two individuals and stay with them all the time you talk. Try making eye contact with one student, holding it for five to ten seconds, then gently bouncing your gaze round the room to a random different person ... and so on through the time you are speaking. Make sure you catch the eye of people in different parts of the room: back, middle and front, left center and right.

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- When you talk with students working in pairs or groups, try the same technique looking at one for a while and then undramatically shifting your focus to another.
- When you talk with an individual, use your eye contact to show that you are ‘with them’ – listening and interested.
- use eye contact to indicate who you want to talk to. Sometimes this can do away with the need for a verbal instruction.

Gower, Phillips and Walter suggest another important technique. You can use eye contact:

To keep in touch with other students in the class or group when you are dealing with an individual, perhaps when correcting. Your eyes can say to them: ‘You’re involved too’.

The same author also point out that a teacher needs to be aware about when eye contact is potentially unhelpful: ‘ During any activity that doesn’t demand teacher-centered control, avoid eye contact, unless you are specifically asked for help or choose to join in ... A soon as you establish eye contact, you are brought into the activity.’

An example of this would be when students are making front-of-class presentations to their peers. They will have a natural inclination to focus on telling you and watching for your reaction, rather than speaking to the other students. Help them direct their attention to the whole class by deliberately not making eye contact with them. Instead, keep your eyes in a relaxed way on the people they are presenting to.

Motivation

What is motivation?

Motivation is the thoughts and feelings which make us want to and continue to want to do something and which turn our wishes into action. Motivation influences:

- why people decide to do something
- how long they keep wanting to do it
- how they work to achieve it.

Motivation is very important in language learning. It is one of the factors that helps make language learning successful.

There are several different factors which can influence motivation. They include:

- The usefulness to us of knowing the language well. Many people want to learn a language because it can help them achieve practical things such as finding a (better) job, getting onto a course of study, getting good marks from the teacher, or booking hotel rooms.
- Our interest in the target language culture. We might want to get really good at Russian, for example, so that we can read books by famous Russian authors, or understand the world which produced their great artists and composers. We may also be interested in the target culture because we actually want to become part of that culture, perhaps because we are moving to the country. In this case we might be interested in aspects of the country's customs and lifestyle, and see the target language as a key to understanding and becoming part of that culture.
- Encouragement and support from others. We may live in a country or family or go to a school where learning a foreign language is highly valued and much

Kish Preservice Knowledge Enhancement Series (Language Teaching Knowledge) encouraged. This helps us to realize the importance of the foreign language and gives us emotional support as we learn.

- wishing to communicate fully with people who matter to you. People may have friends, business partners, etc. who speak another language. They want to develop their relationship with them. This is a strong motivation to learn a language.

- Our interest in the learning process. Sometimes we want to learn a foreign language simply because we enjoy our language class; we like the teacher, how he/she teaches, the classroom activities, the coursebook or maybe the topics class deals with. All these are factors related to learning itself, which come from the classroom.

Learners may differ in their motivations; some may have strong motivation of one kind but little of another, other learners' motivation may be a mixture of kinds. There are also learners, of course, who are unmotivated, i.e. who have no motivation or are demotivated, i.e. they have lost their motivation. And motivation can change, too. A learner may, for example, be quite uninterested in learning a particular language, then meet a teacher who helps them love learning the language. Motivation can change with age, too, with some factors becoming more or less important as learners get older.

Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Two researchers in motivation, Z. Dornyei and K. Csizer, have suggested there are ten key areas in which the teacher can influence learners' motivation, and have provided a list of strategies for motivating learners in these areas.

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- 1 Set a personal example with your own behaviour (i.e. be motivated as a teacher yourself).
- 2 Create a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom (i.e. try to prevent anxiety in yourself or the learners).
- 3 Present tasks in an interesting way which makes the tasks seem achievable to the learners.
- 4 Develop a good relationship with the learners.
- 5 Increase the learners' self-confidence about language learning (i.e. help learners feel they can be good at learning the language).
- 6 Make the language classes interesting.
- 7 Promote learner autonomy.
- 8 **Personalise** the learning process (i.e. make the course feel relevant to the learners' lives).
- 9 Increase the learners' awareness of their **goals** (i.e. what they want to achieve).
- 10 Familiarise learners with the target language culture.

Some of these strategies will work better in some learning contexts than others. For example, with young learners, it can be very helpful to give praise and positive feedback as well as bring examples of the culture into the classroom. Some classes may love games and competition while others may react badly to them. The teacher can choose from the list the strategies for motivating students that are likely to work best for their learners in their learning context.

جزوه ششم

دانش تدریس ۳

Identifying and Selecting Aims

How do we identify and select aims?

Aims describe what we want learners to learn or be able to do (or do better) at the end of a lesson, a sequence (i.e. a series) of lessons or a whole course. Aims may focus, for example, on a grammatical structure or a function, on the vocabulary of a particular topic, or on developing a language skill. Aims, especially for the younger learners, may not always focus on particular areas of language. For example, the aim of a lesson could be listening to a story for pleasure or encouraging a positive attitude towards the foreign language. To identify and select the most appropriate aims, we need to ask ourselves these key questions:

What do my learners already know? (Or what can they already do?)

What do they need to know? (Or what do they need to do?)

In order to identify and select the most appropriate aims for a particular group of learners, we need to consider what will help them to take the next step in their learning. This may be new language, further practice of language they already know, skills development or practice, or revision of language they have met in the past but are not using confidently or accurately.

<i>Main aim</i>	<i>Subsidiary aims</i>	<i>Personal aims</i>
To practise making polite requests in the context of making holiday arrangements. Example exponent: <i>Could you give me some information about hotels?</i>	Grammar: to revise modal auxiliary verbs. Functional exponents: <i>Could/Would you ...?</i> Vocabulary: to consolidate lexis for travel, accommodation. Phonology: to focus on intonation . Speaking: to give controlled oral practice.	To improve my organisation of the whiteboard; to give clearer examples.

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A main aim, like the one above, describes the most important thing we want the learners to achieve in a lesson or sequence of lessons. For example, we may want learners to understand and practice using new language; to reinforce or consolidate (i.e. to make stronger) the use of language they already know by giving them further practice; or to revise language they have recently learnt.

Subsidiary aims show the language or skills learners must be able to use well in order to achieve the main aim of the lesson. Subsidiary aims usually contain language that is already known to the learners. Stating both main and subsidiary aims is a good way of making sure that our lesson plan focuses on what we want our learners to learn, or to be able to do. It enables us to see how the lesson should develop, from one stage (or part) to the next, building up our learners' knowledge or skills in the best possible order.

Identifying and selecting main and subsidiary aims are the first steps in planning a lesson. Once we have decided on these aims, we can design or select the most appropriate stage aims and activities, put them in the best order and choose the most suitable teaching aids and materials. After the lesson, we can look back at this part of the plan to see whether we have achieved our aims, i.e. whether we have succeeded in teaching what we planned to teach. This also helps us to select the most appropriate aims for further lessons.

In addition to the learning aim, we may also want to think about our personal aims as teachers. Personal aims show what we would like to improve or focus on in our teaching. Like those given in the first table above, these might be about improving the way we handle materials and teaching aids (things we can use to support our teaching in the classroom) or particular teaching techniques, or they might be about our relationship with the learners. Here are some more examples:

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to make more use of the phonemic chart (a poster with phonemic symbols)

to get learners to work with different partners

to get quieter learners to answer questions

Identifying the different components of a lesson plan

How do we identify the different components of a lesson plan?

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A lesson is a set of notes that helps us to think through what we are going to teach and how we are going to teach it. It also guides us during and after the lesson. We can identify the most important components (or parts) of a lesson plan by thinking carefully about our learners, *what* we want our learners to do and *how* want them to do it.

Key Concepts

The main components of a lesson plan show us what the lesson is for (the aims), what the teacher and the learners will do during the lesson and how they will do it (the procedure).

Other components of the plan, for example, the timing of different stages or the profile of the group, help us to think about possible problems and remind us of things we need to remember about the learners.

But, how can a lesson plan help teachers?

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<i>Before the lesson</i>	Writing down the aims and the procedures for each stage of the lesson helps us to make sure that we have planned the best possible sequence to enable us to achieve those aims .
<i>During the lesson</i>	The plan can also help the teacher to check timing – the amount of time we plan for each stage – and to check that the lesson is following the sequence we decided on.
<i>After the lesson</i>	We can keep the plan as a record of what happened, making any changes necessary to show how the lesson was different from the plan. We can then use the plan and notes to help plan the next lesson. (At this stage, the plan may be more like a photograph, a story or a summary, giving us a record of the lesson.)

The table above shows how lesson plans can help language teachers.

The next question regards the necessary components of lesson plans. Look at the table below for these components.

<i>Lesson plan headings</i>	
Level and number of learners	who we are planning the lesson for
Timetable fit	how the lesson is connected to the last lesson and/or the next one
Main aim(s)	what we want learners to learn or to be able to do by the end of the lesson
Subsidiary aims	other things we want learners to be able to do during the lesson because they lead to the main aim
Personal aims	aspects of our own teaching we want to develop or improve
Assumptions	what we think learners already know or can already do related to the aims
Anticipated language problems	things that learners may find difficult
Possible solutions	action we will take to deal with the anticipated problems
Teaching aids, materials, equipment	useful reminders of things to take to the lesson
Procedures	tasks and activities for each stage
Timing	length of time needed for each stage
Interaction patterns	ways in which learners work at different stages, i.e. individually, in pairs, in groups, as a whole class
Homework	

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When we make a lesson a lesson plan, we need to be sure about the learning rationale (or reasons) for the plan, to ask ourselves how the procedures will help to achieve our main aims and to make sure there are strong connections between the different stages.

We also need to build in variety, i.e. how we can use different activity types, language skills and interaction patterns. Learners of all ages need variety, but this is especially important for younger learners, who need frequent changes of activity.

A lesson plan can include stages which we can leave out if necessary. We can also include some different possibilities in a lesson plan, e.g. activities for differentiation or an extra activity to use if learners take less time than expected to complete a task, or if we are not sure how well parts of the plan will work.

A lesson plan can be divided into two parts. These are called background and procedure, and you can see this division in the lesson plan above. The components in the background come from thinking carefully about who our students are, what they need and what our aims are. The answers to these questions provide a context that helps us to write the procedure part of the plan.

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Below you can see a sample lesson plan.

Timing	Procedure	Subsidiary aims	Aids and materials	Interaction pattern
5 minutes	Ask students who they ask for advice if they have a problem.	Warmer/lead-in: to get students talking and introduce the topic	-	Pairwork
10 minutes	Discuss typical problems for young people; elicit language to ask for and give advice.	To create context To revise modal auxiliary verbs To elicit/introduce vocabulary	Magazine pictures Whiteboard	Teacher → whole class
5 minutes	Show headlines for students to guess the content of letters to the advice page in a teen magazine.	To get students ready for reading To predict content To use students' own knowledge	OHP	Teacher → whole class
15 minutes	Students read different mini-texts, then summarise the content of the letters.	To check predictions Intensive reading To introduce the structure 'If I were you, I'd...'	Photocopies of six problem page letters	1st group work ↓ 2nd group work (new groups)

Selection and Use of Teaching Aids

How do we select and use teaching aids?

Teaching aids are the resources and equipment available to us in the classroom, as well as the resources we can bring into the classroom. They include interactive whiteboards, computers, CD players, DVD players and overhead projectors (OHPs) (i.e. equipment with a light in it that can make images appear larger on a screen), visual aids (pictures that can help learners understand), realia and the teacher himself/herself! We select and use aids by thinking carefully about the main aims, the subsidiary aims and stage aims of a lesson, and then choosing the most appropriate aids.

Look at the table below for some of these aids.

<i>Classroom equipment</i>	<i>Main teaching purpose</i>
blackboard/whiteboard	writing up planned vocabulary, grammar examples and explanations
overhead projector (OHP)	displaying prepared exercises on transparencies (plastic sheets)
cassette recorder/CD player	listening practice
video recorder	listening practice with added visual information
computer	grammar exercises
language laboratory (i.e. a room where learners can listen to recordings and record themselves)	grammar drills

Other aids are: realia, flashcards (cards with words, sounds, sentences or pictures on them, that the teacher shows the class) cue/prompt cards (cards small enough for the teacher to hold up one after another, or for students to use in pairwork with simple drawings or single words or phrases on them), puppets

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(models of people or animals that you can move by putting your hands inside them), charts (diagrams that show information), magazine pictures-and the teacher.

Think about the best ways to use different aids (e.g. using flashcards to give quick, clear prompts, or using the overhead projector to show corrections to the whole class or for students to use for presentations). Different aids have different advantages and disadvantages. Make sure you choose the best one for your specific teaching purpose and context.

Aids that you can prepare in advance, like charts, flashcards and transparencies for the overhead projector, will help you to make sure that procedures outlined in lesson plans match your aims. Another advantage is that you can save such aids and re-use them in future lessons.

Make sure that you check any equipment before the lesson. If you use computers or the language laboratory, advance preparation is essential. It is important to plan all your instructions very carefully, as well as the sequence of activities for using the aids.

Learners may also make use of a self-access center, a place with books, worksheets, computers and CDs, where they can study by themselves.

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