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ANNOTATSIYA

Ushbu darslik Oliy o'quv yurtlarining 5120100 -Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish (ingliz) 511400 - Xorijiy til va adabiyot (ingliz) yo'nalishi o'qituvchi va talabalari uchun mo'ljallangan bo'lib, darslikda Chet tillarni o'qitishning integrallashgan kursining predmeti, asosiy tushunchalari, maqsadi va vazifalari hamda o'qitish usullari haqida umumiy tushunchalar, yangi metodlar, innovatsion yangiliklar orqali darsni tashkil qilish, chet tili o'qitish usullarining xilma-xiligi bilan bog'liq masalalarning umumiy tavsifi va darslarda tahlil etish haqida muhim ma'lumotlar berilgan.

АННОТАЦИЯ

Это пособие предназначено для преподавателей и студентов направления 5120100-Филология и обучение языкам (английский), 511400 - Иностранные языки и литература (английский) в высших учебных заведениях. В этом пособии представлены общие понятия о предмете, основные концепции, цели и задачи Интегрированного курса обучения иностранному языку, а также общие понятия о методах, новых методах, организации урока через инновации, общее описание вопросов, связанных с разнообразием методов обучения иностранному языку, и важная информация дана об анализе на уроках.

ANNOTATION

This manual is intended for teachers and students of 5120100 – Philology and teaching languages (English), 511400 – Foreign language and literature (English) of higher education institutions. The subject, basic concepts, goals and objectives of Integrated course of teaching foreign language, as well as general concepts about methods, new methods, lesson organization through innovations, general description of issues related to the diversity of foreign language teaching methods and important information about analysis in lessons are given.

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Introduction.

In the educational system of Uzbekistan teaching English is being improved to the new quality degree based on new informative communication and pedagogic technologies which are worth demands of new period. Taken decisions which are made in order to perfect absolutely to prepare system of specialists who can speak in foreign language completely, to provide continuousness of educational operations are intensifying attention of learning language. Such attention is demanding from teachers in educational process to know how to utilize modern pedagogic and innovative technologies in an effective way as well as know productive ways of developing communication skills of learners in foreign language.

Our President Shavkat Mirziyoyev Miromonovich is paying much attention to improve literature, culture and art greatly. As he mentions in his speech “Speaking about the development of the cultural and humanitarian sphere, first of all, it should be noted that this year 12 important documents related to the issues of culture, foreign language and literature were adopted. In order to increase the role and significance of creative unions in the life of the country, to strengthen their material and technical base, the Public Fund for Support of Creative Persons of Uzbekistan has been established”.¹

With the approval of Presidential Decree «On measures for the further development of the higher education system» as of April 20, 2017 № 2909 there have been a lot of improvements and changes in Higher Education System. This gave a way to professionals of this sphere to search for new methods, techniques, create informative and literary sources, using new information technologies and others in education system.

This manual is designed to strengthen and develop students' knowledge of literature and foreign language teaching methods. Students will learn about new ways of teaching a foreign language, as well as how to do it in an integrated way.

¹Mirziyoyev Sh.M. Critical analysis, strict discipline and order as well as personal responsibility must a daily rule of every official's daily activities. – T : Tashkent: Uzbekistan. 2017 – P.234.

This manual is divided into two modules:

Module A introduces methods of teaching and learning a foreign language, strategies for teaching a foreign language in an integrated way. It provides information on psychological factors and language learning problems.

Module B opens a discussion on grammar teaching. It provides information on approaches and types of tests in grammar teaching.

The dictionary of literary terms explains the meaning of literary terms. In each topic, questions were asked to reinforce activities and knowledge about the topic. It encourages students to explore ways to teach a foreign language, to differentiate between them, and to think about the differences between them.

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**THEME 1. INTRODUCTION - a foreign language, its learning and teaching;
- features of the language learner**

Plan:

1. A foreign language, its learning and teaching
2. Features of the language learner
3. Types of learning foreign language

Aim:

- to teach students about learning foreign language;
- to emphasize the role of grammar in learning language;
- to make students know about features of the language learning;

Objectives:

- to give students an opportunity to explore what the learning foreign language is;
- to enrich students' knowledge about learning foreign language;

Learning outcomes:

- to introduce the theme and improve their knowledge about it;
- to give information about learning foreign language;
- to analyze types of learning foreign language;

Key words:

- learning foreign language, language learner, teaching grammar, language learning process, vocabulary, types of teaching.

The list of literature:

1. Morford, J. and R. Mayberry. (2000). A reexamination of ‘‘early exposure’’ and its implications for language acquisition by eye. In C. Chamberlain, J. Morford and R. Mayberry (eds), *Language Acquisition by Eye*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
2. Brown, D. (2000), *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

Learning a foreign language (or learning a second language, SLA or learning a second language) - these people learn languages in addition to their native language. The term second language is used to describe any language (including third or subsequent languages) learned from childhood. The language to be studied is often referred to as ‘‘target language’’ or ‘‘L2’’; The SLA is sometimes referred to as L2A for ‘‘L2 acquisition’’.

The term ‘‘language learning’’ became popular after Stephen Krashen compared it to formal and unconstructive ‘‘learning’’. Many scholars today use the words ‘‘language learning’’ and ‘‘language learning’’ interchangeably, unless they refer directly to Krashen’s work. However, ‘‘second language learning’’ or ‘‘SLA’’ is recognized as the preferred term for this science discipline.

While SLA is often seen as part of applied linguistics, it is usually concerned with language systems and the processes of learning them, while applied linguistics can focus more on the student’s experience, especially in the classroom. In addition, the SLA basically studies natural knowledge, where students learn a language with little or no formal preparation or instruction.

Describe the language of the students

Through descriptive learning of students, SLA researchers seek to better understand language learning without resorting to factors other than the learner's language. Researchers can adopt an interlinguistic perspective and compare the learner's language as a linguistic system or compare the learner's language to the target language. The research focuses on the following question: What are the specific features of student language?

Error analysis

The field of error analysis in SLA was established in the 1970s by S. P. Korder and his colleagues². Error analysis is an alternative to contrast analysis, an approach influenced by behaviorism, and applied linguists have tried to use formal differences between students' first and second languages to make predictions. Error analysis showed that contrast analysis could not predict most errors, although it did have valuable aspects in the study of language transfer. The main conclusion of the error analysis is that many of the students' mistakes are made by students who draw incorrect conclusions about the new language rules.

Error analysts distinguish between systemic and non-systemic errors. They often seek to develop a typology of errors. The error can be classified according to the main type: incorrect, additions, substitutes, or word order. They can be classified according to their appearance: overt errors such as "I get angry" are obvious even out of context; hidden errors only appear in context. The classification according to the breadth of the context in which the analyst should study and the breadth of the words spoken to correct the error is closely related to this.

Errors can also be classified according to language level: phonological errors, dictionary or lexical errors, syntactic errors, and so on. They can be assessed according to the degree of interference in communication: global errors

² Brown, 2000.

make it difficult to understand the word, while local errors do not. In the example above, “I’m angry” would be a local mistake because its meaning is clear.

Error analysis was initially fraught with methodological problems. In particular, the above typologies are problematic: based solely on linguistic data, it is not possible to reliably determine how a reader is making a mistake. Moreover, error analysis can effectively deal not only with student acceptance (listening and reading) but also with student production (speaking and writing). In addition, it does not control the use of communicative strategies such as student avoidance, in which case students do not use a form that is inconvenient for them. For these reasons, although error analysis is still used to examine specific questions in the SLA, the search for a general theory of reader errors has been virtually abandoned. In the mid-1970s, Corder et al. Students took a broader approach to language called “interlingual”. Error analysis is closely related to learning to treat errors in language teaching. Nowadays, the study of errors is especially relevant to focus on form teaching methodology.

The Interlanguage Scholarship seeks to understand the student’s language as a natural language with its own rules. Interlingual scholars, at least for heuristic purposes, refuse to see the reader’s language only as an imperfect version of the target language. Reciprocal languages are probably seen as an attitude towards language learning rather than a clear discipline. In the same sense, interlinguistic work is a living microcosm of linguistics. An interlinguistic approach can be applied to students’ knowledge of L2 sound systems (interlingual phonology) and norms of common language use among students (interlingual pragmatics).

Describing how students’ language conforms to universal linguistic norms, interlingual research has been a major contributor to our understanding of linguistic universals in the SLA.

Forms of development

Ellis (1994) distinguished between “order” with different linguistic features and “sequence” with a pattern with a specific linguistic feature.

Admission procedure

The researchers found a very consistent pattern in children’s acquisition of first language structures, and this was of great interest by SLA scholars. Much effort has been expended to test the “identification hypothesis” confirming that the mastery of the first and second languages conforms to the same patterns. This has not been proven, perhaps because the cognitive and affective states of second language learners are much more developed. However, purchase orders in SLAs are often similar to first language learning and may have common neurological causes.

Many students begin the learning process with a “quiet period,” during which they rarely speak. For some, this is a period of language shock, in which the learner actively rejects the incomprehensible introduction of a new language. However, research has shown that many “silent” students engage in personal speech (sometimes referred to as “self-talk”). When they seem silent, they repeat important phrases and lexical pieces to survive. These memorized phrases are used during the next formulaic speech period. Regardless of choice or coercion, other students have no free time and they move directly to formulaic speech. In this speech, where several procedures are used to achieve simple goals, it is usually not much different from the L2 morphosyntax. Eventually, this leads to an experimental phase of reading, in which the semantics and grammar of the target language are simplified and students begin a real interlinguistic structure.

The nature of the transition between formulaic and simplified speech is debatable. Some, including Krashen, noted that there was no cognitive relationship between them and that the transition was abrupt. Influenced by recent lexicon theories, thinkers have preferred to see even native speakers as complex formulas, and have interpreted this transition as a process of gradually developing a wider

repertoire and gaining a deeper understanding of the rules that govern them. Some studies have supported both views, and perhaps the relationship depends in many ways on the reading style of individual students.

In the 1970s, research was conducted on whether it was possible to show a consistent order of morpheme acquisition. Most of these studies indicated purchase orders of selected morphemes. For example, among English learners, it was found that a set of features such as -ing suffix, plural, and plural were consistently found ahead of primary, auxiliary, and third-person units. However, these studies have been criticized for not paying enough attention to the overuse of functions (idiosyncratic use outside mandatory contexts in L2) and the occasional but inconsistent nature of features. Recent scholarships prefer to see each linguistic feature as a step-by-step and complex process. Therefore, since the 1980s, many scholarships have focused on sequencing rather than on the order of acquisition of features.

Read the information and do the activity!

ACTIVITY 1.

Choose the correct answers.

What are the differences between the language learning and teaching?

1. Gives feedback
2. Understands and applies feedback
3. Not possible after death but can be done throughout life
4. Possible even after death
5. Cannot be essentially mandated
6. Can be mandated
7. Fewer teachers as compared to learners
8. More learners as compared to teachers

A. Teaching	B. Learning

Sequence of acquisition

A number of studies have examined the sequence in which learners of different Indo-European languages acquire rhymes. These are discussed by Ellis (1994), pp. 96-99. They suggest that students begin by dropping rhymes or using them without separating them: for example, addressing all agents using “I”. Then the students have a single numeric character, usually a person, then a number, and finally gender. Little evidence was found of students interfering with their mother tongue; it can be seen that students use pronouns based on their conclusions about the structure of the target language.

Research on word order in German has shown that most students start with a word order based on their native language. This suggests that some aspects of language syntax are influenced by students’ first language, while others are not.

Studies on the sequence of word acquisitions have been fully reviewed by Nation (2001). Casper and Rose (2002) studied in depth the sequence of having pragmatic features. Consistent patterns emerged in both areas, and they became a basic theoretical theory.

Variability

The interlinguistic view that students see language as a specific language may be true, but this language is very different from native speakers. The reader may show very slippery, grammatical language in one context and incomprehensible nonsense in another. Scholars of various traditions have adopted conflicting views on the significance of this phenomenon. Those who bring Chomsky’s opinion to the SLA generally view the variability as “performance

errors” and do not deserve systematic scrutiny. On the other hand, those who approach it with a socio-linguistic or psycholinguistic orientation view variability as a key indicator of how the situation affects students’ language use. Naturally, much research on variability has been conducted by those who find it meaningful.

Research on student language variability distinguishes between “free variability” that occurs in a similar situation and “structural change” that is associated with a change in situation. Of course, the boundaries between the two are often disputed.

The free variability of an unknown pattern is highly variable from one reader to another. In a sense, it can represent different learning styles and communicative strategies. Students who like high-risk communication strategies and have a different cognitive style are more likely to show variability as they experiment freely with different forms.

A free change in the use of a language feature is generally taken as a sign that it has not been fully mastered. The reader is still trying to figure out which rules govern the use of alternative forms. Such variability appears to be most common among elementary school students and may be completely absent in advanced students.

Systemic variability occurs as a result of changes in the linguistic, psychological, and social context. Linguistic factors are usually very local. For example, the pronunciation of a difficult phoneme may depend on whether it is found at the beginning or end.

The most important psychological factor is usually planning time. Numerous studies have shown that the more time students need to plan, the more regular and complex their production can be. Thus, students can produce goal-like forms in a 30-minute written assignment for planning, which makes it almost impossible to plan a conversation.

Factors influencing structural changes also play an important role. For example, students in a stressful situation (e.g., a formal exam) may show less goal-like forms than those in a comfortable situation. It clearly interacts with social factors and the attitude towards the interlocutor and the subject also plays an important role.

External factors of the student

The study of learner-external factors in SLA is primarily concerned with the question: how do learners learn target language? The study focused on the impact of different types of data and the impact of social context.

Social effects

The process of learning a language can be very difficult and the impact of positive or negative relationships from the surrounding community can be enormous. One aspect that deserves special attention is the link between gender achievement and language achievement. Studies in many cultures have shown that women are generally superior to men. Some have speculated that this is related to gender roles. Doman (2006) writes in the journal *SLA Cultural Impact*: “There are many questions about what defines SLA, how its boundaries expand, and how its research contributes.

The attitude of the community towards the language being studied can have a major impact on SLA. When society has a negative view of the target language and its speakers, or the relationship with them, learning is often much more difficult. This finding is confirmed by studies conducted in many contexts.

Other common social factors include parents’ attitudes toward language learning and the nature of group dynamics in the language classroom.

Early attitudes can increase motivation and opportunities in general, early exposure to language, especially language.

Login and receive

The direct source of information about the target language of the students is the target language itself. When they communicate directly with the target language, this is called “introduction”. If students work in a way that contributes to language learning, it is called “acceptance”.

In general, student enrollment is one of the most important factors influencing their education. However, this should be clear to them. In observation theory, Krashen argued that language input should be at the “L + 1” level, which the reader cannot fully understand; this introduction includes structures that are understandable but not yet fully understood. This has been criticized for the lack of a clear definition of L + 1 and the fact that the inclusion of factors other than systemic difficulties (e.g., interest or presentation) may indeed affect acceptability. The concept is quantitative, but in the study of vocabulary; Nation (2001) reviews a variety of studies that show that approximately 98% of the words in a text used must be known in advance for comprehensive reading to be effective.

Extensive research has been conducted on ways to change input methods to divert students’ attention to linguistically important areas. Improving access may include bold text words or borderline editions to the reading text. The research here is closely related to the study of pedagogical effects and is relatively diverse.

ACTIVITY 2.

Read the text and do the tasks.

Write answers to the questions!

Nº	QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
1.	What are the features of a good language learner?	
2.	What are the characteristics of English language learners?	
3.	What are the essential qualities of language?	
4.	What kinds of practice are helpful in language learning?	
5.	Who are our English language learners?	
6.	What are the stages of writing for English	

	language learners?	
7.	How do you describe a learner?	
8.	What are the five characteristics of learning?	
9.	What are the characteristics of today's learners?	

Interaction

Long's interaction hypothesis suggests that the use of target language in communication is of great help in language learning. In particular, semantic negotiations have been shown to make a significant contribution to vocabulary acquisition (Long, 1990). In reviewing important literature on the subject, Nation (2000) links the importance of negotiation to the generative use of words: the use of words in new contexts encourages a deeper understanding of their meaning.

In the 1980s, Canadian SLA researcher Merrill Swain hypothesized that speech was necessary as a meaningful introduction to language learning. However, many studies have shown that there is no correlation between learning and production volume. Nowadays, most scholars argue that non-meaningful output is important for language learning, but first and foremost, language production experience leads to efficient data processing.

Pedagogical effects

The study of the impact of teaching on second language acquisition seeks to systematically measure or evaluate the effectiveness of language teaching practices. Such studies have been conducted for every level of language, from phonetics to pragmatics, and for almost every current teaching methodology. It is therefore not possible to generalize their conclusions here. However, a number of other common issues were addressed.

Studies have shown that many traditional language teaching methods are very ineffective. However, the general opinion of SLA scholars today is that formal education can help in language learning.

Another important issue is the effectiveness of explicit teaching: can language teaching have a constructive impact on students other than the introduction of extended information? Since the clear instruction is usually to be in the student's native language, many argue that these students have little or no access to internships and opportunities. Studies at different levels of language have led to completely different results. It should be noted that pronunciation does not respond seriously to explicit learning. Other traditional areas of specific education, such as grammar and vocabulary, had clear results. The positive impact of clear instruction at this level seems to be limited to helping students understand important aspects of information. Interestingly, high-level aspects of language, such as sociopragmatic and verbal competence, showed the strongest effect of giving clear instructions. Studies have also shown a clear effect of age on the effectiveness of explicit instruction: the younger students are, the less benefit they receive. However, research shows that early entry into a second language increases a child's ability to learn a language, even a first language.

Internal factors of the reader

The study of learner-internal factors in SLA is primarily concerned with the question: in what target language will students be proficient? In other words, if effective access and instruction are provided, what internal resources will students use to process this information and produce a rule-controlled interlingual language?

ACTIVITY 3.

Read the text and write answers to the questions!

No	QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
1.	What are internal factors?	
2.	What are readers factors?	
3.	What is internal environmental factors?	
4.	What are the qualities of a good reader?	
5.	What factors influence teaching?	
6.	What are the 5 stages of reading?	
7.	What are five factors affecting learning?	
8.	What are the internal and external factors that influence learning?	
9.	What are examples of internal influences?	
10	What are the internal factors of motivation?	

Current critical period research

How children acquire their mother tongue (L1) and how it relates to foreign language (L2) education has long been debated. While the evidence for an age-related decline in L2 learning ability is debatable, it is generally assumed that children learn L2 more easily, while older learners rarely speak. This assumption stems from the idea of a “critical period” (CP). CP was popularized in 1967 by Eric Lenneberg for the acquisition of L1, but now the impact of young language on second language acquisition is of great interest. SLA theories explain the learning process and suggest possible causal factors for SLA, mainly trying to explain the differences in language propensity of children and adults through specific areas of learning and to identify those using psychological mechanisms.

Studies explore these ideas and hypotheses, but the results vary: some make it easier for adolescent children to learn a language, some focus on the preferences of older learners, and still others focus on the availability of CP for SLA. Recent studies (e.g., Mayberry and Lock, 2003) have recognized that some aspects of SLA may affect age, while others remain unchanged. The aim of the study was to determine the decline in the ability to enrich vocabulary with age.

Before reviewing empirical studies, it is important to review SLA theories and their explanations for age-related differences. The most reductionist theories stem from the study of L1 and brain injury by Penfield and Roberts (1959) and Lenneberg (1967); children who suffer from a disability before puberty usually recover and develop normal language, while adults rarely recover completely and often are unable to restore their oral ability five months after the disorder. Both theories agree that children have a neurological advantage in language learning and that adolescence is associated with a turning point in ability. They point out that language acquisition occurs primarily in childhood because the brain loses flexibility after a certain age. It then becomes rigid and loses its ability to adapt and reorganize, making it difficult to learn (re-learn) the language.

Cases of deaf and wild children provide evidence for a biologically determined CP for L1. Wild children are children who are not affected by language because they were raised in childhood, in the wild, alone and / or in prison. A classic example is the “Genie” who is deprived of social contact from birth to the age of thirteen (after adolescence).

Nevertheless, such studies are problematic; isolation can lead to general delays and emotional disturbances, which can confuse conclusions about language skills. There are fewer methodological shortcomings in research on deaf children learning American Sign Language (ASL). Newport and Supalla (1987) studied the study of ASL in deaf children of different ages; rarely do people suffer from ASL birth defects, most of which they knew about in school.

The results showed a linear decrease in performance with increasing age of exposure; those with ASL from birth showed the best and worst results of “late learners” in all production and comprehension tests. Thus, their research provides direct evidence of age-related decline in language learning ability, but this is not consistent with Lenneberg’s CP hypothesis that even the oldest children, “late learners” , until the end of the diagnosed CP. ASL is four years old and therefore underage.

Other studies have questioned the biological approach; Krashen (1975) re-analyzed clinical data proving that brain specialization occurred long before the Lenneberg calculation. Therefore, if CP is present, it is incompatible with lateralization.

Although the optimal age for SLA has not been determined, the theory suggests that young children may learn the language more easily than adults because adults can re-apply the principles developed during L1 education and choose the SLA path; children can learn several languages at the same time. Principles are still active and they face sufficient language patterns (Pinker, 1995).

However, there are problems in extrapolating UG theory to SLA: L2 students go through several stages of speech, unlike the L1 or L2 they heard. Other factors include the cognitive maturity of the majority of L2 students, their differences in language learning, and their fluency in a single language.

ACTIVITY 4.

Read the text and write answers to the questions!

№	QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
1.	What is internal factors of decision making?	
2.	What are internal factors that may affect behavior?	
3.	What are the 5 environmental factors?	
4.	What are external factors examples?	
5.	What are organizational factors?	
6.	What is internal environment and its components?	
7.	What are the internal marketing environmental factors?	
8.	What are the environmental factors affecting the	

	organization?	
9.	What are the 7 strengths?	
10.	What are the 7 habits of a good reader?	
11.	What are the strengths as a reader?	

Other areas of research

Empirical research has sought to take into account variables described in detail in SLA theories and to provide insight into L2 learning processes that can be applied in the learning environment. Recent SLA research has been conducted in two main areas: one focuses on combining L1 and L2 pairs, which makes L2 particularly difficult to acquire, and the other explores some aspects of language that may have limited maturity. Flege, Mackay, and Piske (2002) considered two interpretations of L2 performance differences between bilingual and monolingual-L2 speakers, i.e., bilingual superiority to assess mature defined CP or interlingual interference.

Flege, Mackay, and Piske examined whether participants' age of English learning influenced Italian-English dominance, and determined the dominance of the first bilingual English (L2) and the dominance of the late bilingual Italian (L1). Subsequent analyzes showed that foreign accents were identified when the Italian spoke dominant English, but the bilingual (English dominant) did not have an accent in either language. This suggests that although the effects of interlingual interference are not inevitable, their occurrence and bilingual dominance may be related to CP.

Sebastian-Galles, Echeverria, and Bosch (2005) also studied bilingualism and emphasized the importance of early language influence. They later studied L2 and saw the processing and expression of Spanish-Catalan bilingual phrases that affected both languages simultaneously from birth, rather than the dominant words in Spanish or Catalan. The findings show that Catalan words "bilingual from birth"

were more difficult to distinguish from vowel sounds than those from Catalan dominants (measured by reaction time).

These difficulties occur during the eight-month period, when bilingual babies are not sensitive to the difference in vocal sounds, despite the language they hear the most. It affects how words are expressed in their lexicons, and that this is a crucial period of language learning, and that the initial influence of language shapes the linguistic process for life. Sebastian-Galles et al (2005) also demonstrate the importance of phonology for the study of L2; it is believed that learning L2 after mastering L2 phonology can reduce the ability to distinguish new sounds that appear in L2.

Numerous studies on the effect of age on specific aspects of SLA have focused on grammar, and the overall conclusion is that it is more age-related than semantic. B. Harley (1986) compared the early and late achievements of French students in baptism programs. He said that after 1,000 hours of exposure, late learners had better control over French verb systems and syntax. However, when comparing early baptized students (mean age 6,917) with age-appropriate mother tongues, common problem areas, including third-party abundance and mild “vous” forms, were identified. This means that grammar (L1 or L2) usually requires later abstract knowledge and reflection (B. Harley, 1986).

B. Harley also measured the final achievements and found that the two age groups made the same mistakes in syntax and lexical selection, confusing French with L1. The general conclusion of these studies is that students of different ages acquire different aspects of language with different difficulties. Some changes in grammatical performance are related to maturity (discussed in B. Harley in 1986), but all participants started the baptism program before puberty, and therefore the strong hypothesis of the test period is straightforward; -right - they were too young to pass the right test.

Mayberry and Lock (2003) answered the question of whether young L1 and L2 limit purchases. They studied the grammatical abilities of deaf and hard of hearing adults whose linguistic influence was in early childhood or later. According to L2 grammar assignments, those who verbally or signed L1 indicated a premature birth rate, those who had no L1 experience (i.e., deaf and parents did not know sign language), and they were weak. Meybury and Lock concluded that early exposure to L1 was important for the formation of lifelong learning ability, regardless of the nature of the exposure (verbal or sign language). This is consistent with Chomsky's UG theory, where while language learning principles are still active, language learning is easy and the principles developed through L1 education are crucial for L2 learning.

Scherag, Demuth, Rösler, Neville and Röder (2004) suggest the study of some syntactic processing functions, and lexical access can be limited only by maturity, while semantic functions have no relative effect on age. They studied the impact of late SLAs on speech comprehension by German immigrants to the U.S. and American immigrants to Germany. They found that English speakers who learned German early had deficiencies in performing some grammatical tasks, lexical tasks at the local level. These findings are consistent with the work of Hahne (2001, Scherag et al., 2004).

One of the studies specifically mentioned about the acquisition of semantic functions is Weber-Fox and Neville (1996). Their results showed that Sino-English-speaking people who learned English after puberty learned the dictionary at a higher level of competence than the syntactic aspects of the language. However, they reported a change in accuracy in identifying semantic anomalies in subjects who learned English after the age of sixteen but were less affected by the grammatical aspects of the language. It has been hypothesized that semantic aspects of language are based on associative learning mechanisms that allow lifelong learning (Neville and Bavelier, 2001 and Scherag et al., 2004), while syntactic aspects are based on computational mechanisms, built in certain age

periods. Thus, it is easier to access semantic functions when understanding L2 and therefore dominates the process: if they are vague, syntactic information will not be easy to understand. These hypotheses help to explain the research results of Scherag et al. (2004).

Some researchers have focused only on the practical applications of SLA research. Asher (1972) rarely requires adolescents and adults to learn L2 successfully, and links this to teaching strategies. He presents an L2 learning strategy based on L1 acquisition of infants, in which listening plays an important role in language learning: listening is “ready” for assumptions confirmed by Carroll (1960). Asher points out that when buying L2, in this case the German, if the teaching is based on L1, the fluency of listening is achieved in half of the usual time and therefore the teachers can read and write compared to those who emphasize teaching.

Similarly, Horvitz summarizes the results of the SLA study and teaches some principles of L2 acquisition and is taken from the relevant literature collection. Like Asher, Horvitz emphasizes the importance of the naturalistic experience in L2, promotes the practice of listening and reading, and emphasizes participation in life conversations. It offers a teaching practice based on clear principles; “[M] three lesson periods should be devoted to developing listening and reading skills” and “teachers should assess students’ interests and provide the necessary materials”³. The “audio-lingual” teaching practice used in this study is based on the principles outlined by Asher and Horvits; listen carefully, then practice reading and speaking. The words studied were found to apply to all students, regardless of age, and according to Pfeffer, they are among the most commonly used names in everyday German.

Cognitive approaches

³ Horvitz, 1986, p.685-686

Extensive research and hypotheses have been conducted on SLA-based cognitive processes. Ellen Bialistock modeled the acquisition process, which increased the focus on language use. In other words, as word selection and pronunciation processes are automated, students' language skills also improve.

Language transfer

Language transfer usually means that the learner tries to apply the rules and forms of the first language in the second language. The term may also include the transfer of features from one additional language to another (e.g., from a second language to a third language), but this is less common.

The contrast analysis discussed above sought to predict the errors of all students on the basis of language transmission. As subsequent research on error analysis and interlingual structure has shown, this project was flawed: most errors were due to incorrect conclusions about the target language rules, not to the transmission.

Transfer is an important factor in learning languages at all levels. Typically, students begin by conveying a variety of rules, including sounds (phonetic transmission) and meanings (semantic transmission), as well as word order and pragmatics. As students gain experience in the target language, the role of transfer usually diminishes.

In a UG-based system, "language transmission" refers to the linguistic parameter settings defined by a particular universal. Thus, "language transmission" is not the developmental stage of a second language, but its initial state.

Linguistic universals

Research on Universal Grammar (UG) has had a significant impact on SLA theory. In particular, the Scholarship in Interlinguistic Traditions sought to demonstrate that students' languages correspond to UG at all stages of

development. A number of studies have supported this claim, although the evolving state of UG theory makes it difficult to draw firm conclusions.

A key question about the relationship between UG and SLA: Is a language learning device by Chomsky and his followers available for second language learners? Studies show that this cannot be achieved at a certain age and that students have become increasingly dependent on the teacher. In other words, even though all languages are governed by UG, older learners may have great difficulty in accessing the basic rules of the target language only through a positive introduction.

Personal change

Studying the difference between individual students answers the following question: Why do some students read better than others? Research in the 70s, commonly referred to as “good language learners,” seeks to identify specific factors for successful learners. Although these studies are now considered simple, they have served to identify a number of factors that affect language learning. Detailed research on many specific factors continues today.

Write answers to the questions using the information!

QUESTIONS

1. What factors are involved in foreign language learning and teaching?
2. What is the best method of teaching/learning of a foreign language?
3. What are the principles of teaching foreign language?
4. Which is the most important factor in learning a language?
5. What are the 5 methods of teaching?
6. What is the link between teaching and learning?
7. What constitutes learning and teaching?

8. What is the importance of teaching and learning?

9. What is concept of language teaching?

So why is it important to learn a foreign language? Basically, the benefits of learning a foreign language give you the ability to succeed in almost every area of your life (NBD). Consider seven reasons to learn a foreign language:

1. When you learn a foreign language, travel becomes cheaper and easier

At 10 o'clock. You just got off the 14-hour flight and landed on the pillow you wanted with your face down. If you are armed with too many navigation terms in your local language, finding a destructive site can become a very painful process. Without the right language, you will be limited to more expensive or slower options. So, if you learn a foreign language, you will save yourself time, money and worries. Just a few key phrases will make transportation much faster and cheaper, as well as when choosing accommodation. This means lower rates and a better (even real) experience.

Oh, and eat. When you learn a foreign language, you don't have to be Anthony Burden to find the best local rice. You can ask around for yourself. This precious mind will usually lead you to a much tastier and cheaper price than any tourist board or guide.

2. Learning a foreign language opens up the world of workplaces

It is no secret that learning a foreign language will improve your workplace. In a few countries around the world, usually dozens of countries, they do more business than ever before, but they can't do without hiring people who know at least one foreign language. Even in small, local companies, the ability to speak a second language can set you apart from other applicants. And in an increasingly competitive labor market, why not give yourself all the opportunities?

However, this is not just about filling out a resume. As globalization progresses, you will have the opportunity to work with people whose first language

is not English. Maybe it's a development group in India or a manufacturing plant in China or an alternative energy supplier in Germany. Being able to speak other languages makes you much more valuable than your employer, and the competitiveness in your resume will undoubtedly attract attention.

3. Learning a foreign language develops your brain

Studies have shown the cognitive benefits of learning another language regardless of your age. These studies have shown that bilingual people have big brains, good memory, are creative, solve problems well, and so on. These advantages not only make it easier to learn other languages, but also to learn them. The ability to quickly switch between tasks is critical in today's multi-tasking world. Bilingual people are able to switch tasks faster than their bilingual counterparts and perform many other tasks at the same time.

4. Make meaningful friendships while learning a foreign language

Meeting new and exciting people and developing lifelong friendships is definitely worth it, and learning another language is a surefire way to speed up the process. Language helps us to express our feelings, desires, and connect with other people around us, and builds meaningful relationships. Speaking a foreign language not only opens up a collection of potential friends, but will soon become a common task when meeting native speakers. By the way, speaking a foreign language is like talking to your new loved ones in a secret code. This approach isn't an "incredible" Enigma machine, but it can be a little embarrassing to discuss the vague details of the breakdown on Friday night.

5. Learning a foreign language expands your horizons

Learning foreign languages is part of simple liberal education. Teaching - taking out - getting out of prison, narrowness and darkness. Learning a foreign language and getting used to a whole new culture and worldview is the surest way to be a broad-minded, understanding, tolerant person, and it is absolutely priceless.

Once you know that we are all cultural beings, that we are the product of our own environment, and that you recognize the cultural basis of your attitudes and behaviors, you are ready to look at others from a more comfortable perspective. Looking at the world from a different perspective and understanding where you and others come from is a great experience.

6. Learning a foreign language helps you to better understand your own language and culture

Learning a foreign language will lead you to a change in psychology and help you better understand your native language and culture. This is one of the most unexpected benefits of learning a foreign language. You will understand not only the cultural traditions, but also the grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation of your first language. This probably explains the improvement in listening, reading, and writing skills that a foreign language gives to former monolinguals.

ACTIVITY 5.

Read the last part of information and using the knowledge gained make up a survey to test the students (use the link below).

<https://www.theclassroom.com/disadvantages-learning-foreign-language-7932356.html>

Advantages of language learning:

1. Connect!

One of the most useful aspects of the human experience is the ability to communicate with others. Being able to talk to someone in their native language is a great gift. Bilingual people have a unique opportunity to communicate with a wider range of people in their personal and professional lives. Knowing the language makes you local no matter where you are, which opens up our world

literally and figuratively. You are shaped by communities. You will be humble by the kindness of strangers. You will establish a lifelong friendship. And it is for these reasons that you see the reward of learning languages over the years.

2. Develop your career

Language skills can be a competitive advantage that sets you apart from your monolingual peers. They include the eight skills required for all professions, regardless of your profession and skill level, and the demand for bilingual professionals is growing. In fact, the numbers of bilingual job ads in the U.S. doubled from 2010 to 2015.¹ Employers have the ability to communicate seamlessly with customers in new and expanding foreign markets, as well as service and sell. When there are more than 60 million U.S. residents at home who speak a language other than English, you don't have to board a plane to learn the language. As an added incentive, in many cases, language skills also lead to bonuses and salary increases. No matter what your passion for the profession is, if the ability to learn a language is added, you are ahead of many!

3. Nourish your brain

The many cognitive benefits of learning languages are undeniable. People who know multiple languages improve memory, problem-solving and critical thinking skills, concentration, multi-tasking and listening skills. They switch between competitive tasks and observe changes in their environment more easily than monolinguals, and also show signs of greater creativity and flexibility. If that's not enough, as we get older, being bilingual or multilingual can help prevent mental aging and cognitive decline.

4. Deepen your connection with other cultures

Language is a direct connection with other cultures. Communicating in another language encourages us to appreciate the customs, religions, arts, and history of the peoples associated with that language. A greater understanding, in

turn, promotes tolerance, empathy, and acceptance toward others - research shows that children who learn another language express a more open and positive attitude toward that language-related culture.

5. Look at the world

Traveling as a native speaker can radically change your journey abroad. While monolingual travelers can travel to those places, multilingual travelers can easily travel from the tourist bubble to communicate and interact with the place and its people. Language learning a second language opens additional doors to opportunities to study or work abroad.

6. Go to the source

In a world of more than 6,000 spoken languages, we sometimes need translation, but speaking at least one additional language allows us to learn. For example, people who know other languages can act as real global citizens on the Internet - consuming and evaluating foreign media and entertainment.

7. Be polygamous

Learning a second language not only improves your communication skills, but also increases your vocabulary in your native language - yes, of course! - But research shows that this makes it easier to learn additional languages, especially among children. This is because when you learn a new language, when you start learning a third language, you develop new brain networks that are ready and ready.

8. Increase your self-confidence

Any language learner can confirm that they made a mistake in discovering a new language, often in front of an audience. This is an integral part of the learning process! Learning a language means putting you in your place and getting out of

your comfort zone. Advantage is the tremendous sense of accomplishment that is felt when speaking to someone in their native language.

9. Strengthen decision making

Research shows that decisions made in your second language are more reasonable than decisions made in your native language. Contrary to popular assumptions, when we speak a second or third language, we distance ourselves from emotional relationships and fantasies that are closely related to our native language. The result? Systematic and clear decisions based solely on facts.

10. Have perspective

As we learn a new language and culture, we naturally compare it to what we already know. Knowing about other cultures reveals the positive and negative aspects of our own culture that we don't think about. You can be more grateful for what you have or decide to change the situation!

HOMETASK

1. Make a presentation on the theme "Teaching and learning foreign language".
2. Give examples on the types of teaching and learning foreign language.
3. Explain your thinking and prove it.

THEME 2. COGNITIVE FACTORS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING - transfer, interference, and generalization phenomena; - inductive and deductive language learning; - ability and intellect; - the phenomenon of systemic memory.

Plan:

1. Cognitive factors in language learning.
2. Transfer, interference, and generalization phenomena.
3. Role of deductive and inductive approaches in teaching grammar.
4. The phenomenon of systemic memory.

Aim:

- to inform about inductive and deductive approaches to teaching grammar
- to teach students about cognitive factors in language learning;
- to emphasize the role of transfer, interference, and generalization phenomena in teaching grammar;

Objectives:

- to give an opportunity to explore inductive and deductive approaches to teaching grammar
- to give students an opportunity to explore what the cognitive factors
- to enrich students' knowledge about teaching grammar;

Learning outcomes:

- to introduce the theme and improve their knowledge about it;
- to give information about teaching grammar;
- an understanding of inductive and deductive approaches to teaching grammar.

Key words:

- grammar, approaches, teaching grammar, language learning process, deductive approach, inductive approach, vocabulary.

The list of literature:

1. Brown, H.D. (2007). Principles of language learning and teaching. Pearson Longman.
2. Haight, C., Herron, C., & Cole, S. (2007). The effects of deductive and guided inductive instructional approaches on the learning of grammar in the elementary language college classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 40, 288-309.
3. Thornbury, S. (1999). *How to Teach Grammar*. Pearson.

In recent years, the role of cognitive abilities in learning a second language has become a key condition for learning, primarily as attention, attention to linguistic forms, language comprehension, or awareness rising. In turn, all of these abilities are acquired through a series of mental perceptions based on linguistic perceptions stored in declarative knowledge (Baddeley 2003; Ellis 2001) and operative memory (hereinafter WM). It would be reasonable to assume that WM may be to some extent related to all of this. The first evidence to support this connection is Mackey & al. (2002, 2010) reported that both W2 and L2 reported beneficial effects of the relationship between interactions during oral performance.

In terms of processing, non-local production involves the storage of linguistic representations and the retrieval of data from long-term memory (Payne & Whitney 2002). It follows that Bardel and Sanches (in the press) develop and test an effective hypothesis that governs the search for information and the interlingual structure, largely dependent on the adequacy of students' linguistic and intellectual imagination. These perceptions result from students' perception, attention, and (consciously or unconsciously) perception of patterns in inputs (Bialystok 1994; Gass 1988). According to the authors, in this scenario, WM-based cognitive mechanisms may be directly related to the expediency of rapid decision-

making processes in the processing and production process. In other words, it is probably related to the fact that WM students know what laws exist in governing their decisions. In addition, awareness and cognition play an important role not only in interlingual reconstruction but also in interlinguistic comparison (Ringbom 2007), which requires students to take a step forward in reconstruction. Formal inconsistencies, inaccuracies in writing, surface inconsistencies, inconsistencies in form-function maps, the absence of individual correspondence between languages increase the cognitive burden of the conflicting reader. In this context, Schmidt (2001, 6) argues that “attention is what allows speakers to be aware of inconsistencies”. Thus, if it puts a cognitive overload on students, they may not notice all the differences at once, he adds.

Whether WM includes unitary and attention (Atkinson and Schiffrin 1968) or multi-component (Baddeli and Hitch 1974), there are similar disagreements, and they consist of different components. This discussion is beyond the scope of this article. In this article, we take a primary view and acknowledge that many studies today accept WM as executive attention (Engle 2002; Kane & Engle 2003) and limited attention ability system (Baddeley 1986). . In general, a WM with storage and processing function is understood as “the ability to temporarily store data on the Internet” (Roberts et al., 1994, 374), while attention is understood as a “mechanism that controls access to awareness”. (Schmidt 2001, 5; also Robinson 2016). In addition, attention seems to be closely linked to awareness, and some authors have taken a step forward and described them as two sides of the same coin (Carr & Curran 1994; Neumann 1996; Posner 1994). Schmidt’s attention (Schmidt 2001, 2010; Schmidt & Frota 1986) emphasizes not only the limited possibilities of attention, but also its chosen character. In particular, his claim is that “attention is limited and any activity interferes with other activities that require it, attention must be strategically separated” (Schmidt 2001, 13). This observation is important in setting guidelines because the distribution of sources of attention to a particular

type of data occurs when other types of data are not considered or priced (Ellis 2006; Tomlin & Villa 1994; Van Patten 1990).

In addition, WM has been noted as a limitation of attention inhibition (Conway et al. 1999; Engle 2002; Kane and Engle 2003; Miyake et al. 2000; Roberts et al. 1994). This braking is usually seen as the ability to block unwanted activation of the tongue. Similarly, studies by Miyake & Friedman (1998) and Miyake, Friedman and Emerson (2000) emphasize the function that regulates WM attention. In addition to limiting caution, the presence or absence of well-preserved elements in memory may vary depending on each student's WM function (Paradis 2009). Similarly, access to specific data stored in declarative memory (Bardel and Falk 2012; Paradis 2004; Sharwood Smith 2010; Sharwood Smith and Truscott 2010; Ullman 2004; Tagarelli et al. 2011) (WM (under Sanchez) commentary). Procedures in a particular language (whether L1, L2, L3, or Ln) are an important part of the puzzle (Bialystok 1994; Paradis 2009; Ullman) 2004, as long as there is access to declarative memory associated with certain knowledge in sentence construction.). Thus, Schmidt (2001) presents a variety of arguments that show a focus on procedures that need to be changed or repealed. For example, if the required data sources in L1 and the desired language are not the same, or if automated processes need to be disabled (Costa and Santesteban 2004; Dewaele 2001; Doughty 2001; Green 1998; Kroll Bo, Misra, and Guo). 2008; Paradis 2009; Robinson 1995, 2003; Shanon 1991; Summer and Samuel 2007; Taube-Shiff and Segalovits 2005).

ACTIVITY 1.

Write the sentences in the correct group.

A. The advantages of a deductive approach:	B. The disadvantages of a deductive grammar approach:	C. The advantages of an inductive approach:	D. The disadvantages of an inductive approach:
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1. It gets straight to the point, and so can be time-saving. Many rules – especially rules of form – can be simply and quickly explained and allow more time for practice and application.
2. Starting the lesson with a grammar presentation may be not understandable for some students, especially at young ages. They may not have sufficient language (language which is used to talk about grammar rules). They may not be able to understand the rules involved.
3. Rules learners discover for themselves (student-centered) how to use, when to use some structures than rules they have been presented with. This makes the rules more meaningful, memorable and acquired.
4. Grammar explanation encourages a teacher-centered, transmission-style classroom; teacher explanation is often at higher position than students' involvement and interaction.
5. It is very suitable for the intelligence and maturity of many adult students, as well acknowledges the role of cognitive processes in language acquisition.
6. Students participate in the learning process more actively, rather than being simply passive listeners: therefore students are more attentive and more motivated.
7. Much time and energy are spent while working out rules with students.
8. Such an approach encourages the belief that learning a language is simply a case of knowing the rules.
9. It gives opportunity for the teacher to deal with language points as they come up, rather than having to prepare some materials in advance.
10. Students work things out for themselves and it prepares them for greater self reliance and autonomy.
11. The time taken to work out a rule may be at the expense of time spent in putting the rule to some sort of productive practice.

12. It can demand teachers to work on planning a lesson. They need to select and organize the data carefully so as to guide learners to an accurate formulation of the rule, while also ensuring the data is intelligible.

13. An inductive approach frustrates students who would prefer simply to be told the rule.

Cognitive ability and transmission

WM limits sources of attention (Kane and Engel 2003; Magimayraj and Montgomery 2013; Robinson 2003), such as formal aspects of language or task requirements. In this sense, Cadierno and Robinson (2009, 254) argue that mental movement should direct students' attention and memory resources in the directions necessary to properly understand and convey the L2 system [...] emphasizes (highlighted). For current purposes, individual differences in WM may affect online processing as well as conversion rate conversion (Harrington 1987; Sajavaara 1986; Su 2001). At the processing level, this type of conduction is perceived as an indirect manifestation of the cognitive mechanism (Gass 1984, 1987; Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008; Odlin 1990, 2003; Ringbom 2007; Sanchez 2011b; Sharwood Smith 1979). basis for studying morphosyntax such as verb placement, negation, or cliché (e.g., Ard & Homburg 1983; Müller 2002; Paradis & Genesee 1997; Sánchez 2015; Schachter 1983; Zobl 1980) (Bohnacker 2006; Bohnacker & Rosén 2007; Corder 1974; Sánchez 2011a / b, 2015, 2016; Schachter & Rutherford 1979; Selinker et al. 1975).

Knowing is the process of knowing, understanding, and learning something. Simply put, it is closely related to reason and perception. Cognitive factors of language learning are therefore divided into the following subtopics: transmission, interference, and over-generalization.

A transition is the transfer of previous work or knowledge to the next study. It can be positive and negative.

Positive transmission is based on the same points between the source and target language, which makes it easier to learn a second language due to features similar to the native language.

For example, the word order in English and French is based on Subject + Verb + Object, which encourages language learners to easily master this structure and use it in their own language:

Positive transfer

There are also three types of third persons in English and Russian, which makes it easier for Russians to compose sentences with this structure.

A negative transfer occurs when the previous processing stops working in the working language. In other words, the inability of learners to adequately use language elements or structures that are not the same in both languages serves as a source of first language errors. It is divided into two main types: interference and over-generalization.

ACTIVITY 2.

Read the text and do the tasks.

Write answers to the questions!

№	QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
1.	What is cognitive transfer?	
2.	What is an example of near transfer?	
3.	What are the types of transfer?	
4.	What are examples of cognitive abilities?	
5.	How do you test cognitive skills?	
6.	What are the 9 cognitive skills?	
7.	Is cognitive ability the same as IQ?	
8.	What is cognition in simple terms?	

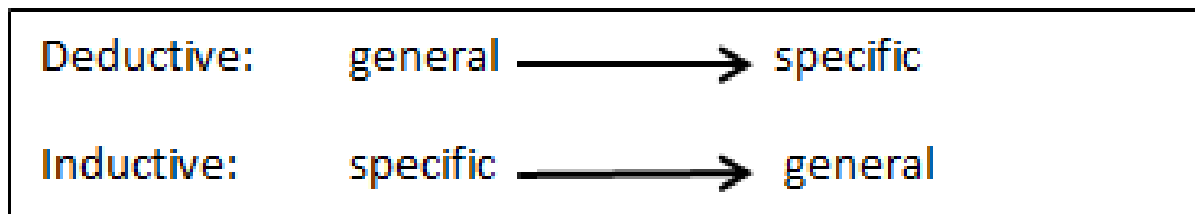
Some agreement exists that the most effective grammar teaching includes some deductive and inductive characteristics.

– Haight, Heron, & Cole 2007.

So what is teaching deductive and inductive grammar? In this blog, we will first look at the basic principles of inductive and deductive reasoning, and then look at how this applies to the teaching and learning of grammar. We will then briefly review some of the pros and cons.

Deductive and inductive thinking

Deductive thinking is a transition from top to bottom, from general to specific. In other words, we start with a general concept or theory, then shorten them to specific hypotheses, and then test them. Inductive thinking is a transition from the bottom up, from the more specific to the general, where we make clear observations, identify patterns, make assumptions, and draw conclusions.



Study of deductive and inductive grammar

These two approaches have been used in the teaching and learning of grammar. The deductive approach involves giving students a general rule, which they then apply to specific language examples and improve with practical exercises. The inductive approach involves students identifying or noticing and developing “rules” for themselves before practicing the language.

A deductive approach (rule-driven) starts with the presentation of a rule and is followed by examples in which the rule is applied.

An inductive approach (rule-discovery) starts with some examples from which a rule is inferred.

– Thornbury, 1999

Which approach – pros and cons?

First, whether an inductive approach is possible is probably determined by the nature of the language being taught. Inductive learning is the uniqueness, consistency, and simplicity of language. The basic forms of comparative adjectives, for example, are shown above. Conversely, for example, teaching the subtleties of using articles (a / an, the) will probably be problematic. The metalinguistic tools that students will need to complete the task are also a factor.

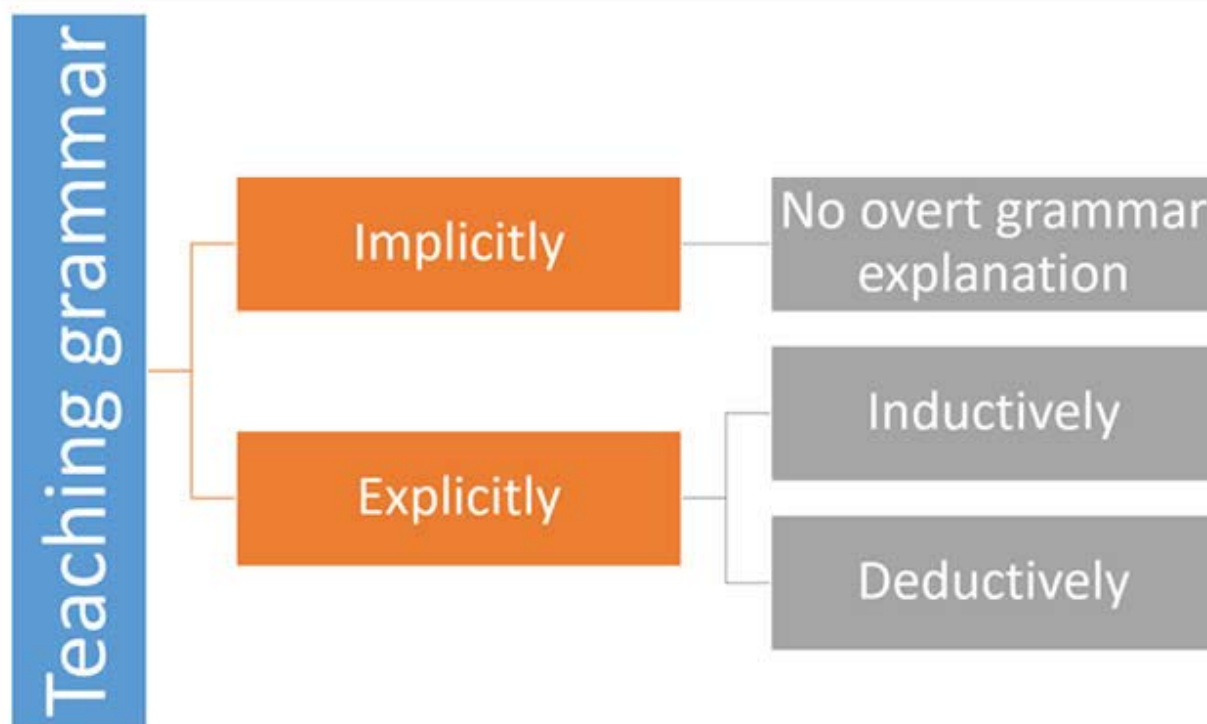
However, the fact that inductive learning is student-centered is usually beneficial because the learner is more active in the learning process than the passive receiver. Such an increase in activity helps the student to better understand and correct the language being studied. It can also promote a student's "alert" strategy and increase student autonomy and motivation.

Inductive learning, on the other hand, can require more time and effort from the teacher and the learner and can be demanding. Also, during the process, the student may come to the wrong conclusion or develop an incorrect or incomplete rule. Also, the inductive approach may upset students whose personal style of teaching and / or past experience has been teacher-oriented and taught through a deductive approach.

While it might be appropriate at times to articulate a rule and then proceed to instances, most of the evidence in communicative second language teaching points to the superiority of an inductive approach to rules and generalizations.

– Brown, 2007

How to teach grammar?



Nevertheless, both approaches have their pros and cons, and while the combination of inductive and deductive teaching and grammar learning is inevitable, the inductive approach seems to be considered more effective in the long run. Do you agree with that?

There are two main approaches to teaching grammar. This is a deductive and inductive approach. Although deductive and inductive approaches have a common goal of teaching grammar, they differ from each other in terms of teaching style.

Deductive approach

Deductive teaching is a traditional approach in which information about the target language and rules is taken at the beginning of the lesson and continued with examples. The principles of this approach are typically applied in classes that consist of teaching grammatical structures. For example, these principles are convenient for classes where the grammatical translation method is used (Nunan,

1991). According to Thornberry's three basic principles, a deductive lesson begins with the teacher presenting the rules. Second, the teacher gives examples that distinguish grammatical structures. Students then practice with the rules and give their own examples at the end of the lesson (Thornbury, 1999).

Inductive approach

Nunan (1999) describes the inductive approach as a process in which students discover the rules of grammar themselves by studying examples. In an inductive approach, context can also be used for grammatical rules. That is, students learn grammatical rules through text or audio, not individual sentences. Thornbury (1999) argues that in an inductive approach, the learner is provided with patterns that incorporate the target grammar they are learning. Students then work on examples and try to discover the rules themselves. When students learn grammar rules and practice the language by creating their own examples.

The main differences between the deductive and inductive approach in teaching grammar

The deductive and inductive approaches differ mainly in lesson procedures, student roles, teacher responsibilities, and the use of metal in the teaching process. The deductive approach is based on top-down theory, and the presentation and explanation of grammatical rules is superior to that of teachers. The language is taught from the whole part, so students first understand the grammatical rules and structures. Then they see the examples given by the teacher and finally start producing their own samples. In contrast, inductive learning is based on a bottom-up theory that accepts the view that language learners focus on parts rather than the whole. Therefore, the learning process begins with a text, audio, or visual context. Second, students work on the material to find the rules themselves. In the final stage, they give their own examples. (Block, 2003)

ACTIVITY 3.

Analyze the different deductive and aspects of inductive approaches using the link below.

<https://oupeltglobalblog.com/2015/04/24/inductive-and-deductive-grammar-teaching/#:~:text=A%20deductive%20approach%20involves%20the,before%20the,y%20practise%20the%20language.>

In the deductive method, when the teacher explains the rule on the board, the students are passive receivers. However, in the inductive approach, they are active because they are responsible for learning the rules themselves. That is, if the learning process is experienced in an inductive approach, it will be traditional and descriptive in a deductive approach. According to Thornbury (1999), a class in which students actively participate in a lesson is very appropriate because it creates a more comfortable and stimulating environment for them. He also emphasizes that inductive learning has a deep knowledge of language because students learn cognitively to discover rules. It is important to note that when students are actively involved in the learning process, they discover rules that develop their autonomy, which makes them good language learners (Hinkel and Fatos, 2002).

Furthermore, as suggested (Shaffer, 1989), when grammar is presented deductively, it is easier for students to understand the written or oral form of language as students who know the rules. For example, if students can read a text, they will be able to understand the text in depth because they know the current constant rule. If grammatical rules are too simple, there is no need to use an inductive approach, but they should be taught inductively to clearly demonstrate the application of the rules in sentences (Larsen-Freeman, 2003).

Another important difference is the role of the teacher. In deductive teaching, the teacher is the authority in the classroom. The main task of the teacher

is to introduce the new grammatical element to the students. The second task is to prepare exercises for students. The teacher is the organizer and supervisor of the lesson. In contrast, in inductive teaching, the teacher behaves as a demonstrator and helper, while students learn the grammatical rules themselves. It can be seen that the deductive approach is teacher-oriented and, while traditional, the inductive approach is student-centered.

In the deductive approach, a grammatical element is often used in a metallic language, for example, when expressed by the name of a time, subject, or object. In the inductive approach, on the other hand, terminology is not used as students discover language rules. In addition, the learner's conscious awareness is improved using metal language. Raising awareness is described as "helping to raise students' awareness of grammatical features" (Larsen-Freeman, 2003: 79). This is also described as "... a deliberate attempt to draw the reader's attention to the formal features of the target language" (Rutherford and Smith, 1988: 107). Brown (1994) argues that raising awareness of students' consciousness through the use of terminology in the learning process can be confusing for students because these terms make it difficult to understand rules and use language correctly. Moreover, the deductive approach makes the language very descriptive, using language terminology. This leads to the idea that language is only a means of expression (Rutherford and Smith, 1988). That is, if grammar is consciously learned in a deductive way, it is learned unconsciously in an inductive way. Hence, the inductive approach seems more natural and parallel to the process of language learning.

The use of deductive or inductive methods in teaching grammar depends on the diversity of the students in the class. All students are different and they learn in different ways. For example, their needs, age, background, and level are factors that a teacher needs to consider when choosing the right teaching strategy. To illustrate this, Brown (1994) argues that adult learners deal with rules when they use target language because their mentality can think abstract things. According to

him, deductive teaching is more suitable for older students and meets their expectations because they pay more attention to the rules when using the language, so the first thing they do is to present the grammatical rules. Young students, on the other hand, are able to deductively learn 5 grammatical structures based on examples because they are more likely to learn grammatical rules because they are complex and abstract.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the difference between inductive and deductive grammar teaching?
2. What do you know about inductive and deductive approaches to grammar teaching?

Combination of deductive and inductive approaches

It is well known that comparing these two approaches is a topic that is often discussed among language teachers, but there is no clear answer to a question that is useful in teaching grammar. The reason for the lack of a clear answer to this question is the diversity of education and learning environment. Another issue that language teachers are discussing today is the combination of deductive and inductive approaches in a single grammar lesson.

Each method is based on different approaches to teaching. For example, while the method of translating grammar is based on deductive reading, the direct method is based on inductive learning. According to Andrews (2007), phonetic language can be considered as a method of teaching grammar in a deductive and inductive way. To illustrate this, the exercise uses the basis of the learning process in an audiovisual manner. Students complete the exercises until they remember. In the process, they were not given any information about grammatical structures. However, the main purpose of this method is to speak the target language

correctly. Thus, despite the fact that the exercises are taught inductively, students need to remember the grammatical elements in order to speak correctly.

According to Brown (1994: 351) "A deductive approach from time to time, or a mixture of the two, may indeed be correct." For example, to teach a simple past tense, the teacher initiates a conversation with the student. The teacher asks the students to talk about their last summer vacation. The student responds using a simple present tense because he has no knowledge of the past tense. The teacher then corrects it using the past tense. The student then repeats the correct sentence. The teacher then writes past forms of some verbs on the board for the students to practice. In this process, grammar is taught using a deductive and inductive approach at the same time. Writing past forms of verbs on this board is deductive in 6 respects. This is inductive because students put their examples into practice at the time mentioned above (Brown, 1994).

It is also said that grammar is more likely to be taught through a combination of deductive and inductive teaching. This draws students' attention to the rules and meaning of grammar at the same time (McWinney, 1997; Larsen-Freeman, 2003). However, the student profile is a decisive factor in this situation, as such a lesson can be complicated by the students and the combination can make it difficult to understand the grammar. To illustrate this, elementary school students cannot understand grammar in this way because their brains focus on one thing at a time. When teaching them together, they should follow the teacher and examples at the same time, which can lead to confusion (Brown, 1991).

HOMETASK

1. Learn about types of teaching grammar.
2. Get ready to tell shortly about inductive and deductive grammar teaching.
3. Find some elements of approaches of grammar teaching.

THEME 3. METHODS AND STRATEGIES OF LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE - methods of learning a foreign language; - foreign language learning strategies; - communication strategies.

Plan:

1. Methods of learning a foreign language
2. Foreign language learning strategies
3. Main elements of learning a foreign language

Aims:

- to explain learning a foreign language to students;
- to give information about methods of learning a foreign language;
- to inform about foreign language learning strategies.

Objectives:

- to learn methods of learning a foreign language;
- analyze some characteristics of learning a foreign language;
- to give an opportunity to explore ways of main elements of learning a foreign language.

Learning outcomes:

- to introduce learning a foreign language and improve students' knowledge about it;
- to provide several opinions about learning a foreign language and its functions;
- to analyze the characters of learning a foreign language

Key words:

-literature, teaching grammar, learning foreign languages, structures, grammatical terminology, teacher, student, methods of learning, communication strategies.

The list of literature:

1. Nicolls, Peter, *Modernism: A Literary guide* (Hampshire and London: Macmillian, 1995).
2. Weston, Richard, *Modernism* (Phaidon Press, 2001, ISBN 0-7148-4099-8).
3. *Modernism/Modernity* (http://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/modernism_modernity/index.html), official publication of the Modernist Studies Association (<http://msa.press.jhu.edu/index.html>)
4. Patric, Josh, *The main characteristics of Modernist Literature* June 13, 2017 (pen and the pad.com)

Language learning strategies are conscious steps or behaviors used by language learners to improve the acquisition, storage, retention, recall, and use of new information (Oxford, 2011). Strategies can be evaluated in a variety of ways, such as diaries, voice reasoning, observations, and surveys. Studies outside the field of language (McDonough, 1995; Nunan, 2010) and studies with language learners (Oxford, 2011; Oxford et al., 1995) frequently show that the most successful learners fit into the material; use learning strategies, tasks and their goals, needs and training stage. Students with more experience apply broader strategies in more situations than less experienced students, but the relationship between strategy use and competence is complex. Studies show that language learners at all levels use strategies (Chamot et al., 1996), but some or most learners may not use the strategies they use or find them most useful. They are not fully aware of the strategies they want.

Language learners can use a variety of strategies:

1. Metacognitive methods of organizing, summarizing and evaluating one's own education;
2. Effective strategies for feelings or relationships;
3. Social strategies for collaborating with others in the learning process;

4. Cognitive strategies for linking new data to existing schemes and for its analysis and classification;

5. Memory strategy of entering new data into memory and retrieving it when needed; and

6. Compensation strategies to address shortcomings and deficiencies in current linguistics (e.g., guessing or using gestures).

The choice of language strategy also depends on ethnic origin, the purpose of language learning, the nature of the task, and other factors. It is clear that students can be taught to choose the right strategy, and previous research shows that effective learning strategies improve language performance. The question of how to teach a language learning strategy is open, but so far it has been found that strategy lessons are more effective when conducted in simple lessons than are usually presented as a separate strategy course. Language learning strategy seems to be one of the most important parameters influencing performance in a second language. More research is needed to determine the exact role of strategies, as teachers need to be more aware of them through appropriate training. Teachers can help their students by developing guidelines that meet the needs of people with different methodological preferences and teaching students to improve their teaching methods. There is also a link between a student's emotional literacy and the quality of his or her behavior.

Foreign language learning strategy

Learning to communicate in another language is like learning to play tennis or play the piano. You can read the manual, learn all the rules, remember, and get an A score on the rule test, but that doesn't mean you have to speak or understand, just like playing tennis; what to do to learn piano tennis or piano playing? You need to exercise. If you play regularly with experienced people, are observant, and apply yourself, you can learn to play better without reading a book. Here are some

tips to help you learn to communicate in another language. Remember, if you want to learn, you have to participate and play together.

ACTIVITY 1.

Match the definitions (a–c) with the vocabulary (1–3).

1. Teach thematically	A) Use authentic films, books, articles, and songs. By doing that, we are presenting grammar as a part of language and communication, not just as a tedious thing that has to be learned for the test.
2. Contextualize	B) By incorporating all language skills, the new grammar is used immediately, and by recycling the same grammar form through all the four language skills, the student will seamlessly acquire the grammar form.
3. Incorporate all skills	C) Your student wants to travel and practice travel English so there is no time for grammar? In this case, you can easily introduce modal verbs by practicing ordering in a restaurant and discussing the menu with the waiter.

1. Think about the reasons for learning a foreign language. How does language communication help you? Think about your future career, as well as whether you are traveling or vacationing, appreciating diversity and other cultures. Think about your contribution to the community and how knowing another language can help you become a better citizen.

2. “Reading” in language learning does not mean the same thing as in other disciplines. This does not mean revising the textbook and silently reading or memorizing the truth. “Reading” actually means “exercise,” so think about ways to actively apply the material. Here are some ideas for exercise.

3. Memorize verb combinations: For some elements, such as verb combinations, you really need to memorize patterns. This means that you have to repeat them aloud, apply the patterns to as many verbs as possible, and repeat them over and over again. Writing them over and over again will also help. Then applying them to compose meaningful sentences will help make all of this relevant. Make sentences or conversations using verbs. Do the exercises in the textbook or workbook orally and in writing.

4. Vocabulary memorization: Vocabulary words often help to visualize an element or concept that describes a word. In many cases, the phrases in your book come with pictures or drawings. If not, bring pictures and draw those using simple sticks. Always associate new words with images, not with English words. Creating a list of words in the desired language using pictures is much more useful than words translated into English. It is a good practice to make flash cards with the target word on the one hand, and picture flash cards on the other hand, and it is better to use flash cards to practice with friends. And if you try to use words in meaningful sentences or conversations, you will remember them more easily. So make up a lot of conversations or short passages using new words and be sure to say them out loud. You can say the words in order to identify them.

5. Complete all extracurricular activities. It's not a "busy job". All planned activities can make you speak the target language. So they need to be monitored and replenished every day. Don't limit yourself to writing a prescribed textbook or other exercise; go back and say it all out loud and make yourself feel like you're having meaningful conversations using phrases. Do this with your partner, and it will help you more.

6. Limit homework or listening time to about 20 minutes per session. After 20 minutes, your brain gets tired and the time you spend after that becomes less productive. Take a break, even if it's 10 minutes, and go back to it if it's not finished. After 20 minutes, pause again or leave later. Many short sessions are more effective than a single long session. If you do, you will really see the difference.

7. Attend all classes. Take an active part. If you miss a single lesson, it is very difficult to read the lesson because in a language lesson you not only write, but practice. If you miss it, you really can't fix it. So you need to be present and active to learn the language.

8. Use the free tutoring offered by the Academic Support Center. Working hours will be announced in class. You also need to find a partner or Study Buddy for exercise.

9. Keep in mind that for the past grade of any college class, you must have at least 2 hours of extracurricular activities for each hour you spend in class. This corresponds to level C, you have to spend more time if you want A.

10. Reading Strategy: When you read something in another language, such as homework instructions, headlines, articles in a magazine or newspaper, stories, anything, you need to follow these steps:

DO:

- a. First skim: read for the essence, not for the details. Based on the context,

guess the meanings and try to get a general idea. View any image, title, caption, and format.

b. Think about what you know about the topic. Remembering concepts that apply to what you read will help you understand more.

c. Imagine -a means the appearance of relatives (although they are not always so). Imagine that. Guessing is good if it is based on context, what you know about the topic, part of the speech, and so on.

d. Skip words you don't understand. (Conversion is good; guessing is good.)

e. Predict and edit what will happen in the reading.

f. If you don't really have an idea of what's going on, choose two or three words to look at. Nothing else; there will be no more ...; Not anymore.

g. Read the text several times, review your predictions. Each time you read, you understand more.

h. Make lists in the target language of relevant ideas from the reading: characters, places, events, things, chronology, and more.

DON'T:

a. Don't look up too many words in a dictionary; limit you to one or more word searches for every 100 words read. You don't need to know everything and you can't remember those words and the upward thinking stops. When you read in English, you usually don't look for words you don't understand. You use context to get a general idea. Do the same in your second language.

b. Do not translate into English. If you stay in the target language, you will understand more and make reading easier. But if you translate many words or whole lines into English, you are only teaching yourself to translate and understand the English you are writing.

11. Writing Strategy: When writing in a foreign language, the following precautions should be taken:

a. Do not write in English and then do not translate. You make your task more tedious and time consuming than you need it to be, and the language is so clear that everyone makes what you write incomprehensible.

b. DO: Think of the thoughts and words you need. Think about what target language you want to speak with the words you know. Keep it simple. If you think you need to, look for two or three words. Make a list of words during a brainstorming session.

c. Even if you have some notes in partial English, write down the ideas and make lists as you think about them.

d. Identify your audience: who are you writing to?

e. Define your purpose: why are you writing? What do you want to achieve?

f. Start writing in the target language using plain language. Writing on the computer. Use words and grammar you know to keep your audience and goals in mind.

g. Print.

h. Read the text and add your own opinion; rearrangement of ideas. Think about and add information that makes it more interesting or more specific.

i. Read it again to make sure you have everything you need to achieve your goal. Put yourself in the place of your target audience: will it achieve your goal? How does this affect you? Is this convincing? What are the flaws or shortcomings of the evidence or opinion? Make corrections.

j. Read it again, this time look at the verbs. Check the time and make sure the verbs fit the topic. Make corrections.

k. Read again, this time look at the adjectives. Adding quality can make your text more interesting and vivid. Once the adjectives are added, check the endings that match their names.

1. Read the text again and correct the punctuation, spelling and diacritical marks.

12. Speaking strategy:

Rotation: You don't have to know all the words for the words you want to say. You can describe your idea using simple language and words to make it clear.

QUESTIONS

1. What is learning a foreign language?
2. Why should we avoid explicit grammar teaching?
3. How many learning a foreign language strategies do you know?

HOMETASK

1. Learn about foreign language learning strategies.
2. Find some new methods of learning a foreign language.

THEME 4. PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

**ARE self-esteem; - shyness; - risk taking; - excitement; - attitude and
motivation**

Plan:

1. Features of psychological factors in language learning
2. Main characteristics of attitude and motivation
3. Main elements of psychological factors

Aims:

- to explain features of psychological factors;
- to give information about attitude and motivation;
- to inform about the main elements of psychological factors in language learning.

Objectives:

- to learn psychological factors;
- analyze some characteristics of psychological factors;
- to give an opportunity to explore ways of psychological factors in language learning.

Learning outcomes:

- to introduce psychological factors in language learning and improve students' knowledge about it;
- to provide several opinions about psychological factors in language learning and its functions;
- to analyze the characters of psychological factors

Key words:

- psychological factors, language learning process, self-esteem; shyness; risk taking; excitement; attitude, motivation.

The list of literature:

1. Nariswariatmojo, S (n.d). Factors Which Affect Language Learning and Language Learning Process Retrieved from <https://theauzty.wordpress.com/factors-which-affect-language-learning-and-language-learning-process/>
2. Clyne, S. (n.d) Psychological Factors in Second Language Aquisition: Why Your International
3. Frankfurt International School (2016) The factors that influence the acquisition of a second language. Retrieved from <http://esl.fis.edu/teachers/support/factors.htm>

Various psychological factors can affect the success of English learners. These factors include age, cognition, intelligence, personality, attention, interest, self-confidence, and motivation. In order to learn English as much as possible, it is important that we be aware of these factors in order to address them or minimize some of the negative factors.

Age can be considered a natural biological factor, which can affect students' level of knowledge and level of conceptual understanding. Belief depends on adults or young learners understanding English faster. According to Klein, "the knowledge gap between adults and developing children is enormous in good condition, "he said." However, "passionate, older students can also be very successful, but they usually struggle to achieve equal pronunciation and intonation in their native language." associated with different flexibility of the brain at different ages and others; think that older people understand language faster because they have an analytical understanding of a new language. Essentials are

childhood experiences, they are time, they can add the desire to communicate and play with language, so they have the ability to know the language, the ability to phonologically process and the ability to memorize for a long time, has a strong effect on knowledge.

If we look at cognition as a factor, we can see that a child's intelligence can be seen as another psychological factor, where it determines a child's ability to understand and learn a new language. Narisvariatmoja emphasizes that rapid and effective adaptation to new situations, effective use of abstract concepts, understanding relationships, and rapid learning is factors that affect the success of language learners. The Frankfurt International School (2016) found that students with high cognitive ability (intelligence) grew faster. Some linguists believe that some students' unique, native language learning abilities are stronger than others.

ACTIVITY 1.

Match the questions (1–4) with the answers (a–d).

1 What is psychological factors of learning?	A) A few examples of psychological factors are the nature of significant childhood and adult relationships, the experience of ease or stress in social environments (e.g., school, work), and the experience of trauma.
2 What are examples of psychological factors?	B) PERSONAL FACTORS INFLUENCING LEARNING Sensation and Perception. Apart from the general health of the students, sensation and perception are the psychological factors which help in

	<p>learning.</p> <p>Fatigue and Boredom.</p> <p>Age and Maturation.</p> <p>Emotional Conditions.</p> <p>Needs.</p> <p>Interests.</p> <p>Motivation.</p> <p>Intelligence.</p>
<p>3 What are the factors affecting language learning?</p>	<p>C) The most important psychological factors for students' academic performance are their self-efficacy, motivation, stress and test anxiety for the subject they study. Teachers should therefore choose meaningful and authentic tasks in which students will see utility for future profession.</p>
<p>4 What are the personal factors that influence learning?</p>	<p>D) Top 4 Factors That Influence Language Learning in Children</p> <p>Exposure to the New Language. When learning a new language, the most important factor is exposure.</p> <p>The Age of the Learner.</p> <p>The Learner's Native Language.</p> <p>The Learner's Motivation.</p>

Influential factors such as anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence can affect English learners. Learning a new language can be stressful because it is new. It can also lead to personality conflict, language shock, and cultural shock. “For students to use their native language in an environment where they can learn, they need to be ideally relaxed, motivated, and confident,” Klein emphasizes. Interaction and language in interpersonal relationships, language plays an important role in self-awareness. “As a result, language learners acquire new identity when they learn a new language, can lead to conflict.

Cultural shock is another influential factor that causes stress to the learner as the learner is re-introduced into the new culture as each language has its own unique origins, origins and new language rules. Frankfurt International School (2016) found that “students who speak one language from one family to another with their mother tongue have a much easier task than other languages,” Klein said; and the disorientation faced by language learners entering a new culture, which can further complicate the learning process for learners.

Students should also be encouraged to learn a new language. If they have experienced the negative psychological factors mentioned above, it is difficult to motivate them to work hard to learn a new language. “Motive is an effective cognitive factor that works in determining the direction of a person’s behavior, intentionally or unconsciously,” Narisvariatmojo said. Students use more strategies than more enthusiastic students, and the specific reason for learning the language was important in choosing a strategy. Search for tools for this.

Motivation often stems from curiosity. Narisvariatmojo said, "If the lesson is not interesting to the student, the student will not learn well." If students are forced to practice a language, it means that they are not interested in the students and therefore they are not active in anything. I see the power of interest in my class every day. I try to understand the student’s interest, telling them how to use some mathematical concepts in the real world and how to help them before I teach them. My student Justin Justin loves to answer that question, but I'm not saying where it's

used: "What do we have to learn, did you miss it?" Once I explain, I see that he works with more loyalty and power. Otherwise, he would say, "I'll miss this test." Curiosity attracts attention.

Attention is an important aspect of learning. If we don't get students' attention, they won't learn because they aren't focused enough to understand the concept. Attention is especially important for language learners because there are many rules and exceptions in English. Students should be wary of frequent and repetitive mistakes that can lead to language learning failure. "To get a good grade, a student has to be attentive to the lesson because if he is bored, he will fail the lesson," Narisvariatmoja said.

Including diversity, we can promote an ambiguous environment in which students perceive failure as a growing experience. Klein stressed that we need to "increase students' self-esteem" by demonstrating our willingness to work without students to develop good communication skills in English that help increase motivation and achievement.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the main feature of linguistic intuition?
2. How many main characteristics of language phenomena do you know?
3. What are main elements linguistic intuition and language phenomena?

The strategies we use should allow students to support each other instead of students struggling on their own. Students with high cognitive levels may have low cognitive ability. Thus, we can use discussions, group work, and peer lessons where students can communicate with their peers in English and participate in self-assessment. These strategies can boost students' confidence in themselves and the language as they actively participate in the oral and written learning and use of the

language. Strategies such as traveling with students who are fluent in English can also help. While learning Spanish, I went to Margarita, where I did some fun activities like shopping in the market, shopping malls, trips to schools, interacting with students our age, and going to the parks, all of which helped me improve my experience. I had to negotiate with people in the market in Spanish, use their currency, find directions, and go places by language. Such opportunities for reading can lead to experience, which reduces identification conflicts as part of language. Students can learn English through music, movies, and novels spoken and written in that language.

Learning should be fun. To avoid the stress and anxiety of a new language. We can use our knowledge of students and interests to make language learning fun, such as a trip to the previously described Margarita. We can use it to make the game more fun.

The problem of language acquisition is one of the most complex psychological topics. Teacher training professionals are always looking for new ways to increase the effectiveness of language learning.

Shishova explains: "In our previous publications, we have looked at various factors that affect the success of language learning. These include groups such as broad pedagogical, methodological, broad psychological and individual psychological factors. The first two are external determinants of education."

The author conducted an empirical study on the structure of language ability and proposed to look at language learning as a system of interrelated components.

"There are a number of factors that can be called key components of language learning," he says. "In this process, it is important to take into account the student's emotional evaluation and emotional experience in language learning. It is also important to remember cognitive components such as attention, perception, thinking and memory. Effective language learning is defined, flexibility, evidence-based, forward thinking, analytical and conscientious, personal qualities, as well as

the completeness of qualities such as self-esteem, experience of success and failure, extroversion or introversion, level of anxiety, and so on.

Thus, language learning motivation is a system of cognitive, emotional, and personality-related characteristics.

HOMETASK

1. Learn about linguistic intuition and language phenomena.
2. Find some information characteristics of language phenomena.
3. Write an essay on the theme “Main features of linguistic intuition”.

THEME 5. ERRORS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING - types of errors; - detection and description of errors; - causes of error; - persistent errors.

Plan:

1. Features of errors in language learning
2. Main characteristics of errors in language learning
3. Types of errors
4. Main elements of errors; persistent errors

Aims:

- to explain features of errors in language learning;
- to give information about persistent errors;
- to inform about the main elements of causes of errors.

Objectives:

- to learn errors in language learning;
- analyze some characteristics of persistent errors;
- to give an opportunity to explore ways of causes of errors.

Learning outcomes:

- to introduce errors in language learning and improve students' knowledge about it;
- to provide several opinions about persistent errors and its functions;
- to analyze the characters of errors.

Key words:

- errors, language learning, persistent errors, causes of errors, detection and description of errors.

The list of literature:

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2. Carney, E. (1994). *A Survey of English Spelling*. Routledge, London.
3. Chomsky, N. (1980). *Rules and Representations*. Blackwell, Oxford.
4. Corder, S.P. (1981). *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Linguistic errors

1. First language intervention

The first language intervention occurs when the rules of your native language affect your second language.

Positive intervention can improve your language skills. This happens when you apply the rules of your first language correctly, which is consistent with the rules of your second language.

Negative interference is something that worries you. This happens when you use first language rules that do not match the rules of your second language. This interference can lead to errors in your second language.

Typically, this is manifested in your speech and writing when you try to implement structures in your first language, such as your speech, grammatical gender, or certain tenses of verbs.

When you start reading, even though it is impossible to know everything about the language you want, you will want to find the answers relatively quickly.

This means that the best way to avoid these mistakes is to learn to pay attention. Ask yourself what is bothering you and take the time to get answers to your questions.

The deeper you go into language learning, the easier it will be for you to distinguish between first and second language rules.

ACTIVITY 1.

Read the text and do the tasks.

Write answers to the questions!

№	QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
1.	What is language intervention?	
2.	What is first language acquisition?	
3.	What is first language development?	
4.	What is the first language that a child acquire?	
5.	What are some speech interventions?	
6.	What are the different types of language disorders?	
7.	What are the 5 stages of language acquisition?	
8.	What are the stages of language acquisition during the first two years of infancy?	
9.	What is first and second language acquisition?	
10	Can you have 2 first languages?	
11	What are some activities for language development?	
12	What is first language and second language?	

2. Pronunciation

Some sounds in one language are not compatible with other sounds, so it can be difficult to accept these unfamiliar sounds.

For example, you may have noticed that many Spanish speakers from Latin America find it difficult to make a “th” sound. Although you can hear this sound in Spanish, the “th” sound is not naturally found in Spanish in other regions.

No matter what your target language is, even if you don’t pronounce every letter correctly, most native speakers can understand what you mean. However (especially in languages that use tone), mispronouncing certain words can lead to confusion, and this can be a clear sign that you don’t speak your native language.

The best way to combat these mistakes is to listen. The more voices you hear, the clearer it becomes. You can look for targeted lessons that focus on problematic sounds, especially for complex sounds. Many lessons on YouTube involve complex sounds, even explaining where to put your tongue.

3. Grammar

Grammatical errors are the presence of any language learner. They often occur as a result of complete or incorrect reading.

For example, in Latin, Russian, German, and Greek, a case system is used, meaning that words vary depending on the role of each word in the sentence. Since there is no equivalent of modern English, it is difficult for English speakers to understand practical systems.

All words can be the same between sentences, but if one word is in the wrong position, it can completely change the meaning of the sentence.

To avoid grammatical errors, it is important to learn not only the grammatical rules, but also the exceptions to these rules. Many languages have

irregular verbs or other complex rules that violate the basic rules of grammar. If we can easily adapt to our native language, it can be more difficult in a second language.

The only way to learn and remember these rules is to study them carefully.

4. Dictionary

If you do not understand the words clearly, errors will appear in the dictionary. Even if you are an expert on grammar rules, a lack of words in your arsenal or a clear understanding of the term will prevent you from understanding (false relatives, who?).

If you don't know the word clearly, word conversion (even if you don't know the exact word, description) is a tactic, but learning more vocabulary is a useful way to avoid dictionary errors. To ensure the correct use of the dictionary, it is especially useful to use sources that indicate vocabulary in context.

5. Disproportion of abilities

Balance is not just for yogis. Language learners need this too.

Let's say you don't know how important each component of language is, so you miss a part as you read. You speak your native language on a language exchange platform almost every day, preparing for your trip to Russia, but neglecting your reading skills. After a sad day around Moscow, you are almost melting in the middle of Red Square. You can't read any heroes!

Make sure you prioritize reading, writing, speaking, and listening when learning the target language for full communication. This is especially important if you are teaching yourself. You can do this by combining multiple sources or finding a resource that focuses on a comprehensive study.

Read the article via the link below and prepare a survey for readers.

<https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/02783190902737632?journalCode=uror20>

Perspective errors

You may have had a bad experience in language learning before and may need to change or explain your attitude a bit. Some of the following mistakes may seem familiar to you, and hopefully we clean the air!

6. Wrong language

When you choose which language to learn, you choose your spouse, so don't take the decision lightly.

Choosing the wrong language can cause you to lose your goals. Therefore, before embarking on a learning adventure, it is important to carefully consider your goals.

For example, if you want to learn a language for business, if you are learning a language for travel, you can choose a language other than the one you choose. Motivation is the key to language learning success, and choosing the right language will continue the experience.

It will take some time to define your goals to make sure you make the right choice. If you need a little help, you can try this tip through the Washington Post.

7. Unrealistic expectations

If you've tried to learn a language before and failed, then things may not be what you expected. Many people expect an immediate result, but it doesn't happen.

So you can't have a full conversation with a student you exchanged in college after a German semester, and that upset you. But learning a language is a marathon, not a sprint.

If you keep this in mind at the beginning, you can celebrate your successes rather than thinking about how long it will take. If you expect fluency right away, you will be disappointed.

How long it takes to learn a language depends on the complexity of the language and your skill, attention and focus. However, according to the Institute of Foreign Affairs, it takes 575 to 2,200 hours to learn a language.

8. *Large financial or time commitment*

Many students are disabled due to obstacles. Learning a language can be very expensive or very time consuming.

However, this mistake in thinking can be solved quickly. There are many options for language learners. If you really want to learn a language, you can find the right source for your needs.

There are options for students on a budget, and there are options that allow you to spend a few minutes a day. Time or money doesn't have to stop you from speaking freely!

ACTIVITY 3.

Read the text and do the tasks.

Write answers to the questions!

No	QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
1.	What are the three types of perspective?	
2.	What are the 2 most common mistakes made when drawing linear perspective?	
3.	What are perspective views?	
4.	What are some examples of perspective?	

5.	Why is perspective so hard?	
6.	What type of perspective is the most realistic?	
7.	What is the real goal of perspective?	
8.	What is a 4 point perspective?	
9.	What are the 3 main characteristics of one-point perspective?	
10.	What is an example of linear perspective?	
11.	What is perspective and its types?	
12.	What are your perspectives in life?	
13.	How do you write in different perspectives?	

9. Inability to understand native speakers

When you first hear a native speaker speak in your target language, you may have an anxiety attack. You are sure you will never understand them. This is especially true if heard without any supporting texts and translations.

There are language barriers, but you can overcome them. Remember, it all starts in one place. Michael Phelps swam for many years before winning Olympic medals.

Similarly, the natural speech rate appears much slower when learning a language. What once seemed impossible to fast may one day seem like a normal fast.

10. Weak sources

Some students are unaware that there are different sources of language learning and make the wrong choice. You shudder at the thought of an old school or college language textbook.

Fortunately, you are no longer limited to this. Technology is evolving every day, which allows us to choose from unlimited resources. Or, if you prefer resources like an old textbook, you can choose one of several options.

Whichever one you choose, it is important to choose resources carefully. You will need resources that teach you to read, listen, speak, and write, but you also want to make sure that these resources attract your attention. If you like a personal touch, you can try a personal tutor.

As human beings, we have to make mistakes. If making a mistake and speaking is unique to everyone, making a mistake in speaking or making a mistake in language should determine the highest peak of a person's uniqueness. Since language error is the subject of this article, let us describe temporary language error as a failed part of language. Error analysis is the process of determining the prevalence, nature, causes, and consequences of a failed language. The news from EA is that, unlike CA, it was not necessary to include a native speaker in the picture. Errors can be fully described with TL without referring to the student's L1 number.

The purpose of the Error Analyst query is that the FL reader does not know about TL. This ignorance can manifest in two forms. First in silence, then they replace ignorance, that is, the language that replaces it. We need to distinguish between two types of silence: cultural silence and avoidance. Cultural silence stemming from "silent cultures" such as EL2 students, Finns, or Japanese; and escape stems from ignorance. But students usually prefer to express themselves in TL: they "beg, steal, or borrow". This is what we said before the substitute language (called IL). Error analysts study this in relation to TL.

ACTIVITY 4.

Match the definitions (a–d) with the vocabulary (1–4).

A. What are the types of errors in language learning?	1. Following a conventional distinction, mistake is described as a deviation in the speakers' language that occurs when the speakers, although familiar with the rule, fail to perform according to their competence, whereas error is defined as a deviation resulting from ignorance of the rule.
B. What is an error and what is a mistake in language learning?	2. Error can be classified according to basic type: omissive, additive, substitutive or related to word order. Errors may also be classified according to the level of language: phonological errors, vocabulary or lexical errors, syntactic errors, and so on.
C. What are learning errors?	3. Error analysis is a very important area of applied linguistics as well as of second and foreign language learning. It is also a systematic method to analyze learners' errors. Errors may also help to better understand the process of second and foreign language acquisition.
D. Why are errors important in language learning?	4. Behaviorism was a dominant theory in the early 1900s and according to the theory of behaviorism; errors represent a problem for learning. An error means that an incorrect association has been made and will need to be replaced with the correct association, making the learning process take longer.

ERROR RECOMMENDATION

A. Error detection

In the investigation of a criminal case, the composition of the persons is gathered, and then the witness selects the person who committed the crime. Similarly, in EA, we collect a series of words produced or processed by the reader and ask the “witness” or connoisseur to choose words that are suspicious, i.e., erroneous. You may think it’s easy to spot mistakes, but in reality it’s the opposite. Interestingly, errors in oral and informal language are more difficult to detect than in written and formal texts. It is also more difficult to identify one’s own mistakes than to identify the mistakes of others. Even the mother tongue sometimes cannot correctly identify the error.

B. Locating Errors

The location of the error is the same as the third person on the left, as police asked the witness to identify the witness. However, the location of the error is not always simple; some errors are scattered throughout the sentence or in a large textual unit that contains them: they are called global errors. Burt and Kiparsky (1972) argue that errors should be identified on the basis of TL. There is a smart suggestion: students should first stop making mistakes and then start producing a TL form. Gatbonton (1983) adopts a step-by-step diffusion model, which shows that the study involves two stages: the first is the learning phase, and the second is the elimination of old and erroneous teachings, involves doing, so only the good ones remain.

C. Description of errors

There are two reasons why the standard EA practice of describing learners’ errors is in terms of TL: first, the learner’s language and TL are joint dialects of the same language, so they need to be described according to the same grammar.

Second, EA focuses on TL. According to Corder (1981), the system used to describe student errors should have two main characteristics:

1) the system should be well designed and very well developed, because even beginner plan errors are very complex.

2) the system should be as simple as possible, self-explanatory and easy to learn. James (1990) points out that Chomsky's universal grammar is rarely used to describe students' errors because of two features.

ACTIVITY 5.

Read the article via the link below and prepare a survey for readers.

https://www.researchgate.net/figure/Recommendation-Error_fig1_220816312

ERROR TREATMENTS

In this section, we recognize three language levels: content, text, and speech level. If a reader has used systems of phonological or graphic substance of spelling or pronunciation, we say that he has made a mistake in coding or decoding. If it used TL's lexicrammatical systems to produce or process text, we would call this level of error creation or comprehension. If it worked at the speech level, we would have identified the wrong formula or the wrong processing errors.

A. Incorrect spelling errors.

There are four types of misspellings: the first is punctuation errors, among which are frequent (!) Overuse of the pronunciation of some writers; it is incorrect to close the inverse comma; underutilization or overuse of capital; commas between preceding and limiting relative clauses; and incorrect choice of colon instead of comma after greeting with letters. The second is spelling mistakes. Usually good writers can be poor writers. Their problem is in the automation of the

time and space mechanisms required to skillfully press the keys of a typewriter or word processor. In fact, we're dealing with mistakes here, not mistakes, and that probably explains why psychologists interested in learning skills pay more attention to writing than practical linguists. The third is dyslexic errors. Some errors of dyslexia MS: e.g. for is the wrong choice of two letters that represent the same k sound in English. Dyslexia also causes Non-MS Errors, e.g. because the letter is strefosymbolic or vice versa. The fourth is confusion. Let's take a funny example given by Carney (1994): "marrying a prostitute" and these are lexical errors that involve confusion between similar sounding morphemes and words. Perhaps literacy increases people's awareness of differences, so they can at least avoid such confusion in their writing.

B. Lexical errors.

According to Chomsky (1980), vocabulary is drastically different from grammar. Grammar is called systematic and structural, closed systems. The lexicon, by contrast, consists of open systems called chaotic and unsystematic. Recently, vocabulary has begun to play a major role in language learning. There are many reasons for this. First, the boundaries between vocabulary and grammar are not as clear as they seem now. The morphological aspects of words previously considered as part of grammar can be considered as part of the same word: e.g. the words of classes of different shapes can come from the same root: bright → brightness → bright. Second, students themselves believe that vocabulary is very important in language learning. While this view is not correct, it may affect research. Third, lexical errors are the most common category of errors for certain groups of students. Fourth, native speakers speak that students' lexical errors in IL are more distorted and irritating than other types. Finally, the dictionary carries a very heavy functional load, especially at the beginning of the IL. In such an IL, grammar is rare and it is necessary to draw conclusions from lexical terms that are mainly collected to express the message. We classify lexical errors from two perspectives: formal errors and semantic errors. Formal lexical errors include

formal incorrect selection, incorrect information, and distortions. Semantic errors in the dictionary indicate confusion and attachment errors in emotional relationships.

C. Pragmatic errors.

Pragmatic errors involve the practical application of linguistic knowledge, so we can call them pragmalinguistic deviations. When any speaker miswrites a letter, it is not its meaning but its pragmatic power, i.e. what speech action to perform or what rhetorical power it should have, that is wrong. appears when written. On the other hand, there are speech or interactions that lead to socio-cultural failure rather than linguistic failure. Thomas (1983) calls this a sociopragmatic failure. Sociopragmatic failures stem from cultural conflicts, cultural attitudes toward appropriate social behavior in certain circumstances. There are a number of sources of uncertainty, such as classes, load carrying capacity, values, power, and social distance.

ERROR DIAGNOSIS

James (1990) once emphasized the need to differentiate between error definition and error diagnosis. This principle is widely accepted: Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) made it clear that "a clear definition of errors is a separate activity from the task of identifying sources of error." We may ask what motivates us to keep the definition and diagnosis separate. To illustrate this more clearly, let's look at how doctors diagnose diseases: patients who visit a doctor show visible signs of the disease, which the doctor describes to make a diagnosis. In addition, patients are usually asked to share their feelings with a physician, who explains the condition of the diagnosis. The same is true for EA. Diagnostic questions go beyond the definition and require explanation, looking for their causes, sometimes referred to as the etiology of the error.

QUESTIONS

1. How are errors viewed in language learning?
2. What are the most important causes of errors?
3. What are errors and mistakes?
4. What's the difference between mistake and error?
5. What is the difference between a mistake and an error TEFL?
6. How do errors affect learning?
7. What are examples of learning from mistakes?

The main reason for the error does not know the TL clause. It should be noted that any formal deviation may have declarative or procedural reasons. If the required TL element is unknown and the student replaces L1, the result will be a L1 transmission error, but if the student knows the TL element but cannot access it and replaces L1, we have L1 mode interference error.

There is general agreement on the main categories of diagnostic errors. There are four main categories: interlingual, communication strategy, and induction. The most obvious proof of L1 interference is the transfer of L1 non-standard dialect properties to L2. L1 Consider the example of EL2 created by Portuguese students: who did he come with? Ninety-nine percent of the time, students may like it: who did he come with? Now when they come to learn French or German, they face a problem because in these languages the preface must be written from the front. Failure to do so will lead to errors such as Wem ist er gekommen * mit?

Intralingual errors are based on learning strategies. The author gives us a list of errors. We discuss some of them:

1) false similarity: the reader thinks that the new B element behaves like A, e.g. child → boys, then child → * children.

2) incorrect analysis: students have made a hypothesis or hypothesis about the element L2, which is now being used in practice. The hypothesis is not based on L1 knowledge at all, e.g. "Tinker, Tailor", like every story about spies * ... The reader guessed that since the name of the book belongs to people, one should choose the relative pronoun [+ man].

3) hyper-correction: this is due to students over-monitoring L2 output and trying to be consistent, so this is like simplifying the system: The student knows that the identified incipient was used in ether production, but participation is a mistake should be used with reflections.

Errors based on communication strategies include holistic strategies and analytical strategies. The term "neutral" refers to students' assumption that if you can say X in L2, you can say Y. The most common term for this is guesswork. It takes several forms, the first being the use of a close synonym, for example, * confidence in the intended truth. Alternatively, you can use the word extreme: * fruits for blues. The third option is to use an antonym or opposite word, the fourth option is to coin the word. Analytical strategies express the concept not directly but indirectly: it is circumcision. Students identify one or more criteria attributes of the referent and remind them to refer to that object.

Mistakes were first used by Stenson (1983) based on the situation in the classroom, where students' errors were "more than students' complete knowledge of English grammar or first language intervention." Some of what Stenson (1983) called induction errors can be explained by the diagnostic categories we mentioned above. Similarly, there are errors that arise as a result of teachers' misinterpretations: for example, the pedagogical "explanation" that distinguishes modals is "stronger" than the other. There was a mistake, we had to work to buy clothes, but we had to work to eat. Students are trying to convey the idea that it is not important to spend money on clothes, not on food. In fact, students

hypothesized false perception not on the basis of their own personal analysis, but on the basis of the teacher's lexical contradictions.

Error analysts point out that student errors are largely unrelated to the L1 effect; instead, their mistakes reflect general learning strategies. EA is aware of students' mistakes in the process of learning a foreign language and tries to learn things on a regular basis. Thus, it makes a great contribution to the teaching of FL: by making teachers sensitive to the mistakes of their students, by summarizing what mistakes students can make over a period of time, and by adapting the learning materials should change for.

HOMETASK

Write answers to the questions.

1. What are the types of errors?
2. How can we prevent errors in language learning?
3. What is the importance of error?
4. Are errors important?
5. What are sources of errors?
6. What is error in second language learning?
7. What are the 3 types of error analysis?

THEME 6. AGE CHARACTERISTICS IN LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE - types of comparisons and contrasts; - age hypothesis; - bilingualism

Plan:

1. Features of bilingualism
2. Types of comparisons and contrasts
3. Main elements of age characteristics in learning a foreign language

Aims:

- to explain features of age characteristics;
- to give information about bilingualism;
- to inform about the main elements of age characteristics in learning a foreign language.

Objectives:

- to learn age characteristics;
- analyze some characteristics of bilingualism;
- to give an opportunity to explore ways of age characteristics in learning a foreign language.

Learning outcomes:

- to introduce age characteristics in learning a foreign language and improve students' knowledge about it;
- to provide several opinions about bilingualism and its functions;
- to analyze the characters of bilingualism and age characteristics.

Key words:

- bilingualism, age characteristics in learning a foreign language, comparisons and contrasts.

Some adolescents or adults who are just beginning to learn a second language may not be familiar with the language, while children who learn a second language early may be more familiar with their mother tongue. In addition, the language environment plays an important role when language learners begin to learn a foreign language. This hypothesis can be said to be related to an effective way of learning a new language if children are set up in a foreign language. On the other hand, adolescents or adults face great difficulties in learning a new language and maintaining a foreign footprint. Accordingly, based on the theory, it is assumed that young learners have a great potential to learn a second language quickly, efficiently and competently, while adults or adolescents have a low ability to learn a second language according to the age factor. However, there are many researchers who have different perspectives and answer the question of whether young students learn a second language better than adults. In particular, based on the evidence presented, Krashen et al. (1979) draws conclusions from the research literature that age is older, but age is better. In contrast, Coppieters (1987), Scovel (1988), Johnson, and Newport (1989) noted that the earlier children learn a second language, the easier it will be.

Critical period hypothesis

There is an important period of mastering the first and second language, which indicates that children are superior to adults or adolescents. This critical period is used to address the general phenomenon of competency decline as the age of exposure increases. This hypothesis was first introduced by Penfield and Roberts (1959, p. 5). Ellis also points out that there is a period when language acquisition can be natural and effective, but after a certain age the brain can no longer process language in this way (1986, p. 107). Skovel (1988, p. 2) describes this critical period as follows: In short, the critical period hypothesis is that the best period of language learning is in the early years of childhood and approximately after the first decades. Throughout life, everyone faces certain limitations in learning a new language.

The localization of his language processing ability in the left hemisphere was related to human biological change / development. This means that children's brains are more flexible than adults in language learning. In addition, Krashen suggested that lateralization of the human brain could be completed by the age of five (1973, p. 65). However, Lamendella (1977, p. 175) noted that this period was greatly exaggerated, using the term "sensitive period" for "lateralization" and noting that the opportunity to learn a language well may appear even after the age of five. According to this hypothesis, childhood is said to be the best period for learning a second language. During this period, young students learn a natural and effective language, but after this period, it seemed not easy to master a second language.

ACTIVITY 1. Read and do the tasks.

Write answers to the questions!

№	QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
1.	What is critical period hypothesis?	
2.	What is the critical period hypothesis Chomsky?	
3.	What is the critical period theory of language?	
4.	What is the critical period for language acquisition?	
5.	What is critical period example?	
6.	What was the critical period?	
7.	Is the critical period hypothesis true?	
8.	What are critical and sensitive periods?	
9.	What is Krashen's theory?	
10.	What are the critical periods in brain development?	
11.	Does language have a critical period?	
12.	What is the most critical stage in the formation of a child?	

Is it true that “young people are better”?

Morford and Maybury (2000, p. 111), "Individuals affected by language at an early age are always superior to people of earlier ages for their first and second gestures and spoken language." This assumption adds to the fact that people achieve better results in language learning at a young age. This is an assumption about the “better age” position. The other opposite view is “the older, the better”. This suggests that older language learners are more successful and effective than older ones. Some research has been done to support this idea. The ability to learn additional L2 “improves with age”. In the Harley study, he maintains a faster acquisition rate among beginners (1986, p. 112). Thus, we can conclude that older learners are effective language learners. However, another piece of evidence, confirmed by Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle (1978), confirms the idea that most children eventually outperformed adults in the SLA, but they were not always faster. Adults develop faster than children in the early stages of processing, and children achieve the end result in adults and adolescents (Dulay and Burt, pp. 94-95). Based on this view, it is observed that it supports the idea that “age is better in the long run”. Based on this research and discussion, it can be concluded that older students learn languages faster and more effectively than younger students, while younger students succeed in language learning over a longer period of time. This assures us that young learners are at the highest level of mastering a second language and that they learn the language more perfectly than adults.

Age-related differences between a young student and an older student

There are successful second language learners who start SLA after puberty and can learn their native language. Johnson and Newport (1989) noted that the coming of age was an important predictor of success in test trials for Chinese and Koreans who first encountered a second language before or after puberty. They found a strong link between early language learning and working in a second

language. They point out that by the age of 10, the difference in second language ability decreases and older students don't like their mother tongue, and they can be very different from each other. True, most scholars agree that there is a difference in the final results of learning a second language between children and adults. Singleton and Ryan (1989, p. 85) have made great strides in the phonetic / phonological performance of young students. It can be concluded that there is an important period hypothesis for full mastery of the second language. If a young student learns a foreign language or a second language early, he or she will have a native accent. Herschensohn (2007, p. 141) Late studies on LIA and L2A show that:

1) lack of phonology and grammar in students, early and late students of L2 are expressed differently in the brain;

2) older learners use first language learning strategies to learn grammar and achieve better results than younger learners.

They also point out that children are only better than adults in certain areas of SLA (e.g., emphasis and mastery of basic interpersonal communication skills. In addition, younger students and older students have different analytical skills.) (Harley and Hart 1997, p. 391). In short, there is a difference between age and age in learning a second language. They all have advantages in processing a second language. Children play better than adults in some areas, for example, if young students learn a second language, it must be acknowledged that they have a higher position than adults in learning a second language. Childhood is a second language. The best time to learn.

Age-related factors related to second language acquisition

Views on the critical period hypothesis are based on Lenneberg's idea that children can fully learn their mother tongue without conscious action, while adults are able to fill L2 with instruction, negative evidence, and compelling reasons; those who could not learn (see Lenneberg, 1967). According to him, students

acquire similar skills in their native language, as a result or under the influence of the idea that young students outperform adults due to their ability to read. It is not certain that this will be the case when a child buys L2, but it is not clear that adults buy L2 because it requires not only exposure and the inevitable final situation, but also conscious action (Herschensohn, 2000, p. 140). Another view rejects the critical period hypothesis, arguing that "the state of education, combined with age-related affective and cognitive factors, may lead to a change in success between L2 education in children and adults" (Moon and Nikolov, 2000, p. 23). Furthermore, in Snow (2002), Lenneberg's differences between adults and children depend entirely on non-biological factors (e.g., exposure intensity, affective emotional process, motivation, and instruction). The reason: "No one denies the existence or importance of non-linguistic factors, although different theoretical views on the role of biology are different. L2A is influenced by non-linguistic factors that change with age". Martohardjono and Flynn consider acquisition to be the same challenge for all age groups, but they believe that L2A is socially psychological, experienced, and that their function can vary greatly for children or adults (see Singleton and Ryan, 2004, p.135).). And Skovel (1988, p. 214), changes in brain maturation may be exactly what Lenneberg suggested, but it can still be called a factor and adults do not follow the same path of language learning, which is related to non-biological knowledge, education, and social factors.

ACTIVITY 2.

Read the article via the link below and prepare a survey for readers.

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/241483609_Age_as_an_Affective_Factor_in_Second_Language_Acquisition#:~:text=Age%20Factor%2C3%20Age%20as,stages%20in%20second%20language%20learning.

Pedagogical impact of second language teaching programs on young students

Based on the critical period hypothesis and the literature on age-related factors, we can observe that young learners are at a higher stage of learning a second language than adults or adolescents. While older students may seem faster and more effective in learning a second language, a younger student may learn better in some areas of the language than adults or adolescents and achieve better results in learning the final language. However, a student's acquisition of a second language includes age-related factors, such as cognitive, psychological, and social factors that affect students' learning of a second language. They can be generalized as individual ability, language ability, second language teaching, teaching method, teaching material, self-awareness, personality, attitude, motivation, and so on. Ultimately, all of these assumptions provide some pedagogical insight into second language programs for young learners to learn foreign languages.

ACTIVITY 3.

Match the definitions (a–d) with the vocabulary (1–4).

<p>A. How does age affect in learning a foreign language?</p>	<p>1. Because one should not forget that linguistic attitudes change with age, although they are driven by the shifting concept of prestige. The evolution is clear: the older the individual, the more linguistically conservative, and the more sensitive to the norm; the younger, the more receptive to innovation.</p>
<p>B. How does age influence language?</p>	<p>2. Beyond this time a language is more difficult to acquire. According to Lenneberg, bilingual language acquisition can only happen during the</p>

	critical period (age 2 to puberty). This loss of the brain's plasticity explains why adults may need more time and effort compared to children in second language learning.
C. What is the role of age in second language acquisition?	3. Young learners get bored quickly. Young learners are meaning-oriented. Young learners like to discover things. They prefer concrete activities. They are more egocentric. They are imaginative. They imitate.
D. What are the characteristics of school age learner?	4. Evidently, age effect role in L2 acquisition can be observed from initial rate of acquisition and ultimate level of attainment, that is, older learners have rate advantage over younger learners, conversely, younger learners outperform older learners in final stage of attainment.

Early Foreign Language Instruction

Based on the CPH, age-related differences and factors, the assumption is that when young learners are exposed to the second language earlier, they will achieve better performance and proficiency in second language acquisition. This assumption is widely believed that early acquisition of foreign language will facilitate their learning later in the life. They will learn second language better and win the ultimate achievement in the long run. Childhood is considered to be the golden age to second language learning. Therefore, it is good idea to conduct the

foreign language instruction earlier in the school to make children expose to the foreign language learning earlier at their early stage. According to Singleton and Ryan, people who begin learning a second language in childhood in the long run may generally achieve a higher level of proficiency than those who begin later. Obviously, this statement contributes to the hypothesis for starting foreign language instruction earlier. It seems as a good start for young learners holding the chances to acquire foreign language with early immersion to the foreign language instruction. In the past years, Chinese government policy put little emphasis and investment for the foreign language programme to education reform. English as our foreign language curriculum was initially designed in the secondary school almost in every part of China. According to my learning experience, I began learning English at 12 years old when entered into junior high school. That is my first time to be exposed to the foreign language without any chances to know English before because of the education policy on the foreign language teaching. Foreign language instruction began very late in China about 20 years ago. However, with hypothesis on children's early starting foreign language learning which is about the earlier children are exposed to foreign language, the faster they will acquire, Chinese educational policy on foreign language programmes has been changed. Additionally, there is an enormous boom of interest in early foreign language instruction all over the world in 1990s. This trend also draws Chinese educational policy attention to foreign language programmes on meeting the globalization and internationalization. In the 1990s, English as a required course began at children's fifth grade in the elementary school. Thereafter, the English teaching programmes changed again to require English courses to be stated at children's third grade in the elementary school around 2000. As the time goes on, the new policy emphasizes the importance of the early starting foreign language teaching programmes at children's early age. The government of China has been actively emphasizing the English as a foreign language as an essential and compulsory curriculum in the school in recent years. Therefore, English is actually required at first grade in the elementary school. The another necessary thing need

to be mentioned that more and more nursery school in almost affluent cities begin to teach children English at their 3-4 years old in China. All these changes about the foreign language teaching policy in China shows that foreign language instruction is attracted attention to implementing foreign language instruction in the school earlier.

Foreign Language Teaching Materials

As pointed out in previous researches, most teaching materials are international publications, except for a few countries, for example, Sweden, Croatia; moreover, there have been few researches into how whole-language, task-based, learner-centered, activities-based materials are applied for young learners. According to this, teaching materials for foreign language teaching should focus on language learners' linguistic competence as well as their communicative competence. Language learners' holistic language skills should be developed attributing to the foreign language teaching material, including listening, speaking, writing and reading skills. Therefore, teaching materials play an important role in the language teaching and language learning. Since the age-related factors are regarded as the determining factor to young learner as well as the older learner's foreign language learning, it arouses some controversies to question how to attract language learners' attention to learn foreign language with interest and favorable attitude. Teaching materials also stand the leading in the foreign language programmes because of their effects on teachers' teaching method and teaching aims. In Hungary's research on negotiation as part of the syllabus with young learners has found that it is crucial for innovation to fit the educational context. Therefore, teaching materials should be designed depending on the educational context so as to meet the young learners' needs. The objective is to arouse young learners' interest to learn English, nurturing their linguistic skills and communicative skill in order accelerates young learners' foreign language learning in the long run. The Chinese foreign language teaching which is called traditional English language teaching in the past few years focuses on the teacher-centered

and puts much more emphasis on the grammar teaching involved in the sentence structures because of the school or college entrance exams. It shows less emphasis on the oral speaking because it is neglected in the exams. The grammar translation teaching method severs language learners to be more efficient in taking exams. Therefore, it leads to the books designing are full of the grammar, vocabulary and reading practice. However, in 2001, there was a movement about the English course books in china aimed at reforming the English book by the new education policy. New English teaching curriculum and books have been changed then. New English coursebooks are instead of the traditional one with colorful grammar books for young learners, including more authentic materials and more activities together with the authentic dialogues and scripted dialogues. To some extent, new teaching materials put much more emphasis on young learners' language ability in order to immerse them into foreign language learning with great fun and interest. It will influence the teachers' teaching method for young learners in the classroom.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the hardest language to learn?
2. At what age should a child learn a second language?
3. Does age affects the second language proficiency?
4. How does attitude influence second language learning?
5. What is the relationship between age and language acquisition?
6. Is it true the younger is better in learning a second language?

According to the Critical Period Hypothesis, age is proved to be the myth that young learners stand the advantage stage in second language learning. They will learn foreign language better than older learners in the ultimate attainment, though older learner is regarded as fast and efficient language learner. Immersing young learners into foreign language learning earlier will help them hold the favorable attitude on language learning in the long run. Therefore, we should teach learners' foreign language as early as possible, especially at their early age. When they fist enter to the school, the foreign language courses should be introduced for them in the class. It would help them form the foreign language belief like their

mother tongue. Because of their personality, they will show their interest to learn the foreign language. They can memorize words quickly because of their brain and can be easy to achieve the native accent. It is widely believed that young learners show their superior learning quality to acquire second language than older learners based on CPH. When education institute proposes new the foreign language learning programmes for foreign language teaching, the government should support and invest money so as to put it into effect. When course director plans the course, they should consult the teachers as well as the students to get more information about the foreign language course, such as the time, the books. When course director chooses the teaching materials for foreign language teaching, they should ascertain the teaching content and teaching structure to some extent. The education institute needs to introduce the international publishers' books or materials from the English speaking countries. Authentic materials and task-based contents need to be taken into account when our educators choose the teaching materials. The teaching materials including more authentic materials and activities will serve teachers' teaching methodology and techniques. When our teachers teach young learners' foreign language, we should pay more attention to their personality, learning style, learning strategy, interest, motivation, etc. All these factors would affect their language learning and need to be considered. We should make sense of the way to attract young learners' attention from the sensitivity of grammar practice to the communicative classroom environment. The important thing for our foreign language teacher to make sense is that their teaching goal is to arouse young learners' interest and enthusiasm to learn a foreign language so that they can achieve the linguistic competence and communicative competence in the ultimate foreign language learning. Therefore, it is urgent for our educator to consider stimulations to young learners' foreign language teaching and learning the reason why is that they will perform better in the ultimate foreign language learning.

HOMETASK

Write answers to the questions.

1. How does a child learn second language?
2. What are examples of learner characteristics?
3. What are the characteristics of English language learners?
4. What are the characteristics of adolescent learners?

MODUL B

TEACHING GRAMMAR

THEME 1. TEACHING GRAMMAR (GRAMMAR AND MEANING; GRAMMAR AND FUNCTION)

Plan:

1. Grammar and meaning.
2. Grammar and function.
3. Types of teaching grammar

Aim:

- to teach students about grammar;
- to emphasize the role of grammar in learning language;
- to make students know about teaching grammar;

Objectives:

- to give students an opportunity to explore what the grammar is;
- to enrich students' knowledge about teaching grammar;

Learning outcomes:

- to introduce the theme and improve their knowledge about it;
- to give information about teaching grammar;
- to analyze grammar, meaning and function;

Key words:

- grammar, meaning, teaching grammar, language learning process, vocabulary, types of teaching.

The list of literature:

1. Humphrey, S., Droga, L., Feez, S. (2012). Grammar and Meaning. Newtown. PETAA.
2. Brown, D. (2000), Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

Grammar is a language system. People sometimes describe grammar as the “rules” of language; but in fact there are no rules in any language. If we use the word “rules,” we suggest that someone make the rules first, and then speak in a language like a new game. But languages didn’t start that way. Languages began to be transformed into words, phrases, and sentences by people out loud. No common language has been identified. Over time, all languages change. What we call “grammar” is a reflection of language at a particular time.

Do we have to learn grammar to learn a language? The short answer is no. Many people in the world speak their native languages without learning grammar. Children begin to speak without knowing the word “grammar”. But if you’re serious about learning a foreign language, the long answer is “yes, grammar helps you learn a language faster and more effectively”. It’s important to think of grammar as something that will help you as a friend. When you understand the grammar (or system) of a language, you can understand a lot on your own without asking a teacher or looking at a book.

Do you hear the word glamour and what do you remember? Celebrities, probably limousines and red carpets, a swarm of paparazzi and more money than crazy. Strange as it may seem, glamor comes directly from a word that isn’t so appealing; grammar

In the Middle Ages, the study of grammar was used to describe magical, occlusive practices associated with scholars of the time. People in Scotland

pronounced grammar as “ours” and expanded this connection in the sense of magical beauty or enchantment.

In the 19th century, two versions of the word went their separate ways, so our study of English grammar today may not be as appealing as it used to be.

There are two general definitions of grammar:

Systematic study and description of language.

A set of rules and examples related to language syntax and word structure is usually designed to help you learn this language.

Precise grammar refers to the structure of a language because it is actually used by speakers and writers. Clear grammar refers to the structure of a language that some people need to think about.

Both types of grammar are related to rules, but different. Descriptive grammar experts (called linguists) study rules or patterns that result from the use of words, phrases, sentences, and sentences. On the other hand, prescription grammars (e.g., most editors and teachers) set rules for using “right” or “wrong”.

Communication with grammar

Let’s take a look at the word interface to illustrate the different approaches. Descriptive grammar notes, among other things, that a word consists of a common prefix (inter-) and a root word (face) and is now used as a noun and a verb. Guide grammar is more interested in deciding to use the interface as a “correct” verb.

How to use the American Heritage Dictionary to evaluate the interface:

The user panel could not gather much passion for the verb. Thirty-seven percent of participants agreed to express interactions between people, including interactions. The editor-in-chief should be in touch with various independent editors and proofreaders. But if the relationship is between the corporation and the

public, or between different communities in the city, it's down 22 percent. Many panelists complain that the interface is unusual and jargon.

Similarly, Bryan A. Garner, author of Oxford's Dictionary of American Application and Style, dismisses the interface as a "jargonmongers speech". By nature, all popular styles and manuals are described at different levels: some tolerate deviations from Standard English; others can be openly disgusting. The most disgusting critics are sometimes referred to as the "Grammar Police".

Although attitudes toward language vary, both types of grammar are useful to learners.

The value of learning grammar

Independent study of grammar cannot make you a better writer. But the more you know how our language works, the more control you have over how to turn words into sentences, sentences into paragraphs. In short, learning grammar will help you become a more effective writer.

Descriptive grammars generally advise against over-dealing with accuracy issues: they say language is not good or bad; it's just. The history of grammar of grammatical words shows that English is a living system of communication, a constantly evolving work. Within a generation or two, words and phrases come into vogue and disintegrate again. Over the centuries, the end of words and entire sentence structures may change or disappear.

Descriptive grammars prefer to give practical advice on language use: simple rules to help avoid mistakes. The rules can be very simple at times, but they keep us out of trouble - a problem that distracts or even distracts our readers.

GRAMMAR TESTS

1. Learning and developing good communication skills _____ help you succeed in your career.

A) could B) should C) can D) must

2. Electronic mail is much _____ than traditional mail.

A) fastest B) faster C) fast D) more fast

3. The Internet _____ in the late 1960s

A) had invented B) invented C) was invented D) had been invented

4. People _____ share their interests through the Internet

A) should B) must C) ought to D) can

5. Internet makes interests very easy _____ ideas and information

A) to exchange B) exchanging C) to exchanging D) to have exchanged

What is grammar?

People usually think of grammar as arbitrary pronunciation (defining “good” and “bad” languages), such as “there is no word” or “never end a sentence with a preposition” negative words. Linguists are less interested in such a skill (sometimes it is even called a recipe). For linguists, grammar is a set of principles that determine how a sentence is attached.

Sometimes people say “There is no grammar in a language”, but that doesn’t apply to any language. . Each language has the same syntax as other languages. For example, all languages have principles for constructing sentences that require a yes or no answer. Can you hear me ?, Questions that require different types of answers,

e.g. What did you see? , sentences expressing commands, for example, eat your potatoes! and affirmative sentences, for example, that whales eat plankton.

Word order

The syntactic principles of a language may require some word order or allow for many options. For example, English sentences must contain words in Subject-Verb-Object order. Whales eat plankton, "whales" are subject, "eat" is verb, "plankton" is object. Japanese sentences allow words to occur in more than one order, but the usual order (unless otherwise emphasized) is the subject-object-verb. Irish sentences usually have words in verb-subject-object order. Even when language allows several phrases to be sorted in a sentence, the choice between them is systematically regulated. For example, the first sentence may be relevant to what you are saying, or whatever it may be, the first sentence may be the main sentence.

Not only does each language have syntax, but similar syntactic principles are repeated in languages. The word order is very similar in English, Swahili, and Thai (they are not related to each other); the Irish sentences are wonderfully parallel to the Maori, Masai, and ancient Egyptian (also unrelated) sentences; and so on.

Word structure

However, there is another aspect of grammar in which languages are radically different, i.e., the principles that regulate the structure of words in morphology. Not all languages use similar morphology. In fact, they differ drastically from each other because they allow words to be made from other words or smaller elements. The English word 'undeniable' is a compound noun derived from the verb 'to deny'. Some languages (e.g., German, Nootka, and Eskimo) allow for more complex word formation than English; others (e.g., Chinese, sheep, and Vietnamese) allow very little.

Languages also vary greatly in the way words change depending on the shape and function of the sentence. In English, you have to choose different rhymes for the subject and object ('they' versus 'them') (although whales can't choose with nouns because they consume plankton). In Latin, the form of rhyme and nouns changes when used as a subject or object; but in Chinese such a form is no different from different words.

Although we have identified some differences between syntax and morphology, deciding which one belongs to morphology and which one to syntax is a matter of ongoing research. The answer may change as discoveries and theories improve. For example, most people, most grammarians, say that the word "will" consists of two words: "would", then informally pronounced "no". However, if we consider "if I don't" as a single word, can we explain why it is considered a single word in the yes / no question? Watch out, don't tell, it doesn't hurt? because it doesn't hurt? or did he care for her? because he cared? In each case, the bad versions have two words before the subject. The English syntactic principle of yes / no questions is that the auxiliary verb comes before the subject.

If this is true, then "no" is an English word and we know what type it is: it is an auxiliary verb (evidence: aren't we?). English teachers do not approve of "no" (of course, because this is a casual conversation, never in formal written English, English teachers mostly teach). But linguists are usually not interested in declaring what to allow or what to call. Their goal is to know what language is (including spoken language). Even if you have learned all the words of Navajo and their pronunciation, you will not be able to speak Navajo until you have learned the principles of Navajo grammar. Navajo grammar should have principles that are different from other languages (because speakers of other languages cannot understand Navajo), but there may be universal grammatical principles that are the same for all languages. At present, linguists cannot give a complete statement of all the principles of grammar or any principle of universal grammar for any language. Knowing what they are is the main goal of modern linguistics.

GRAMMAR TESTS 2.

1. Writing communications ___ be as simple and clear as possible

A) must B) should C) need D) may

2. Emails and chats _____ at common form of written communication in the workplace

A) are B) have been C) has been D) is

3. You ___ coins or a phone card if you want to use a pay phone

A) will need B) need C) would need D) needed

4. If someone leaves you a message on voicemail, you ___ listen to it

A) must B) should C) have to D) have got to

HOW TO TEACH GRAMMAR IN CONTEXT

“In real communication outside the classroom, grammar and context are often closely intertwined, so the correct choice of grammar can only be made depending on the content and purpose of the communication” (Nunan, 1998, p.102). Some of the advantages of this method are that students encounter the target language in a real or close environment; they see or hear the target language before paying attention (Riddell, 2003, p.46).

Using dialogues is an effective way to teach grammar. The use of dialogues in teaching grammar is useful because the use of dialogues usually responds to students' expectations of how the language will be used in the real world: people use it primarily to communicate with each other (Thornberry, 1999, p. 76).

In the first sample lesson, Scott Thornbury uses a script dialogue to teach beginners the current simplicity: In the lesson, the teacher selects the following

written dialogue from the textbook, which is used as a means of adding the current simple speed (e.g., always) for beginners to the group.

Joe: What do you do on weekends?

David: well, that depends. During the school year, I usually have to study on Saturdays.

J: And how about on Sundays?

D: Well, we always have lunch together, you know, the whole family. Then after lunch, I sometimes go to the park and meet my friends.

J: Oh? What do you do there?

D: We play soccer, take a walk, or just talk. After that, I go out. I usually go to the movies.

J: How often do you go out of the city?

D: About once a month. My uncle has a small farm in the mountains, so I sometimes drive up there.

J: That sounds nice. Do you go alone?

D: No, my mom, my two sisters and some of our friends usually go too.

J: But why do you go?

D: A lot of things: green trees, clean air, and no people.

J: Oh, just like LA!

D: Ha! That's a good joke.

(adapted from How to Teach Grammar, Scott Thornbury)

Thornberry explains these steps as follows: In the first step, the teacher tells the class to build a conversation between two friends. He closes his books and asks

students to listen to the first part of the conversation and answer the question: What are they talking about: last week, next week, or every weekend? In the second stage, after he determines that there will be weekends, he asks the students to listen to the whole conversation and put these words in order of hearing: movies, driving, football, going out, reading, lunch, park, pedestrians. In the third stage, he asks students to tell him which class David will complete on the list on Saturdays, Sundays, and once a month. In the fourth stage, the teacher asks the students to listen to the following words and compare them with the words on the board: usually, always, and sometimes. For example: usually reading always makes lunch, and sometimes going to the park. In the fifth stage, the teacher asks the students to focus on two or three of these sentences and say exactly what the speaker is saying. For example: We always have lunch together, I sometimes go to the garden. In the sixth stage, the teacher draws the students' attention to the form of the structure, emphasizes the verbs, and explains that they are now used in ordinary lessons. In the seventh step, he asks students to write two or three more sentences about David using the sentence pattern above, for example, subject + adverb + verb + ...

In the eighth stage, students listen to the conversation again and check their answers to step 7, and in the last step, he invites students to write four or five original sentences using the pattern shown in step 6 (Thornbury, 1999, 73).

Exercise The most important part of this exercise is to select the most common text of the target grammatical element. This helps students feel a new element and encourages them to develop rules through induction (Thornberry, 1999, p. 75). Grammar can be easily taught through conversation and this will help the student to better understand the rules. —Communicative teaching and grammar teaching are not mutually exclusive. They are wrapped in gloves (Azar, 2006, p. 3).

In the second sample lesson, David Riddell teaches two English in context: Bertrand is French and he lives and works in the north of France. Her English is very good because she goes to school and uses it in her work. A few months ago,

he made his first visit to San Francisco with friends he had met in France a few years earlier. He stayed for a week, and at that time Bertrand and his friends were very busy - they visited the Fisherman's wharf, went on the cable cars, saw the sea lions on the 39th, ate at another restaurant every day, went upstairs, made many purchases in the steep mountains and in large stores. And of course, they took a lot of photos.

One day at dinner, Bertrand and his friends - Marie, Mirianna and Norbert - were at dinner when fire alarms sounded, but the waiters didn't worry, they continued to work. Those around him continued to eat. They thought it was weird and continued to eat, even though everyone had heard the fire alarm.

Bertrand and his friends decided to leave quickly, but when they stepped out the door, they saw a warning sign at the entrance telling shoppers that a fire alarm had been given that evening and that they should ignore it. Bertrand and his friends sat quietly again and were ashamed to continue their meal (teaching English as a foreign language, David Riddell).

Riddell explains the steps as follows: In the first step, the teacher asks the class if someone has gone to San Francisco or not. If someone is there, he can tell others about it. If no one is there, they can tell you how they imagine San Francisco. Alternatively, the teacher shows pictures of San Francisco and tells the class about it.

In the second stage, teachers tell students to read about Bertrand, who visited San Francisco.

They read the text and answer the questions: Why did Bertrand visit San Francisco?

How many people was he with?

Why did they stop eating?

Did they finish their meal later?

In the third stage, when the teacher gives the signal, they highlight the sentence from the text that happened during the dinner.

In the fourth stage, the teacher asks students to find other examples from the advanced and simple past of the past, underline them, and discuss the use of these times in pairs or small groups.

In the fifth stage, the teacher makes the following points.

In this example from the text, we use two forms of the verb - the past progressive (continuous) and the past simple.

They had progressive things and a simple voice was heard. In that sentence, they may have started dinner before the fire alarm and may have continued thereafter. So it stops normal progressives.

In the sixth stage, the teacher asks students to write sentences using these two tenses.

Through context, students prefer to use grammatical patterns, and context helps them understand how to use grammatical forms and structures. Two more English languages are presented in the next context.

Using this text, the present perfect and perfectly progressive tenses are taught. The teacher can present these two tenses to English learners by highlighting the perfect sentences in the text and following the steps above. The advantage of learning grammar in context is that students learn how structures work in sentences and how sentences relate to each other. This text will help students identify the difference between these two periods, and students will learn what this time means and how it is used.

It is well known that it is difficult for native and second language speakers to learn English grammar. The complexities, incomprehensible rules, and exceptions

are so numerous that it is not surprising that different generations of teachers have used different methods of teaching grammar to train literate English writers. In the past, repetition-based memorization-based methods gradually gave way to more creative methods. Today, we live in a society that values literacy and is willing to adapt to more effective ways to achieve the best results in teaching grammar.

ACTIVITY 1.

WORKING IN GROUPS (15 MIN)

Teacher groups students and forms 3 groups. Teacher distributes posters, markers to each group and asks groups to come with the metaphor for their term; groups may draw pictures to explain their metaphors.

Teacher asks groups to post their posters and explain it to the whole group by giving examples.

Inclyo has grammar boot camps, you can check them out. Below you will find other ways to teach grammar.

Graphic sentences

One of the oldest forms of teaching grammar, sentence drawing, first appeared in the 19th century. This method involves visual mapping of the relationship between structures and different aspects of speech. Especially for visual learners, this method disappeared from modern education at least 30 years ago. From the Reed-Kellogg system to dependent grammar, various forms of diagram construction are used to visualize sentences, but all organize the functions of sentences in a way that reflects the grammatical connections between words. Recently, in the popular opening sentences and print publications of websites, a small part of pop culture has emerged that allows you to draw the content of your heart.

Learning through writing

This method is mainly used in schools in the United States and Canada. Students learn a language through creative writing and reading, using grammar correctly. If there are problems with certain grammar rules, they will be addressed in a structured lesson. Nowadays, more attention is paid to language learning because learning by memorizing grammar does not give good results and it is observed that students better recognize and understand grammatical rules when the lesson is interactive, apply these rules in your notes). Repetitive practice is also important and can be easily achieved through creative or personal writing exercises.

Inductive learning

The inductive method of teaching grammar involves giving a few examples that describe a particular concept and expect students to notice how this concept works from these examples. There is no prior explanation of the concept, and the expectation is that students will learn to recognize grammatical rules naturally in the process of reading and writing. Discovering grammar and imagining how these rules work in a sentence makes it easier for students to memorize a concept rather than being given an explanation separated from examples of concepts. The main purpose of the inductive teaching method is to preserve grammatical concepts, teachers use methods that work cognitively and make an impression on students' contextual memory.

Deductive education

The deductive method of teaching grammar is an approach to teaching before practice. The teacher gives students an in-depth explanation of the grammatical concept before encountering the same grammatical concept in

writing. At the end of the lesson, students are expected to do what they have shown mechanically using worksheets and exercises. While this type of teaching is common, many, including teachers, are reconsidering such approaches because post-school students are exposed to literacy skills during adolescence. As one former teacher put it, deductive teaching methods keep many students from writing in a boring way and from a teacher-centered approach to writing.

ACTIVITY 2.

mail ,line, fax machine, technology, technologies, computer ,messaging

1. Fill in the gaps with the correct words in the box.

HISTORY OF FAX AND EMAIL

Alexander Bain is credited with inventing the first 1_____to send an image over a wire. Working on an experimental fax machine between 1843 and 1846,he was able to synchronize the movement of two pendulums through a clock and with that motion scan a message on a line by 2_____basis.The image projected to and from a cylinder. While it was able to transfer an image it was of quite poor quality.

Frederick Bakewell is credited with improving on Bain's invention, creating the image telegraph that was very similar to today's 3_____

The history of email extends over more than 50 years, entailing and evolving set of 4_____and standards that culminated in the 5_____systems in use today. 6_____based mail and 7_____became possible with the advent of time-sharing computer in the early 1960 s.



Interactive learning

Another way to teach grammar is to incorporate interactivity into the lessons. Using games to teach grammar not only engages students, but also helps them remember what they have learned. This method allows teachers to adapt their lessons to different styles of students. For example, each student may be given a large flashcard with the words written on it, and students must physically dedicate themselves to the correct sentence. Other games may include puzzles or fun online quizzes.

Over the years, many methods of teaching grammar have been developed, and they have been built, abandoned, or combined with a common goal - to teach students to communicate effectively and understand how to use English. Due to the grammatical complexity of the English language, each method has its pros and cons. Some lessons are less likely to be memorized, while others may require deeper explanation and practice. Regardless of how grammar is taught, a comprehensive understanding of English grammar is the most important factor in improving students' literacy.

QUESTIONS

1. Can you formulate a definition of 'grammar'? Compare your definition with a dictionary's.
2. Think of two languages you know. Can you suggest an example of a structure that exists in one but not in the other? How difficult is the structure to learn for the speaker of the other language?
3. Choose a structure in your own native language. How would you explain its meaning to learners? How would you get them to understand when this particular structure would be used rather than others with slightly different meanings?

The purpose of teaching grammar is not to make sure you are correcting mistakes in children's work, or to give you repetitive tricks and techniques mechanically. It doesn't force kids to be writers or to write well.

Effective teaching of grammar allows children to control grammar, express complex ideas. If grammar is well taught, it can lead to significant changes in the development of children's literacy.

7 basic principles to keep in mind when teaching grammar:

Consolidate your knowledge on the topic

To teach grammar, you need to have a clear and concise knowledge, use the right terms and explain them. Don't read the next period you are teaching. It is important to be able to relate the new learning to other features and the text in general.

Make speaking in your own class a priority

Children should choose one of the lockers that include Standard English.

Remember the goal of teaching grammar

Grammar is not about naming parts of speech or teaching English grammar. It should be strongly integrated into the process of speaking, reading and writing in the classroom.

Teach grammar in context

By introducing children to grammatical features and language in context, you help them master these principles. Try not to go for a ready-made solution using the worksheet in the book. This makes almost no difference in children's use of language and is meaningless for students who are not yet able to think abstractly.

Read aloud and discuss how the authors use grammar

Children who read and read a lot will have a “toolbox” of structures, patterns, and rhythms to draw.

Be systematic

Make sure you know what the class you are working with have already learned and what they need to learn now. Link new learning with their prior knowledge.

Make learning grammar fun

Teaching grammar can involve investigations, problem-solving and language play as part of developing children’s awareness of an interest in how language works.

HOMETASK

1. Make a presentation on the theme “Teaching grammar”.
2. Give examples types of teaching grammar.
3. Explain your thinking and prove it.

THEME 2. TEACHING GRAMMAR IN CONTEXT

Plan:

1. Features of teaching grammar in context
2. Main characteristics of teaching grammar
3. Main elements of teaching grammar

Aims:

- to explain teaching grammar in context to students;
- to give information about grammar;
- to inform about the ways of teaching grammar in context

Objectives:

- to learn teaching grammar in context;
- analyze some characteristics of teaching grammar;
- to give an opportunity to explore ways of teaching grammar in context

Learning outcomes:

- to introduce teaching grammar in context and improve students' knowledge about it;
- to provide several opinions about teaching grammar in context and its functions;
- to analyze the characters of teaching grammar in context

Key words:

-literature, teaching grammar, context, structures, grammatical terminology, teacher, student, methods of teaching grammar.

The list of literature:

1. Nicolls, Peter, *Modernism: A Literary guide* (Hampshire and London: Macmillian, 1995).
2. Weston, Richard, *Modernism* (Phaidon Press,2001,ISBN 0-7148-4099-8).
3. *Modernism/Modernity* (http://www.press.jhu.edu/journals/modernism_modernity/index.html), official publication of the Modernist Studies Association (<http://msa.press.jhu.edu/index.html>)
4. Patric, Josh, *The main characteristics of Modernist Literature* June13,2017([pen and the pad.com](http://penandthepad.com))

Teaching grammar in context is a method and approach to teaching grammar. The following are the logical and instructive principles of teaching grammar in this way. You can learn more about this method in our CPD course for teachers.

“In context” means that teaching grammar is not an independent work, but is combined with other aspects of the curriculum, such as creative writing and analytical reading.

Why?

Contextual grammar pedagogy is a more holistic approach that combines aspects of language and literature rather than two separate “parts” of English. That is why he uses stylistic or literary linguistics

These “effects” (i.e., the reader’s feelings and responses) are related to “structures” (i.e., the grammatical patterns of the text). This is not just a “feature identification” exercise, in which the grammatical features of a text are determined without determining how important their presence is.

If students know more about the grammatical structures of a text, it allows them to interpret the text systematically and rigorously, moving away from vague, impressionistic, and superficial analyzes that describe much of the “traditional” literary criticism.

The content of the national curriculum (at least in the UK) requires students to know and be familiar with grammar and how it works as a resource.

There are many studies that show that contextual grammar teaching can have a positive effect on creative writing and analytical reading.

What?

Contextual grammar pedagogy interprets grammar not as an arbitrary list of rules and constraints, but as a set of consciously chosen forms of meaning.

This puts forward the idea that grammar is about choice; writers (and speakers) make conscious decisions about the linguistic patterns they use.

Teaching grammar in context involves establishing a connection between grammatical patterns and the meaning of texts; broader contextual aspects such as genre, audience, theme, and purpose; student emotions and responses to the text; potential copyright reasons for deciding on language choice.

This prevents the teaching of “identification features” and “formulas” grammar, such as “descriptive writing is full of adjectives” and “verbs do words”.

How?

Contextual grammar pedagogy is governed by concepts and ideas, not the grammar itself. For example, a teaching activity can begin by discussing students’ feelings and responses to a text, and then return to the text to learn why grammatical patterns make them feel and think.

Students' responses should take the text into account: that is, they should learn the grammatical laws of the text and use these patterns to explain their answers.

The use of metallic language (grammatical terminology) is important because it provides a common, common language that allows students (and teachers) to speak more clearly, precisely, and effectively about the language itself.

Grammar learning strategy

Language teachers and language learners are often frustrated by the gap between knowing the rules of grammar and being able to automatically apply these rules to listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This delay reflects the difference between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge.

Declarative knowledge knows something. Declarative knowledge allows the student to describe a grammar rule and apply it in practice.

Procedural knowledge is the knowledge of how to do something. Procedural knowledge allows the student to apply the rule of grammar in communication.

Declarative knowledge is, for example, reading and understanding instructions for programming a DVD player. What you show when programming a DVD player is procedural knowledge.

Procedural knowledge does not automatically turn into declarative knowledge; many native language speakers are able to use their language clearly and correctly without being able to explain the rules of their grammar. Similarly, declarative knowledge does not automatically become procedural knowledge; students can recite a grammatical rule, but cannot follow a rule while speaking or writing.

ACTIVITY 1.

1. Fill the gap with correct modals (did not have to, can, be able to, had to, may).

1. _____ I have a look at through this window, please?
2. I hope we _____ find your glasses easily.
3. John would love to _____ afford a trip to Havana.
4. Jane _____ pay for that toy because she won it.
5. Jack couldn't find a space in the room so he _____ sleep in the car.

Teachers and students can use several strategies to address the dichotomy of declarative knowledge / procedural knowledge.

1. Linking knowledge to learning objectives.

Identify the relationship between students' language learning goals and declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge. Students who want to use language only to read journal articles should pay more attention to declarative knowledge of grammar and speech structures that help them understand texts. Students planning to live in the country should pay more attention to procedural knowledge, which will help them manage daily oral and written communication.

2. Use a high level of thinking ability.

Recognize that the development of declarative knowledge can accelerate the development of procedural knowledge. Teaching students how a language works and giving them the opportunity to compare with other languages they know allows them to use their critical thinking and analytical skills. These processes can contribute to the development of innate understanding that characterizes procedural knowledge.

3. Abundant, correct introduction of language.

Be aware that students develop procedural and declarative knowledge based on the information they receive. This introduction also includes a well-tuned introduction that requires students to pay attention to the relationship between form, meaning, and use for certain grammatical rules and allows students to encounter a grammatical rule in a variety of contexts.

4. Use the ability to predict.

Speech analyst Douglas Bieber showed that different types of communication can be characterized by clusters of linguistic features specific to these species. The tense and aspect of the verb, the length and structure of the sentence, and larger speech forms can contribute to the specific profile of a particular type of communication. For example, in a history textbook and an article in an English-language newspaper, only past tense verbs are used. However, a newspaper article uses short sentences and a style of speech in which topics or ideas are exchanged. The history textbook contains complex sentences and follows the timeline in the speech structure. Being aware of these features allows students to anticipate the shapes and structures they will encounter in a communication task.

5. Limit expectations from training.

Mechanical exercises in which students replace horses with rhymes or change the identity, number, or tense of a verb help students memorize inaccuracies and complex structures. However, students do not develop the ability to use grammar correctly in oral and written communication by performing mechanical exercises, as these exercises differ in form and content. The content of the prompt and response is predetermined; the student only needs to provide the correct grammatical form and this can be done without the need to understand or speak anything. The main lesson that students learn from doing these exercises is: Grammar is boring.

ACTIVITY 2.

Match the definitions (a–c) with the vocabulary (1–3).

1. Teach thematically	A) Use authentic films, books, articles, and songs. By doing that, we are presenting grammar as a part of language and communication, not just as a tedious thing that has to be learned for the test.
2. Contextualize	B) By incorporating all language skills, the new grammar is used immediately, and by recycling the same grammar form through all the four language skills, the student will seamlessly acquire the grammar form.
3. Incorporate all skills	C) Your student wants to travel and practice travel English so there is no time for grammar? In this case, you can easily introduce modal verbs by practicing ordering in a restaurant and discussing the menu with the waiter.

Communicative exercises encourage students to connect form, meaning, and use because multiple correct answers are possible. In communicative lessons, students respond using the grammatical point under consideration, but give their own content. For example, to practice past questions and answers in English, teachers and students can ask and answer questions about the previous lesson. The session is communicative because none of the content is pre-installed:

Teacher: Did you go to the library last night?

Student 1: No, I didn't. I went to the movies.

(to Student 2): Did you read chapter 3?

Student 2: Yes, I read chapter 3, but I didn't understand it.

(to Student 3): Did you understand chapter 3?

Student 3: I didn't read chapter 3. I went to the movies with Student 1.

Development of grammar activities

Many courses and textbooks use a defined sequence of grammatical topics as an organizational principle, especially for those with low qualifications. In this case, the class should reflect the grammar being introduced or under consideration. Conversely, if the curriculum follows a sequence of topics, it can be addressed when grammatical points appear.

In both cases, teachers can use the Larsen-Freeman pie chart as a guide to developing activity.

For curricula that include grammatical forms in a defined sequence, teachers should develop activities related to the meaning and use of the form.

Describe the form, meaning, and use of grammatical points, including, and give examples (structural input)

Ask students to use grammatical points in communicative exercises (structured speech)

Invite students to complete a communicative task that allows them to use a grammatical point (communicative speech).

For curricula that are consistent with the sequence of topics, teachers need to develop activities that link appropriate speech (usage) with meaning and form.

Provide oral or written information on the topic (audio tape, reading selection) (systematic input).

Review grammatical perspective using examples from materials (systematic input).

Ask students to practice a grammatical point in a communicative exercise on a topic (structured speech).

Invite students to complete a communicative task on a topic (communicative speech).

If teachers have the opportunity to develop part or the entire course syllabus, they can develop a series of contexts based on real-life tasks that students must perform using language, and then teach grammar and vocabulary.

For example, students planning a trip will need to understand the public announcements posted at airports and train stations. Teachers can use audio simulations to enter data; teaching grammatical forms that are common in such advertisements; then practice by asking students questions about what has been published and answering them.

Use of textbook grammar activities

Textbooks usually provide one or more of the following three grammar exercises.

Mechanical Exercise: There is one correct answer to each question and students can complete the exercise without understanding the content. For example: George waited for the bus this morning. He is also waiting for the bus tomorrow morning.

Meaningful Exercises: There is only one correct answer to each question, and students must follow the meaning to complete the exercise. For example:

Where are George's documents? They are in his notebook. (Students need to understand the meaning of the question in order to answer, but only one correct answer is possible because they all know where George's documents are.)

QUESTIONS

1. What is contextualized grammar instruction?
2. Why should we avoid explicit grammar teaching?
3. How is grammar contextualized?

Species recognition

Before the reading period begins, take an inventory of the textbook to see what type of textbook it offers. Decide which lesson to use, which assignment to assign as homework, and which to skip.

Set the time

Keep their relative value in mind when deciding which textbooks to use and how much time to devote to them.

- Mechanical exercises are the least useful because they are almost different from real communication. They do not require students to learn anything; they only require you to parrot the pattern or rule.

- Meaningful exercises help students understand the operation of grammatical rules because they require form-meaning correlation from students. Their resemblance to real communication has only one correct answer.

- Communicative exercises require students to know the relationship between form, meaning and application. In communicative exercises, students test and develop the ability to use language to convey ideas and information.

Extras

If meaningful and communicative exercises are rarely or not given at all in the textbook, teachers may substitute mechanical exercises.

Assessment of grammar skills

Actual evaluation

Just as mechanical exercises do not teach language to students, mechanical test questions do not assess their actual ability to use them. In order to truly assess students' grammatical skills, the assessment must reflect the context in which the grammar is applied in real life. This means that the lesson should have a purpose other than assessment and require students to demonstrate their level of knowledge of grammar by completing certain tasks.

To develop real assessment activities, start with the types of tasks that students actually need to complete using language. Assessment can take the form of communicative exercises and communicative exercises used in the teaching process.

For example, a lesson based on audio tapes of a public exit announcement can be converted into a grade by students orally or in writing by answering questions about a similar tape. In this type of assessment, the teacher uses a checklist or rubric to assess students' understanding and / or use of grammar in context.

Mechanical tests

Mechanical tests serve one purpose: they encourage students to memorize. They can therefore serve as a guide to encourage memorization of irregular shapes and phrases. Because they test not only language ability but also memory size, they are used as the best quiz and do not assess students' performance and achievement.

HOMETASK

1. Learn about teaching grammar.
2. Find some new information about teaching grammar in context.

THEME 3. LINGUISTIC INTUITION; LANGUAGE PHENOMENA

Plan:

1. Features of linguistic intuition
2. Main characteristics of language phenomena
3. Main elements linguistic intuition and language phenomena

Aims:

- to explain features of linguistic intuition;
- to give information about language phenomena;
- to inform about the main elements linguistic intuition and language phenomena

Objectives:

- to learn linguistic intuition;
- analyze some characteristics of language phenomena;
- to give an opportunity to explore ways of linguistic intuition and language phenomena

Learning outcomes:

- to introduce linguistic intuition and language phenomena and improve students' knowledge about it;
- to provide several opinions about linguistic intuition and language phenomena and its functions;
- to analyze the characters of linguistic intuition and language phenomena

Key words:

-literature, teaching grammar, linguistic intuition, language phenomena, structures, grammatical terminology, methods of teaching grammar.

The list of literature:

1. Asudeh, A., & Keller, F. (2001). Experimental evidence for a prediction-based binding theory. In M. Andronis, C. Ball, H. Elston, & S. Neuvel (Eds.), *Papers from the 37th annual meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society* (Vol. 1). Chicago: Chicago Linguistic Society.
2. Bogen, J., & Woodward, J. (1988). Saving the phenomena. *Philosophical Review*, 97(3), 303–352.
3. Dabrowska, E. (2010). Naive v. expert intuitions: An empirical study of acceptability judgments. *The Linguistic Review*, 27, 1–23.

Intuition about what? Emotions, the linguistic information they contain. If we assume that linguistics is not two-layered, we can learn something about intuition by asking what intuition should be if linguistics supports the generalizations it offers. And here we have a problem, because linguistics offers generalizations, not about sentences. This has always been the case. Latin grammar contains a list of forms from ancient times to the present, the reduction of nouns, and the conjugation of verbs. They tell us, for example, that there is a single nominative unit form in Latin, the genus “agricola” and the group “agricolae,” and so on. Latin grammar in the form of speech gives us information about how the types of Latin expressions are related to each other. No Latin grammar accepts what Cicero once said in the Senate as its subject, and since this is generally understandable, no Latin grammar says that this applies not to their signs but to the types of expression of the Latin language. With the exception of some modern work on semantics and pragmatics, modern linguists follow the same approach; Modern English grammar occupies a position related to the pronunciation of "dog" found in the English phrase "It's raining" - in English there is one "Rain" and one explanatory pronoun "Learn grammar three -token - much older "difference from, so it is impossible to complain that the old grammars ignored it, if placed in the context of language use, the four-token difference can be large. Luckily, my last professional conversation with Jerry Katz was on this topic; we discussed issues

they might not have noticed. Note the type of sentence to describe the problem i It is not possible to determine that the combination of two horses is the main one. In some characters of “He loves his mother,” there is a fundamental difference between “he” and “she,” but not in other characters in other sentences. If someone insists that anaphora is just a theory of a series of sentences, they may run into trouble.

The study of anaphora involves partly the study of language and is related to the speech we need to feel in the development of anaphora theory. But the important point for us here is that most grammar research is done in domains, where the difference in tokens does not reduce any number. If linguistic information is intuition and linguistics refers to a type of expression, then grammar is actually a theory of expressions, leaving us with the question of what intuition can lead to the theory of expressions. The direct answer to this question is that our intuition allows us to access the properties of sentence types, and I think there is nothing wrong with that, but I think this answer needs to be expanded. The idea that we can fall into a sentence type in terms of intuition is a little surprising at first, but I don't think it's weird when it comes to grammar. First, should they be called intuition or judgment? In any case, we can evaluate the properties of linguistic forms. We can judge whether a sentence in English means a German sentence or a sentence in English means the same thing as another sentence in English. Even in response to current concerns, we can change the same meaning criteria: When we try to translate Homer, we differ from the criteria required in translating international law. And the meaning we can judge is not the same or different. In our grammatical, phonetic sequence language, we can judge whether there are possible words in a sentence, or whether there is another in one sentence. In all of these cases, and in many other cases, it is common in linguistics to say that we have intuition or judgment in these matters, and that in general the terms "linguistic intuition" and "linguistic judgment" are used interchangeably. However, these two terms reflect different aspects of the activity under consideration and

serve as a convenient starting point for distinguishing these aspects. Apparently, the term “intuition” emphasizes truth, if that’s true - we don’t include the idea of sentences, at least conscious thinking.

ACTIVITY 1.

Read the article via the link below and prepare a survey for readers.

<https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/abs/10.1093/bjps/axp014?journalCode=bjps#:~:text=According%20to%20this%20orthodox%20conception,for%20perciving%20and%20articulating%20language.>

In a simple conversation, when we say that people have an intuition about things, we want to emphasize that their involvement in these things is not based on any chain of reasoning. We are even interested in emphasizing that this intuition is somehow mysterious, that it cannot be described as a chain of ideas. This is not our direct access; on the contrary, the purpose of saying that there is an intuition about things shows that we cannot give a basis for their content. We have them. Apparently, the term “judgment” emphasizes truth, and if that’s true - we can assess what we can achieve. Here we cannot go into what is being considered. on the contrary, the purpose of saying that we have judgments about them is to show that we can place them in relation to other things that fall into this realm. Assessing something uncomfortable is in a certain space. As for the conclusion that the sound ‘pnin’ cannot be a word in English, it is the placement of another type of spatial space beyond the phonotactic possibilities of English. However, the secondary use of linguists does not mean that we have the ability to evaluate the language we have, but we can access it through any chain of thought, at least through conscious thinking. And since the terms “intuition” and “judgment” are not used in any order or technically by linguists, it is fair to say that linguists knowingly claim that we also have such abilities. One more thing is claimed: we can report intuition reliably. When faced with judgment, we can become aware of

some of its features and communicate our impressions to others. Often, these reports are referred to as linguistic intuition or linguistic judgments rather than self-awareness, which linguists seek to, emphasize an aspect of this activity.

True, we don't know much about language, and someone may think we know a lot, but no one thinks they know very well about the senses themselves. And probably not everyone agrees that the terms "intuition" and "judgment" will be useful in general if we try to understand the field. Both threaten to generate widespread concern, both terms having different areas, at least in general conversation. We say that we have an aesthetic intuition and a moral intuition, and some of us are willing to say that we have an intuition as to why this phrase is "theoretical intuition". Perhaps this means that the term "intuition" is cheap, that its use is minimal, and that we try to limit the areas in which we can use it and know nothing about intuition. Perhaps if we are talking about linguistic intuition, we must first define what intuition is in the general case and define our conditions. And then, armed with our precise terminology, we can try to determine whether the term "intuition" is used uniformly in different fields and whether it is used in a particular case of linguistics. We can do the same with the term "judgment". This may sound like a good idea, but my purpose here is simple. If I need to have linguistic knowledge, I want to be limited to what linguistic intuition should be. Because they are rightly called intuition or judgment, intuition is linguistic information. This is no small task. If linguistics gives us any idea of the essence of language - and I say this - it is only because linguistic information is capable of conducting effective research on the nature of language. Thus, judgments that are rightly called intuition or support effective investigation, or intuition or judgment that supports effective investigation, even if misinterpreted or misunderstood, are unknown.

Assuming that linguistics is not effective, I would like to ask what is the essence of this information that supports linguistics, assuming that it is not two-sided. If there is to be linguistic knowledge, what should be linguistic intuition?

The example will help you to consider a few specific feelings in these things. Some time ago, Chomsky quoted the phrase "Flying planes can be dangerous" and said he was not convinced. To explain his ambiguity, he compiled a grammar, he assigned two structures of the sentence, one related to "flying dangerous planes," and the other "flying planes can be dangerous." Supports two structures has a definite meaning, but has a phonetic form. Chomsky's judgments are not vague. Speeches are structured objects, but they do not always hold their structures in their sleeves, so the same appearance of different structures can easily occur. According to him, this is the situation here. Now we may ask: what is the connection between intuition and grammatical suggestion? We can say that there is a notion that speech is ambiguous, and this notion is explained by the construction of a grammar that assigns two structures to a sentence. Now there's one saying in the style of speaking: "Flying planes can be dangerous" and that's vague. But then, in this way of speaking, the criterion for individualizing a sentence is phonetic uniformity. We have no idea of a single phonetic form of the "flying planes can be dangerous" sensitivity measurement, then we explain it by assigning two syntactic structures - structures that support certain meanings; we can enter consciously. Speaking of which, we have intuition - it's a phonetic form, and we have a conscious intuition that has this phonetic form - indefinite. Conscious or unconscious?

To say that we have the notion that a particular phonetic form is ambiguous does not mean that we can assign multiple syntactic structures to that phonetic form. And that's for two reasons. Perhaps we can take a sentence in several ways because a word has a word that can have multiple meanings, not because it is given multiple syntactic structures. It is common to say here that ambiguity is lexical, not syntactic. The phrase "I went to the bank" is an example of this, with uncertainty in the last word. But more importantly, if we mean "intuition," we mean a conscious state, a conscious state that can convey its content, and we can understand that it can be a sentence or a word. If we have multiple meanings, it is clear that we have

an intuition about assigning multiple syntactic structures to a specific sentence. Obviously, there is one case where a person has intuition, speech has several structures, but it can be said that a linguist has a theoretical intuition; this is an analysis of the sentence being analyzed. In this case, the term “intuition” has the same meaning as “intuition”. Linguists say that they have such a sense, but they never constitute linguistic information, on the contrary, they are common among linguists in linguistic practice; because they were among physicists during exercise and among chemists in chemical practice. On the other hand, the phrase “Flying planes can be dangerous” is vague, and I don’t think it’s a trick. When I report this intuition, I don’t think it’s inspired. So we have to separate (linguistic) perceptions from ugly feelings that are not my subject here. Thus, outside of this situation, it is not clear that the speaker has the idea that it should be divided into one or two structures when it collides with a sentence.

ACTIVITY 2.

The examples of excellence in this program clearly show that in successful schools, teaching is a multidimensional activity. One of the most powerful of these dimensions is that of "teacher as researcher." Not only do teachers need to use research in their practice, they need to participate in "action" research in which they are always engaging in investigation and striving for improved learning. The key to action research is to pose a question or goal, and then design actions and evaluate progress in a systematic, cyclical fashion as the means are carried out. Below are four major ways that you can become involved as an action researcher.

1. Use the checklist found at the end of this section to evaluate your school and teaching approaches.

2. Implement the models of excellence presented in this program. Ask yourself:

*What outcomes do the teachers in this program accomplish that I want my students to achieve?

- *How can I find out more about their classrooms and schools?
- *Which ideas can I most easily implement in my classroom and school?
- *What will I need from my school and community?
- *How can I evaluate progress?

3. Form a team and initiate a research project. A research project can be designed to generate working solutions to a problem. The issues for your research group to address are:

- *What is the problem or question we wish to solve?
- *What will be our approach?
- *How will we assess the effectiveness of our approach?
- *What is the time frame for working on this project?
- *What resources do we have available?
- *What outcomes do we expect to achieve?

4. Investigate community needs and integrate solutions within your class activities. Relevant questions include:

- *How can the community assist in student assessment?
- *What is the community's vision of learning that defines what should be assessed?
- *How will the community benefit from improved assessment techniques?
- *What kind of relationships can my class forge with the community?

5. Establish support groups consisting of school personnel and community members. The goals of these groups are to:

- *Share teaching and learning experiences both in and out of school

*Discuss research and theory related to learning

*Act as mentors and coaches for one another

*Connect goals of the community with goals of the school

In fact, it is not clear that the syntactic structure of a sentence is intuitive. Again, if our linguistic intuition is a conscious state that we report, we have a linguistic intuition in which sentences can have many meanings, but we have sentences in which sentences can have multiple structures there is a linguistic instinct. no intuition. , some linguists may be ugly in this direction. And as we can see for ourselves, we can conclude that the syntactic structures of sentences do not exist for intuition. Thus, we need to distinguish between intuition, which is a state of perception, and processes that we do not perceive, which the basis of our perception is probably. When we understand our abilities, we sometimes have a sense of sentence ambiguity because we unconsciously follow the syntactic rules of our own language and find that two structures can be assigned to a sentence, supports clear meanings. So that's how we separate the subject. On the conscious side we may ask: what is our conscious intuition? When we have linguistic senses, how do we react to them? And these things, no matter what, are the content of our language senses? What linguistic features can we relate to sentences that occur as intuition? And depending on how we answer these questions, we may also ask how intuition can organize language information. Unconsciously, we may ask: What conclusions can we draw about unconscious processes that may be under our conscious perception? If we know anything about conscious intuition, any assumptions about our unconscious processes can help.

As mentioned above, we have sentences in which the sentence is synonymous or indefinite or a phonetic form - this is a possible word of the language, there are feelings that include another in one sentence, there are feelings that contradict the sentence, and so on. And all this is considered linguistic intuition. But we have languages; they are not on a linguistic level. We have one

sentence simple, the other illogical. It's one sentence funny, the other simple. And the list goes on. The question of what makes linguistic perceptions of language different from non-linguistic perceptions of language can certainly be said in terms of the content of these perceptions. We can try to separate grammatical predicates from aesthetics. But we should not face this question, because linguistics has answered us in many ways. Our task, remember, is to determine what linguistic intuition should be like if it supports linguistics. And when this question arises, there is something called linguistics, it is not double-layered, and the assumption arises that linguistic intuition serves as its information. In any case, notions of normality and indifference do not serve as information for the construction of linguistic theory, the function of perceptions of uncertainty and synonymy. Thus, given that linguistics knows how information serves, we can turn linguistic perceptions into something that serves as information for linguistic theory. If we want to know which perception of language is a linguistic intuition, we can develop a linguistic theory and ask what information is based on it. True, this is not as easy as I understand it, because there is no complete agreement among linguists as to what the boundaries of linguistics are. The purpose of this disagreement is to clearly define what these boundaries are. But many kinds of ideas about language that different linguists agree on are true linguistics, and many types of ideas about language that all linguists agree on are not true linguistics.

ACTIVITY 3.

Read the text and do the tasks.

Write answers to the questions!

№	QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
1.	What is language phenomenon?	
2.	What are the types of linguistic phenomena?	

3.	What is language a social phenomenon?	
4.	Are words phenomena?	
5.	How is arbitrary language?	
6.	How language is a living phenomenon?	
7.	What is linguistic Hypercorrection?	
8.	What is the base of linguistic study?	
9.	What is the social function of language?	
10.	Which is the most powerful language?	
11.	What is a social phenomenon example?	
12.	What is a phenomena example?	
13.	How do you use phenomena in a sentence?	
14.	What are the natural phenomena?	

The clear circumstances on both sides are sufficient to form the basis of my subject. Thus, we can say about a sentence that is vague, contains another sentence, or belongs to this or that thing. And these notions about sentences are linguistic. And we can talk about speech, it rhymes with another sentence, or it can be an example in one way or another of a particular metric pattern or its prosodic contour, and intuition is also linguistic. I think, roughly speaking, without any harm, the first can be called semantic intuition and the second phonetic intuition. So we have at least intuition, its content is semantic and phonetic. It should be noted that the number of semantic and phonetic features we know is very large in both cases. Whether the meaning or phonetic form is well formed, grammatically, or allowed by the rules of language, we have only intuition. No simple binary opposition can justify our intuitive diversity. When we are concerned about finding a word that fits a particular event, or when we are concerned about the correct pronunciation of a particular sentence, we make multidimensional linguistic choices. So when we talk about these issues that I put forward, we can say that there is a wealth of intuition about the meaning and sound of words. If we have an

intuition about the syntactic forms of sentences, then we need to consciously know what sentence structure is. But, as I said, I don't think we have that kind of understanding. If one is skeptical, it is enough to think that syntactic propositions for simple sentences are often discussed, and if we had such an intuition, many controversial issues in linguistics could be resolved on the basis of the intuition of the speakers. We could ask them how the sentences should be structured and they could tell us. Still, while we have no intuition about the structure of language sentences, I think we should hasten to say that we have no syntactic intuition at all. Consider another contrast that Chomsky once said: we feel that there is a difference between "Colorless green ideas sleep with anger" and "angry sleep ideas without green".

The difference is that the former feels a very strange sentence in English and the second a list of very strange words. If we say the former, we give him a prosodic outline of very good sentences, such as "colorful green frogs sleep well," and if we say the latter, it is not. In this case, it seems fair to say that even if we cannot consciously enter into the structure of the previous sentence, we recognize it as a form of speech, and in the second case we acknowledge that it does not exist. And this, in turn, shows that even though we don't have an intuition about which sentence structure, we have an intuition about the sentence structure of the object we encounter. Thus, the content of intuition may consist of feeling that what we encounter is syntactically possible or that what we encounter is syntactically impossible. But, again, it would be wrong to think that our syntactic senses are limited to grammatical and non-grammatical binary choices. "Whose book did you read?" If we ask. When we think of this sentence, it is clear that we did not include it in English, but it is very different from the phrase "read the book you read" which is a list of words. Thus, there are different ways in which a sentence goes beyond the syntactic possibilities of English, and we, as intuition, sometimes know these differences. The syntactic structures of these sentences do not always mean that they are part of our conscious senses, but we can distinguish syntactic

distortions, i.e., sources we do not know, distinguishing semantic and phonetic perceptions from syntax. In many ways, these differences, in terms of linguistic intuition, we know what a sentence means and how a sentence sounds, but we don't know what a syntactic structure is. But I do not claim that we can understand the semantic expression of a sentence or the phonetic image of a sentence from a sensory point of view. If we could be aware of these things, semantics and phonetics would not care about what meaning and sound are reflected in linguistic theory. They could only ask the speakers what the representation would look like. But this is not the case in these areas either. Rather, linguistic representations are part of grammar; they are part of language theories.

Linguistic perceptions, including syntactic, semantic, and phonetic images, play an important role in explaining speakers' perception, but they are not part of the perceptual content. Is it possible to feel the characteristics of speech types? Let's say I want to write language grammar and I think the language I want to write grammar is the language Max speaks. Maybe no one but Max spoke his language. Since each of us is young and has had different experiences since then, perhaps none of us can speak the same language as anyone else. But no matter what, it's Max's language where I want to write grammar. With this, I will definitely turn to Max's intuition and evaluate my success in writing his language grammar to see how well the grammar I write matches his intuition. If the sentences Max said are vague, assuming they are vague in the grammar I wrote, I succeeded. In general, if Max's ideas fit the real claims of the grammar theory I developed, I have successfully developed Max's grammar. It is common to say that linguists know grammar and that this knowledge is based on their linguistic ability. It is common in linguistics to say that linguists write grammar. But it is a mistake to define these two types of grammar, this error, at least in empty sentences. Whatever Max knows, something that allows him to produce and understand sentences in his own language, and something that underpins his ability to create ideas about the language he speaks, these perceptions cannot define the theory we

have created, a general explanation of his imagination or actions. The closest hope that can be hoped for between what Max knows and the theories that linguists have written about his language is the coincidence between Max's perception and the predictions of the theories we have written. Perhaps there are other ways to access the inside of Max, the other way we can figure out what's going on in the language inside Max.

Psycholinguists and neurologists are working on the study of these areas. But to say that Max knows the generalizations written by a linguist, even unconsciously, is haste. But what does Max feel and what does his grammar predict? These things fall into the sentence type. These perceptions constitute Max's language, and if Max's intuition is predicted in grammar, grammar represents Max's exact language theory. It should be noted that Max understands the characteristics of sentence types. Let's think about such intuition. What I mean is that speakers can tell in different situations whether the two sentences he encounters are the same type of sentences, and also in different cases, the type of sentence belongs to him. If we look at the eleven ink marks that come after this colon: if it is raining, then look at the eleven ink marks that come after this colon: rain it's not hard to say that we recognize two (written) characters, signs of a single sentence type and the type of sentence to which they belong. At least, if you want to apply the token difference in the first place, nothing will be difficult. And if we agree that people have such abilities - if you really agree that you use them - we can say that people have a sense of emotion.

HOMETASK

Make a presentation on the theme "Linguistic intuition; language phenomena".

1. Give examples of language phenomena and linguistic intuition.
2. Explain your thinking and prove it.

THEME 4. TYPES OF ASSESSMENT: FINAL (SUMMATIVE); FORMATIVE; TEST (INTERIM)

Plan:

1. Types of assessment.
2. Basic characteristics of assessment.
3. The process of organizing the assessment

Aims:

- to teach students about organizing the assessment;
- to emphasize the importance of assessment in lessons;
- to teach students how many types of assessment there are.

Objectives:

- to learn what features of assessment;
- to enhance students' knowledge about assessment with examples;
- to give information about types of assessment.

Learning outcomes:

- to introduce the theme and improve their knowledge about it;
- to give an opinion about assessment and its types;
- to analyze the characters of each types of assessment.

Key words: assessment, final and formative assessment, tests.

The list of literature:

1. Barbara Law, Mary Eckes Assessment and ESL: An Alternative Approach Teachers Guide Edition, 1995.

2. What does research say about Assessment? R.J. Dietel, J.L. Herman, and R.A. Knuth
NCREL, Oak Brook, 1991
3. Nunan, D. (2009). *Task-based Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. McDonough, J., & Shaw, C. (2003). *Materials and Methods in ELT* (2nd edition). Oxford: Blackwell.

Assessment and testing are radically different. Although the test is formal and frequently standardized, assessment is based on gathering information about what students know and are capable of. In other words, students are given a clear procedure for taking the test and scoring. On the other hand, there are many methods and techniques of data collection at different times and conditions in evaluation (Law and Eckes, 1995, p.29).

Dietel, Herman, and Knut (1991) describe assessment as “any method used to better understand a student’s current knowledge” (an online document). According to Mitchell (1992, Law and Eckes, 1995, p. 29), tests can be described as “one-time, one-dimensional, usually multivariate, or short-response exercises”. For a long time, student learning was measured only by testing in a traditional school setting. It has now become clear that there is no single way to gather information about student reading. Furthermore, the test is considered only as part of the evaluation, and the broader concept of evaluation is widely used (Kulieke, Bakker, Collins, Fennimore, Fine, Herman, Jones, Raak, and Tinzman, 1990).

What is assessment?

Assessment involves the use of empirical data on student learning to improve curricula and improve students’ knowledge. (Allen Evaluation of Academic Programs in Higher Education 2004)

Assessment is the process of gathering and discussing information from a variety of sources in order to develop a deeper understanding, comprehension, and

understanding of what students may learn as a result of learning from their experiences; the process ends when the evaluation results are used to improve subsequent learning. (Student-Based Assessment on College Campuses: Transition from Attentive Education to Study by Huba and Freed 2000)

Assessment is a systematic basis for drawing conclusions about students' learning and development. It is the process of identifying, selecting, designing, collecting, analyzing, interpreting, and using data to enhance students' knowledge and development. (Assessment of Student Learning and Development: Erwin's Handbook of Principles, Objectives, and Methods for Determining College Outcomes, 1991)

Assessment is the systematic collection, review, and use of information about curricula that are conducted to improve students' knowledge and development. (Assessment Essentials: Planning, Implementing, and Improving Higher Education Assessment by Palomba and Banta 1999).

The effect of traditional tests

Billions of dollars are spent on education every year, but there is a lot of dissatisfaction with our education system among teachers, parents, politicians and business people. Efforts to reform and rebuild schools have shown their role in improving the school. After an increase in the number of formalized tests over the years and the consequences of poor scores, many teachers began to sharply criticize the measures taken to monitor student performance and evaluate programs. They argue that traditional interventions fail to assess important learning outcomes, thereby undermining curriculum, guidelines, and policy decisions.

The higher the grades, the more pressure are put on teachers and administrators to spend more time preparing students to do the tests well. As a result, narrowly focused tests that emphasized memory led to a similar narrowing of the curriculum and emphasized faster memorization of facts without the use of high-level thinking skills. Timely tests and their one correct answer form allow

teachers to help students answer artificial short texts and choose the best answer, rather than inventing their own questions or answers, encourages exercise. If teachers teach traditional tests by giving master classes in a format very similar to tests every day, their teaching practices can be both ineffective and harmful because they are based on outdated teachings and theories.

ACTIVITY 1.

Determine which type of test is included below and do the test!

1. Some people don't overweight easily they do regular exercises and follow healthy diet .

- due to
- as
- because
- that`s why

2. People with high blood pressure are more likely to develop heart disease they eat too much salt.

- due to
- moreover
- while
- as

3. The main cause of the tooth decay is eating sugary foods and drinking fizzy drinks.

- because
- although
- in order to
- because of

4. modern medicine, millions of people are now aware of what can cause high blood pressure .

- as
- so that
- if
- due to

5. People eat animal fats increase the amount of cholesterol in their bodies .

- who
- what
- which
- where

Good evaluation features

Good assessment data accurately assess student performance and allow teachers or other decision makers to make appropriate decisions. The concept of test validity incorporates these important features, and the assessment measures what is actually to be measured and allows appropriate generalizations about students' skills and abilities. For example, a student who answers nine points correctly can be given a ten-element addition / subtraction test. If the test is correct, we can generalize with confidence that the student can perform a similar task that is not included in the test. A good test or assessment result, in short, represents something other than how students perform a particular task or a particular set of elements; they represent how the student works to assess these objects.

Measurement experts agree that the validity of the test depends on the purposes for which the assessment is applied. Thus, the test may be valid for one purpose but not suitable for other purposes. For example, our math test may be appropriate for assessing students' mastery of addition and subtraction facts, but is not suitable for identifying gifted students in mathematics. Evidence of validity must be gathered for each purpose for which the assessment is applied.

The second important feature of good evaluation information is its consistency or reliability. Will the evaluation results for this individual or class be similar if they were collected at a different time or under different conditions or evaluated by different rankers? For example, if you ask a three-year-old and his age in three different places and the answer is the same every time, this information is considered reliable. The reliability of appraisers is also important in a work-based and open appraisal environment; independent assessors are required to give students the same score for their answers.

Other features of good assessment for class purposes:

* The content of the tests (assessed knowledge and skills) should be consistent with the teacher's learning goals and learning objectives.

* Test assignments should reflect the full range of knowledge and skills that are the main goal of the training.

* Students' expectations of performance should be clear.

* Assessment should be free of extraneous factors that may accidentally confuse or unintentionally alert students' responses. (For example, vague directions and complex questions can confuse the reader and confuse the ability to demonstrate skills designed for assessment. A math task that requires reading skills does not have enough skills to understand, prevents students from working).

ACTIVITY 2.

Tell the Ps to discuss the following questions in groups of four:

- What is the role of assessment in teaching languages?
- How do you assess? What assessment tools do you use?
- Who develops language tests/assessment criteria for your students?

Capital and valuation issues

While assessment has the potential to improve learning for all students, historically it has served as a barrier rather than a bridge to learning opportunities. Grades were used to mark students and put them on closed paths. Traditional tests have been criticized as unfair and unfair to minority students. And the assessment of minority language learners has been particularly problematic.

Yale professor, veteran Edmund Gordon — is an important point in assessing his capital performance. “We begin with confidence that it is appropriate to focus on equity issues in the development of the evaluation process, not as an adjunct to the end of the work.

Robert Linn says, “Equality must be used in any assessment. It is a mistake to think that the transition from standard tests to performance-based assessment will eliminate concerns about misconceptions about racial / ethnic minorities.

“Although many at-risk students come to school uneducated, teachers and schools have conducted assessments taking into account the diversity of current students due to differences in impact and motivation can vary greatly. There must be significant changes in the curriculum and resource allocation to prepare students for complex, time-consuming, open assessments. It is important that they move in that direction.

"Issues of justice arise not only in the selection of tasks, but also in the evaluation of responses. The same can be said about the opinion and bias of the people who created it. Training and calibration of ratings are crucial in this regard."

Social organization and evaluation

What we know about performance-based assessment is limited and there are many issues that need to be addressed. We know that approaches that encourage new methods of assessment need broad support from the community and school administration. As with any change in school, changes in assessment practice require:

- * Strong leadership support
- * Professional development and training
- * Teacher's property
- * Continue to monitor and support change through coaching and coaching
- * An environment that supports experience and risk-taking

Once schools move to performance appraisal, they will need to make decisions on a number of issues, such as performance appraisal.

- * Needs more time to develop
- * More price
- * May limit content coverage
- * Ask for a change in teaching practices
- * Administration will take a long time
- * Lack of a network of colleagues to be together and develop
- * Require new methods of data collection and reporting
- * Ask for new insights on how to use it for comparison purposes

School closures and distance or mixed curricula mean that students' knowledge and understanding of the learning process is more important than ever. Students need to recover lost skills, continue learning, and implement lesson plans effectively.

But the test helps solve math problems for many students. Setting the assessment correctly can be difficult and takes a long time to evaluate. As a teacher, know that student achievement is not a number on a report card.

There is more to assessment than taking a departmental graduation exam or preparing for a standardized test. Assessments always help shape the learning process and provide an insight into students' knowledge. As math teacher Marilyn Burns said:

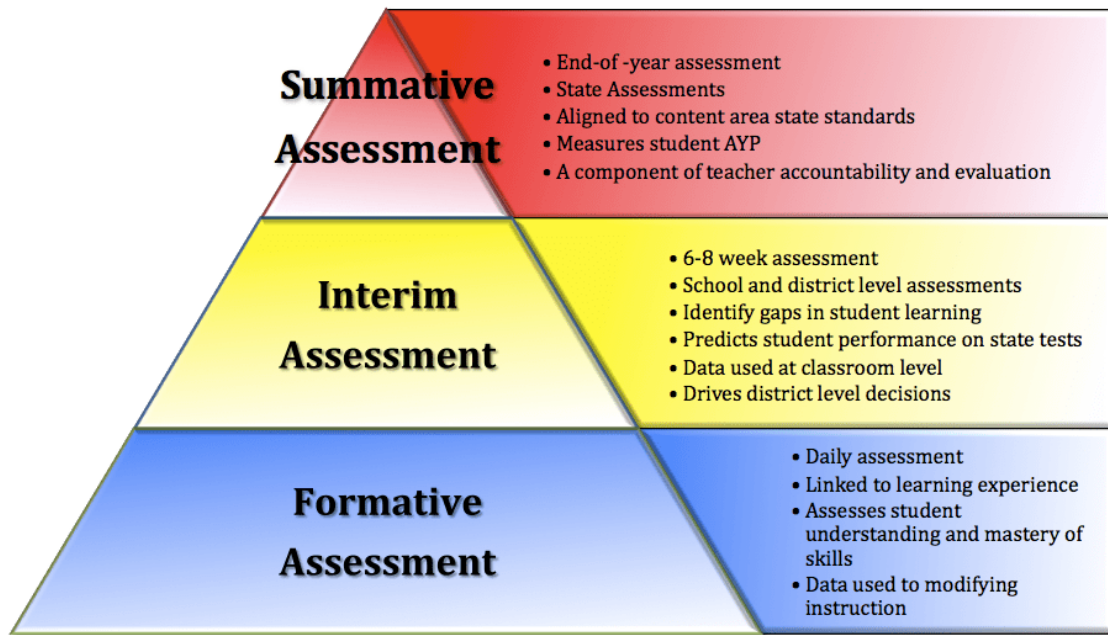
“Making assessment an integral part of daily mathematics instruction is a challenge. It requires planning specific ways to use assignments and discussions to discover what students do and do not understand...The insights we gain by making assessment a regular part of instruction enable us to meet the needs of the students who are eager for more challenges and to provide intervention for those who are struggling”.

ACTIVITY 3.

Invite groups to plenary discussion.

Distribute Activity 1 with different selection of assessment types and ask Ps to categorize them according to the four language skills.

Types of Assessments



What's the purpose of different types of assessment?



Different types of assessments help understand student progress in various ways and adapt teaching strategies accordingly.

In classroom, assessments generally have one of three purposes:

Assessment of learning

Assessment for learning

Assessment as learning

Assessment of learning

Assessment is a way of determining what students have learned and whether it meets the curriculum or class-level standards.

Teaching assessments are usually divided into classes and may include the following.

- Exams
- Portfolios
- Final projects
- standardized tests

They are clearly assessed and reported to teachers, parents, students, school leaders, and district leaders on student achievement.

- Common types of education assessment include:
 - Summative assessments
 - Norm-based assessments
 - Criteria-based assessments

Assessment for learning

Reading assessments give you a clear picture of teaching and understanding students - allowing you to change everything from classroom management strategies to lesson plans.

Reading assessment should always be continuous and practical. Consider the following key questions when evaluating.

- ✓ What do students still need to know?

- ✓ What did the students learn from the lesson?
- ✓ Did the students make this lesson very easy for the students? Is it too hard?
- ✓ Did my teaching strategies have an effective impact on students?
- ✓ What do students often misunderstand?
- ✓ What would I like students to learn from this lesson? Did I succeed?

There are many ways to assess reading, even in a busy classroom. We'll be looking at some of them soon!

For now, keep in mind that these assessments are not just for students, but they will give you practical feedback to improve your presentation.

Common types of study assessment include formative and diagnostic assessment.

Assessment as learning

Assessment as reading actively engages students in the learning process. It teaches critical thinking skills, problem solving, and encourages students to set goals that they can achieve and to measure their progress objectively.

They can help engage students in the learning process! One study found that:

"Students develop an interest in math tasks; they understand, think and manage their concerns. Recent research shows that students' emotional responses to mathematics are new tasks. When not checked, their positive and negative responses are reduced" Douglas B. McLeod

Some examples of assessment as teaching include inclusive assessment, self-assessment, and peer assessment.

Summative assessment

The purpose of general assessment is to assess students' knowledge against certain standards or indicators.

Overall grades are often high grades, meaning they have a high score value.

Examples of summative assessments:

- Intermediate control
- Final project
- Paper
- Great choice

Students or teachers can use the meeting assessment information to shape their actions and behaviors in subsequent sessions.

Summative assessment:

Participants point to the value of the participants and summarize their development over time.

It is used to assess students' knowledge, skills and academic achievements at the end of a defined academic period - usually at the end of a project, unit, course, semester, program or academic year.

Assessment of reading comprehension

Focuses on the result

Teachers provide information to teachers and students about learning

Objective - to assess students' knowledge by comparing it with some standard or benchmark.

Assess the relevance of the results of the assessed object to the stated objectives.

High score or high score value

Examples of Summative Assessment:

- Final projects (Portfolio, Research paper, Travelogue)

- Chapter and Unit tests
- Semester tests (midterm and final tests)
- Standardized tests
- College admissions test (CFAT)
- End-of-course evaluation (Advanced Placement or International Baccalaureate exams).

ACTIVITY 4.

Read the text and do the tasks.

Write answers to the questions!

№	QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
1.	What are examples of summative assessments?	
2.	What is summative assessment and its example?	
3.	Why summative assessment is important?	
4.	What makes a good summative assessment?	
5.	Is a quiz a summative assessment?	
6.	What are the summative assessment tools?	
7.	What is a common summative assessment?	
8.	What does summative mean?	
9.	How do you write a summative assessment?	
10.	What is summative assessment in simple words?	
11.	Is summative assessment effective?	
12.	Is summative assessment necessary?	
13.	What is a summative reading assessment?	

Formative assessment

First, let's define the term evaluation. Assessment is the process of observing a student's behavior and drawing conclusions about a student's knowledge and abilities. Yes, there are many synonyms for assessment, such as test, exam and so on. The use of the word "assessment" helps to establish a positive relationship with students in the classroom. It should be used instead of words that indicate a possible failure and a negative outcome and cause additional concern to students.

What is the difference between formative and summative assessment?

Formative assessment

The purpose of formative assessment is to monitor students' learning to convey continuous feedback that teachers can use to improve teaching and to enhance their knowledge. More specifically, formative assessments:

- Help students identify their strengths and weaknesses and identify target areas they need to work on
- Help teachers identify where students are struggling and solve problems immediately
- Formative grades are usually low grades, i.e. they do not have a low or scoring value. Examples of formative assessments include asking students the following.
 - Draw a concept map in the classroom to express their understanding of the topic
 - Give one or two sentences that define the main meaning of the lecture
 - Give a research suggestion for early feedback

QUESTIONS.

QUESTIONS:

1. What's the purpose of different types of assessment?
2. How to create effective assessments?
3. How do you use the different types of assessment in classroom to promote student learning?

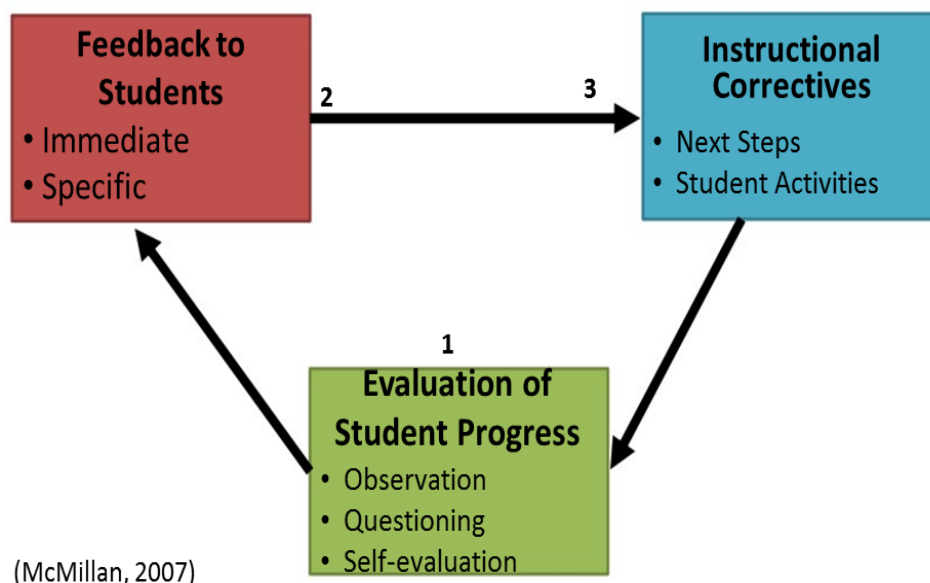
Traditional View on Assessment

Traditionally, assessment (e.g., quizzes, final exams, pop tests, etc.) is the best way to motivate students.

Therefore, the term “assessment” or “test” evoked a negative perception in students. This was the biggest fear for the students.

Thus, when the teacher said or evaluated the word “assessment,” students became anxious.

Assessment is seen as a competition with teaching rather than a means of improving teaching (Heritage, 2007).



HOMETASK

1. Make a presentation on the theme “Types of assessment”.
2. Give examples of assessment types.
3. Explain your thinking and prove it.

TESTS

1. The main goal of summative assessments is to:

- Evaluate learning.
- Check understanding.
- Monitor learning.
- Get ranked.

2. The main goal of formative assessments is to:

- Evaluate learning.
- Monitor learning.
- Grade harshly.
- Grade fairly.

3. An example of a summative assessment is:

- A song and dance. A test.
- A skit. A discussion.

GLOSSARY

Ability (n) – 1. possession of the means or skill to do something.

Synonyms: capacity, capability, potential, potentiality, power, faculty, aptness, facility, propensity, wherewithal, means, preparedness.

2. Talent, skill, or proficiency in a particular area.

Synonyms: talent, skill, expertise, expertness, adeptness, aptitude, skillfulness, prowess, mastery, artistry, caliber, accomplishment, competence.

Academic (adj) – 1. relating to education and scholarship.

Synonyms: educational, scholastic, instructional, pedagogical, school, college, collegiate, university, scholarly, studious, literary, well read, intellectual, clever, erudite, learned, educated, cultured, bookish, highbrow, pedantic, donnish, cerebral, serious, brainy, lettered.

2. not of practical relevance; of only theoretical interest.

Synonyms: theoretical, conceptual, notional, philosophical, ~~unpragmatic~~, hypothetical, speculative, conjectural, conjectured, suppositional, putative, indefinite, abstract, vague, general, impractical, unrealistic, ivory-tower, irrelevant, useless, suppositious, suppositive, ideational.

Academic (n) - a teacher or scholar in a university or other institute of higher education.

Synonyms: scholar, lecturer, don, teacher, educator, instructor, trainer.

Acquire (v) - 1. buy or obtain (an asset or object) for oneself.

2. learn or develop (a skill, habit, or quality).

Synonyms: obtain, come by, come to have, get, receive, gain, earn, win, come into, come in for, take possession of, take receipt of, be given, buy, purchase,

procure, possess oneself of, secure, gather, collect, pick up, appropriate, amass, build up, hook, net, land, achieve, attain, get one's hands on, get one's mitts on, get hold of, grab, bag, score, swing, nab, collar, cop.

Acquisition (n) – 1. an asset or object bought or obtained, typically by a library or museum.

2. the learning or developing of a skill, habit, or quality.

Synonyms: *purchase, accession, addition, asset, buy, investment, possession, accretion, property, goods.*

Alternative (adj) - 1. (of one or more things) available as another possibility or choice.

Synonyms: *different, other, another, second, possible, substitute, replacement, deputy, relief, proxy, surrogate, cover, fill-in, stand-in, standby, emergency, reserve, backup, auxiliary, fallback, alternate, pinch-hitting.*

2. relating to activities that depart from or challenge traditional norms.

Synonyms: *unorthodox, unconventional, non-standard, unusual, uncommon.*

Alternative (n) - one of two or more available possibilities.

Synonyms: *option, choice, other possibility, substitute, replacement, proxy.*

Approach (v) – 1. come near or nearer to (someone or something) in distance or time.

Synonyms: *proceed towards, come/go towards, advance towards, go near/nearer, come near/nearer, draw near/nearer, come close/closer, go close/closer, draw close/closer, move near/nearer, edge near/nearer, near, draw near, close in on, centre on, focus on, converge on, catch up on, gain on, creep up on, loom, reach, arrive at.*

2. speak to (someone) for the first time about a proposal or request.

Synonyms: *speak to, talk to, make conversation with, engage in conversation.*

Approach (n) - 1. a way of dealing with a situation or problem.

Synonyms: *attitude, slant, perspective, point of view, viewpoint, outlook, line of attack, line of action, method, procedure, process, technique, style, strategy, stratagem, way, manner, mode, tactic, tack, path, system, means, modus operandi.*

2. an initial proposal or request made to someone.

Synonyms: *proposal, proposition, submission, motion, offer, application.*

Assessment (n) - the action of assessing someone or something.

Synonyms: *evaluation, judgement, gauging, rating, estimation, appraisal.*

Attitude (n) - 1. a settled way of thinking or feeling about something.

2. truculent or uncooperative behaviour.

Synonyms: *point of view, view, viewpoint, vantage point, frame of mind, way of thinking, way of looking at things, school of thought, outlook, angle, slant, perspective, reaction, stance, standpoint, position, inclination, orientation, approach, opinion, ideas, belief, convictions, feelings, sentiments, persuasion, thoughts, thinking, interpretation.*

Benchmark (n) - 1. a standard or point of reference against which things may be compared.

2. a surveyor's mark cut in a wall, pillar, or building and used as a reference point in measuring altitudes.

Synonyms: *standard, point of reference, basis, gauge, criterion, specification, canon, convention, guide, guideline, guiding principle, norm, touchstone, yardstick, test, litmus test, barometer, indicator, measure, model, exemplar, classic example, pattern, paradigm, archetype, prototype, ideal.*

Capacity (n) - 1. the maximum amount that something can contain.

2. the amount that something can produce.

Synonyms: volume, cubic measure, size, dimensions, measurements, magnitude, proportions, amplitude, room, space, extent, range, scope, compass.

Cognitive (adj) - relating to cognition.

Synonyms:

Communication (n) – 1. the imparting or exchanging of information by speaking, writing, or using some other medium.

2. means of sending or receiving information, such as phone lines or computers.

Synonyms: transmission, imparting, conveying, reporting, presenting, passing on,, handing on, relay, conveyance, divulgence, divulgation, disclosure, spreading, dissemination, promulgation, broadcasting, circulation, circulating.

Competition (n)- 1. the activity or condition of striving to gain or win something by defeating or establishing superiority over others.

Synonyms: rivalry, competitiveness, vying, contesting, opposition, contention, conflict, feuding, battling, fighting, struggling, strife, war, keeping up with the Joneses.

2. an event or contest in which people take part in order to establish superiority or supremacy in a particular area.

Synonyms: contest, tournament, match, game, round, heat, fixture, event, meet, encounter, race, bout, fight, prize fight, quiz, trials, stakes, clash.

3. the person or people over whom one is attempting to establish one's supremacy or superiority; the opposition.

Synonyms: *opposition, opposing side, other side, other team, field, enemy*

Conform (v) – 1. comply with rules, standards, or laws.

Synonyms: *comply with, abide by, obey, observe, follow, keep to, hold to, adhere to, satisfy, match up to, meet, fulfil, be in accordance with, stick to, stand by, act in accordance, with, uphold, heed, pay attention to, agree to/with, consent to, accede to, accept, acquiesce in, go along with, fall in with, adapt to, accommodate to, adjust to, acknowledge, respect, defer to.*

2. (of a person) behave according to socially acceptable conventions or standards.

Synonyms: *follow convention, be conventional, follow tradition, follow custom, fit in, adapt, adjust, follow the crowd, run with the pack, swim with the stream, comply, acquiesce, do what one is told, toe the line, obey the rules, comply with the rules, observe the rules, abide by the rules, adhere to the rules, follow the rules, keep to the rules, stick to the rules, submit, yield, play it by the book, play by the rules, keep in step, go with the flow.*

3. be similar in form or type; agree.

Synonyms: *match, fit, suit, answer agree with, be like, be similar to.*

Create (v) - 1. bring (something) into existence.

2. make a fuss; complain.

Synonyms: *generate, produce, design, make, fabricate, fashion, manufacture, build, construct, erect, do, turn out, bring into being, originate, invent, initiate, engender, devise, frame, develop, shape, form, mould, forge, concoct, hatch, knock together, knock up, knock off, establish, found, institute, constitute, inaugurate, launch, set up, put in place, start, lay the foundations of, organize, build up, get something going, get something moving, get something working, kick something off.*

Deductive (adj) - characterized by or based on the inference of particular instances from a general law.

Synonyms: derivable, inferable. (also inferrible), inferential, reasoned.

Denote (v) - 1. be a sign of; indicate.

2. stand as a name or symbol for.

Synonyms: designate, indicate, be a sign of, be a mark of, signify, signal, symbolize, represent, stand for, mean, typify, characterize, distinguish, mark, identify, bespeak, betoken, suggest, point to, be evidence of, smack of, conjure up, bring to mind, show, reveal, demonstrate, intimate, imply, connote, convey, give away, betray, spell.

Disagreement (n) - 1. lack of consensus or approval.

Synonyms: dissent, lack of agreement, difference of opinion, dispute, variance, controversy, disaccord, discord, contention, divisions, argument, debate, quarrel, wrangle, squabble, altercation, disputation, war of words, contretemps, misunderstanding, strife, conflict, bickering, sparring, dissension, disharmony, falling-out, tiff, barney, set-to, shouting/slanging match, spat, ding-dong, row, afters, rammy.

2. lack of consistency or correspondence.

Synonyms: difference, dissimilarity, variation, variance, discrepancy.

Descriptive (adj) - 1. serving or seeking to describe.

2. describing or classifying in an objective and non-judgemental way.

Synonyms: illustrative, expressive, pictorial, depictive, graphic, picturesque, vivid, striking, explanatory, elucidatory, explicative, exegetic, expository, detailed, lively, circumstantial.

Discipline (n) - 1. the practice of training people to obey rules or a code of behaviour, using punishment to correct disobedience.

Synonyms: control, regulation, direction, order, authority, rule, strictness, a firm hand, routine, regimen, training, teaching, instruction, drill, drilling, exercise, use of punishment.

2. a branch of knowledge, typically one studied in higher education.

Synonyms: field (of study), branch of knowledge, course of study, subject, area.

Discipline (v) - train (someone) to obey rules or a code of behaviour, using punishment to correct disobedience.

Synonyms: train, drill, teach, school, coach, educate, regiment, indoctrinate, lay.

Discussion (n) - 1. the action or process of talking about something in order to reach a decision or to exchange ideas.

2. a conversation or debate about a specific topic.

Synonyms: conversation, talk, dialogue, discourse, conference, debate, exchange of views, consultation, deliberation, chat, heart-to-heart, seminar, symposium, talks, negotiations, parley, argument, dispute, adda, korero, confab, chit-chat, rap, powwow, skull session bull session, convo, confabulation, palaver, colloquy, converse, interlocution.

3. a detailed treatment of a topic in speech or writing.

Synonyms: examination, exploration, analysis, study, review, scrutiny.

Distinguish (v) - 1. recognize or treat (someone or something) as different.

Synonyms: differentiate, tell apart, discriminate, discern, determine, pick out, tell the difference between, decide between.

2. manage to discern (something barely perceptible).

Synonyms: *discern, see, perceive, make out, observe, notice, spot, glimpse.*

Effect (n) - 1. a change which is a result or consequence of an action or other cause.

2. the lighting, sound, or scenery used in a play, film, or broadcast.

Synonyms: *result, consequence, upshot, outcome, out-turn, sequel, reaction, repercussions, reverberations, ramifications, end result, conclusion, termination, culmination, denouement, corollary, concomitant, aftermath, footprint, fruit(s), product, by-product, sequelae, pay-off, issue, success.*

Effect (v) - cause (something) to happen; bring about.

Synonyms: *achieve, accomplish, carry out, succeed in, realize, attain.*

Effective (adj) - 1. successful in producing a desired or intended result.

Synonyms: *effectual, efficacious, productive, constructive, fruitful, functional, potent, powerful, worthwhile, helpful, of help, of assistance, beneficial, advantageous, valuable, useful, of use, convincing, compelling, strong, forceful, forcible, weighty, plausible, sound, valid, well founded, telling, impressive, persuasive, irresistible, credible, influential, conclusive, unanswerable, authoritative, logical, reasoned, reasonable, well reasoned, rational, lucid, coherent, cogent, eloquent, clear, articulate.*

2. existing in fact, though not formally acknowledged as such.

Synonyms: *virtual, practical, essential, operative, actual, implied.*

Establish (v) – 1. set up on a firm or permanent basis.

2. achieve permanent acceptance or recognition for.

Synonyms: *set up, start, begin, get going, put in place, initiate, institute, form, found, create, bring into being, inaugurate, organize, lay the foundations of, build, construct, install, plant.*

Ethnicity (n) - the fact or state of belonging to a social group that has a common national or cultural tradition.

Synonyms: *nationality, race, background, identity, origin.*

Excitement (n) - 1. a feeling of great enthusiasm and eagerness.

Synonyms: *exhilaration, elation, animation, enthusiasm, eagerness, anticipation, feverishness, fever, delirium, agitation, emotion, fire, fieriness, intensity, zeal, zest, pep, vim, zing, spark.*

2. something that arouses a feeling of excitement.

Synonyms: *thrill, thrilling sensation, exciting sensation, adventure, treat, pleasure, delight, joy, kick, buzz, high, charge, glow, stimulation.*

Experience (n) - 1. practical contact with and observation of facts or events.

Synonyms: *involvement in, participation in, contact with, conversance with, understanding of, impression of, insight into.*

2. an event or occurrence which leaves an impression on someone.

Synonyms: *incident, occurrence, event, happening, affair, episode.*

Experience (v) - encounter or undergo (an event or occurrence).

Synonyms: *undergo, encounter, meet, have experience of, come into contact with.*

Explore (v) - 1. travel through (an unfamiliar area) in order to learn about it.

2. inquire into or discuss (a subject) in detail.

Synonyms: *travel over, tour, range over, survey, take a look at, inspect, investigate, scout, reconnoiter, search, prospect, recce.*

Extent (n) – 1. the area covered by something.

Synonyms: *area, size, expanse, length, stretch, range, scope, compass, proportions, dimensions.*

2. the particular degree to which something is or is believed to be the case.

Synonyms: *degree, scale, level, magnitude, scope, extensiveness.*

Feedback (n) - 1. information about reactions to a product, a person's performance of a task, etc. which is used as a basis for improvement.

2. a screeching or humming sound resulting from the return of a fraction of the output signal from an amplifier, microphone, or other device to the input of the same device.

Synonyms: *response, reaction, comment, report, estimation, assessment, critique, criticism, view, opinion, commentary, judgement, rating, comeback, note.*

Foreign (adj.) - 1. of, from, in, or characteristic of a country or language other than one's own.

Synonyms: *overseas, distant, remote, far off, far flung, external, outside, alien, non-native, adventitious.*

2. strange and unfamiliar.

Synonyms: *unfamiliar, unknown, unheard of, strange, alien, exotic.*

Formal (n) - 1. done in accordance with convention or etiquette; suitable for or constituting an official or important occasion.

Synonyms: *ceremonial, ceremonious, ritualistic, ritual, conventional, traditional, orthodox, prescribed, fixed, set, stately, courtly, solemn, dignified, elaborate, ornate, dressy.*

2.officially sanctioned or recognized.

Synonyms: *official, legal, authorized, approved, validated, certified.*

Generalization (n) – 1. a general statement or concept obtained by inference from specific cases.

2. the action of generalizing.

Synonyms: *generalisation, abstraction, generality, stimulus generalization, induction, stimulus generalisation, inductive reasoning.*

Grammar (n) – 1.the whole system and structure of a language or of languages in general, usually taken as consisting of syntax and morphology (including inflections) and sometimes also phonology and semantics.

2. a grammar school.

Synonyms: *syntax, rules of language, morphology, semantics, linguistics, phonology, langue.*

Identify (v) – 1.establish or indicate who or what (someone or something) is.

Synonyms: *recognize, single out, pick out, spot, point out, pinpoint, pin down, know know again, know by sight, discern, distinguish, discover, find, locatem, remember, recall, recollect.*

2.associate someone or something closely with; regard as having strong links with.

Synonyms: *associate, link, connect, couple, relate, bracket.*

Incorporate (adj) – 1. take in or contain (something) as part of a whole; include.

2. constitute (a company, city, or other organization) as a legal corporation.

Synonyms: absorb, include, subsume, assimilate, integrate, take in, swallow up, engulf, consolidate, embody, comprise, contain, embrace, build in, encompass.

Inductive (v) – 1. take in or contain (something) as part of a whole; include.

2. constitute (a company, city, or other organization) as a legal corporation.

Synonyms: absorb, include, subsume, assimilate, integrate, take in, swallow up, engulf, consolidate, embody, comprise, contain, embrace, build in, encompass.

Information (n) – 1. facts provided or learned about something or someone.

2. what is conveyed or represented by a particular arrangement or sequence of things.

Synonyms: details, particulars, facts, figures, statistics, data, knowledge, intelligence, instruction, advice, guidance, direction, counsel, enlightenment, news, notice, word, material, documentation, documents, info, the low-down, the dope, the inside story, the latest, bumf, deets, gen.

Input (n) – 1. what is put in, taken in, or operated on by any process or system.

2. a place where, or a device through which, energy or information enters a system.

Synonyms: information, word, help, judgment, guidance, instruction, tip, consultation .

Input (v) - put (data) into a computer.

Synonyms: feed in, put in, load, insert, key in, type in, code.

Instructor (n) – 1. a person who teaches something.

2. a university teacher ranking below assistant professor.

Synonyms: *trainer, teacher, tutor, coach, demonstrator, adviser, counselor, guide, professor, pedagogue, preceptor.*

Intake (n) – 1. an amount of food, air, or another substance taken into the body.

2. the people taken into an organization at a particular time.

Synonyms: *recess, breathing in, uptake, consumption, aspiration, inhalation, inspiration, inlet, ingestion.*

Intellect (n) – 1. the faculty of reasoning and understanding objectively, especially with regard to abstract matters.

Synonyms: *mind, brain, brains, head, intelligence, reason, understanding, comprehension, thought, brainpower, sense, judgement, wisdom, wits, nous, grey matter, brainbox, brain cells, loaf, upper storey, smarts, kop.*

2. a person's mental powers.

3. a clever person.

Synonyms: *thinker, intellectual, bluestocking, academic, scholar, sage.*

Interaction (n) – 1. reciprocal action or influence.

Synonyms: *interplay, interchange, interactivity, interconnection, interlinkage, reciprocation, reciprocity, exchange, reaction, relationship, relation, relatedness, interrelation, interrelationship, association, link, correspondence.*

2. communication or direct involvement with someone or something.

3. a particular way in which matter, fields, and atomic and subatomic particles affect one another, e.g. through gravitation or electromagnetism

Synonyms: *contact, relations, connection, association, communion, intercourse, socializing, social intercourse, social contact, social relations, relationship, society, company, connections, interface, sociability, interchange, meeting, getting in touch, communication, intercommunication, conversation, discussion, talk, talking, speaking, chatting, dialogue, correspondence, dealings, transactions, negotiations, teamwork, commerce, traffic.*

Interchangeably (adverb) - in a way that can be exchanged.

Synonyms: *correspondently, vice-versa, conversely, mutually, synonymously, inter-changeably and reciprocally.*

Interference (n) - 1. the action of interfering or the process of being interfered with.

2. the combination of two or more electromagnetic waveforms to form a resultant wave in which the displacement is either reinforced or cancelled

Synonyms: *intrusion, intervention, intercession, involvement, impinging, encroaching, trespass, trespassing, obtrusion, prying, poking around, nosing around, horning in, muscling in, gatecrashing.*

Interlocutor (n) – 1. a person who takes part in a dialogue or conversation.

Synonyms: *ialogist, conversationalist, speaker, conversational-partner, questioner, talker, interviewer, examiner, middleman, opposing-party.*

Intimidator (n) - a person who frightens or overawes someone, especially in order to make them do something.

Synonyms: *browbeater, bulldozer, bully, hector, brave and over.*

Language (n) – 1.the principal method of human communication, consisting of words used in a structured and conventional way and conveyed by speech, writing, or gesture.

2. a system of communication used by a particular country or community.

Synonyms: tongue, speech, mother tongue, native tongue, dialect.

Learn (v) - gain or acquire knowledge of or skill in (something) by study, experience, or being taught.

Synonyms: acquire a knowledge of, gain an understanding of, acquire skill in.

Learner (n) – 1. a person who is learning a subject or skill.

Synonyms: beginner, trainee, apprentice, pupil, student, mentee, novice, newcomer, starter, freshman, freshwoman, neophyte, initiate, new recruit, raw recruit, new boy/girl, tenderfoot, novitiate, newbie, greenhorn, rookie.

2. a person who is learning to drive a motor vehicle and has not yet passed a driving test.

Synonyms: learner driver; plural noun: learner drivers.

Memory (n) – 1. the faculty by which the mind stores and remembers information.

2. something remembered from the past.

Synonyms: recollection, remembrance, reminiscence, evocation, reminder.

Mental (adj) – 1. relating to the mind.

Synonyms: intellectual, cerebral, brain, rational, psychological, cognitive, abstract, conceptual, theoretical, mindly, phrenic.

2. relating to disorders of the mind.

Synonyms: psychiatric, psychogenic.

Method (n) – 1. a particular procedure for accomplishing or approaching something, especially a systematic or established one.

ANSWERS

Unit 1. Modul A. Theme 1.

Activity 1. A -1, 4, 6, 7; B – 2, 3, 5, 8.

Questions.

1. Motivation, attitude, age, intelligence, aptitude, cognitive style, and personality are considered as factors that greatly influence someone in the process of his or her second language acquisition.

2. The Direct Method. The Direct Method is also known as the Oral or Natural method. ...

The Grammar-Translation Method. This method grew from the traditional method of teaching Latin and Greek. ...

The Audio-Lingual Method. ...

Comparing the Language Training Methods.

3. Here, we include a few general principles that should apply no matter what language learning approach you employ: addressing student expectations, creating a positive learning environment, and finding a balance among modeling, explaining and practice.

4. Exposure to the New Language. When learning a new language, the most important factor is exposure.

5. (a) INSTRUCTOR/TEACHER CENTRED METHODS. ...

(b) LEARNER-CENTRED METHODS. ...

(c) CONTENT-FOCUSED METHODS. ...

(d) INTERACTIVE/PARTICIPATIVE METHODS. ...

SPECIFIC TEACHING METHODS. ...

LECTURE METHOD.

6. The primary goal of teaching is to impart knowledge and to monitor change in behavior while learning aims to understand and apply knowledge. A teacher seeks to share what he knows whereas a learner intends to receive new information.

7. Teaching can be defined as engagement with learners to enable their understanding and application of knowledge, concepts and processes. ... To teach is to engage students in learning; thus teaching consists of getting students involved in the active construction of knowledge.

8. School and teachers can influence the extent and quality of learning for all students. Teacher's beliefs, practices and attitudes are important for understanding and improving educational processes. They are closely linked to teachers' strategies for coping with challenges in their daily professional life.

9. In principle, instruction in any LANGUAGE, under any conditions, formal or informal; in practice, as the term is commonly used among language teachers and applied linguists, instruction in a second or foreign language within a system of education, such as the institutionalized teaching of French in Britain and English.

Theme 2. Activity 1. A - 1, 5, 9; B – 2, 4, 8; C – 3, 6, 10; D – 7, 11, 12, 13.

Theme 3. Activity 1. 1-C, 2-A, 3-B.

Theme 4. Activity 1. 1-C, 2-A, 3-D, 4-B.

Theme 5. Activity 4. A-2, B-1, C-4, D-3.

Theme 6. Activity 3. A-2, B-1, C-4, D-3.

Unit 2. Modul B. Theme 2. Activity 2. 1-C, 2-A, 3-B.

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