MODULE 1 Approaches & Methods

1. Introduction

As primary school teachers, you certainly know everything about children's cognitive development and first language (L1) acquisition. Though, as primary school teachers of English, what do you know about the early acquisition of a foreign language (L2)? What are, if any, the relations between the acquisitional processes of both languages? Are they governed by the same principles? Do the early stages of L1/L2 language acquisition (LA) share common features? The present module addresses these questions by providing a brief outline of the main theoretical approaches and effective methods which are being currently adopted in teaching English as a foreign language to young learners. It will primarily focus on the distinctive features of the three major factors in the learning/teaching process: The young learner, the foreign language, and the communicative context.

2. Lecture

1. The young learner

It is extremely important to constantly consider the different developmental stages of children at specific ages to adjust your attitudes towards your pupils as well as your teaching praxis. So, we will start with the theories which have largely investigated the close interrelation between children's *cognitive development* and *language acquisition*.

Let's start with Piaget (1923) who described the thought processes of the child to understand the course of early language acquisition (Fig.1). According to his view, before using words, children use **actions** to show recognition of objects and to represent intended activities. In early childhood, representation is tied to **concrete** events which the child has experienced and one product of the early development is the growth of the symbolic function. The whole process is 'self-motivating', that is motivation is intrinsic and not reinforced by external factors. The child is always able to construct the novel language in terms of the familiar. Thus, if an unfamiliar utterance occurs, he will not fail to respond to it, but he will try to make sense of it in terms of patterns which are familiar to him. This will happen at all levels of language (the lexical, phonological, morphological and syntactic level).

Stage	Characterised by
Sensori-motor (Birth-2 yrs)	Differentiates self from objects Recognises self as agent of action and begins to act intentionally: e.g. pulls a string to set mobile in motion or shakes a rattle to make a noise Achieves object permanence: realises that things continue to exist even when no longer present to the sense (pace Bishop Berkeley)
Pre-operational (2-7 years)	Learns to use language and to represent objects by images and words Thinking is still egocentric: has difficulty taking the viewpoint of others Classifies objects by a single feature: e.g. groups together all the red blocks regardless of shape or all the square blocks regardless of colour
Concrete operational (7-11 years)	Can think logically about objects and events Achieves conservation of number (age 6), mass (age 7), and weight (age 9) Classifies objects according to several features and can order them in series along a single dimension such as size.
Formal operational (11 years and up)	Can think logically about abstract propositions and test hypotheses systemtically Becomes concerned with the hypothetical, the future, and ideological problems

Fig.1 Piaget's stages of cognitive and language development

Of course, several conditions may co-occur during L1/L2 processes. For example, whenever language is directed to the child, it refers to some action or event that is occurring in the environment. Even though a child has already developed complex visual and motor abilities, he may still be unable to perform complex cognitive tasks.

With his theory, Piaget not only emphasized the biological foundation of cognitive development parallel to language development, but he also highlighted the role of environment with which the child interacts accomodating his mental schemata (Allen & Pit Corder 1980: 312f). By reversing the direction of the cognitive process from thought to the social environment, Vygotsky's 'social constructivism' (1978) assumed the social environment as the main triggering force for the learning process. Children deveop higher-order cognitive functions, including linguistic skills, through social interactions with adults or more acknowledgeable peers, which take place within a child's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), that is, slightly ahead of the learner's independent ability (Vygotsky 1978: 86).

Bloom's taxonomy (Fig.2) also shows the development of cognitive stages. Each stage is characterized by specific cognitive or thinking skills which represent processes our brain use when we think and learn. Learners progress from simple information processing or concrete thinking skills, such as identifying and organizing information (LOTS or *low order thinking skills)* to more complex, abstract thinking, such as reasoning, hypothesising and evaluating (HOTS or *high order thinking skills)*.
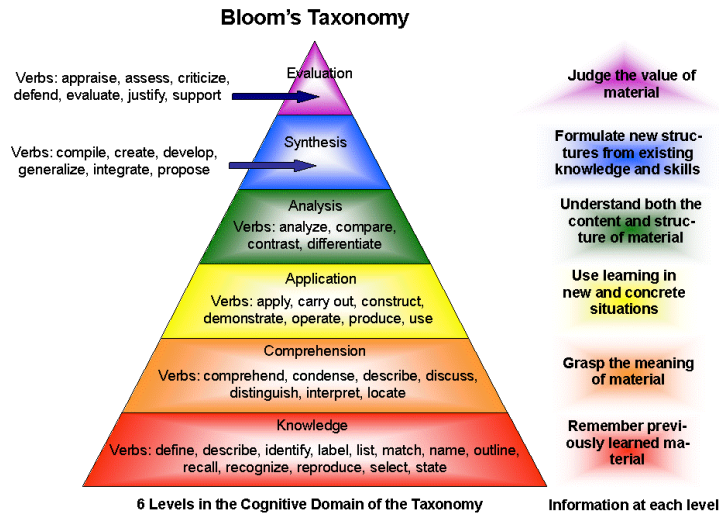
Fig.2 Bloom's Taxonomy[1]

Such skills, if adequately oriented by teachers, can result in effective *learning* skills enabling learners to effectively respond and perform specific language tasks.

At an individual level, on the other hand, other forces seem to enhance learning, i.e. the processing and organisation of information according to learner-specific characteristics. The concept of **learning styles (Fig.4)** is based on a model that groups students' learning preferences into learning processes based on experiential learning through senses.

Fig.4 Learning styles based on the sensory-motor system[2]

Therefore, identifying learners' learning/cognitive styles is necessary to predict what kind of instructional strategies or methods would be most effective for a given individual to perform a given learning task.
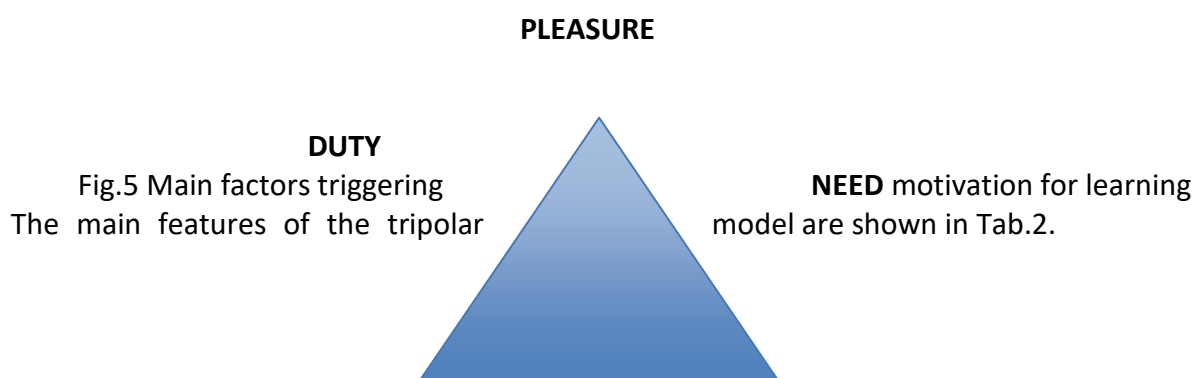
In order to feel totally involved from a cognitive as well as emotional point of view, the learner needs to be involved in a learning experience based on 'knowledge gaps' in which new information is non-discordant with his/her previous knowledge in L1. Thus, to activate the mind and enable it to modify its cognitive architecture, learning must be 'meaningful'. The main features of 'meaningful learning' are based on the following standpoints:

a. learning is total, that is it involves the cognitive, affective, emotional and social sphere;
b. learning is a constructive process, where new information come to be integrated in the learner's previous knowledge;
c. the quality of learning in terms of memory persistency is largely influenced by motivation which depends on internal factors such as interest, pleasure and need for learning.

This model focuses on the development of motivation centered on learners' curiosity about cultural, social, historical diversity. As a matter of fact, some important principles can be identified:

d. No learning can happen without the right motivation supported by the *dynamic interest* of the individual involved in the process
e. Feature of *dynamism* makes motivation extremely *variable* because it is determined by the individual nature of the learners
f. Main motivation to learn a FL relies on its nature as a *means of communication of meaningful contents* (as in *Content and Language Integrated Learning/CLIL*) and *contact with other cultures.*

Given the cultural and social implications of motivation, some theorists (Freddi 1993; Balboni 1994, 2002) have proposed a tripolar model based on three potential factors triggering motivation such as duty, need and pleasure (Fig.5).

PLEASURE

DUTY

Fig.5 Main factors triggering **NEED** motivation for learning
The main features of the tripolar model are shown in Tab.2.

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[2] http://265725080178138949.weebly.com/learning-styles.html

MOTIVATION	DESCRIPTIONS	DEGREE OF LEARNING
PLEASURE	1. reduced external conditioning 2. fulfillment of cognitive needs 3. personal involvement in participating in challenging class activities	4. stable 5. stored in long-term memory 6. systemitized knowledge turned into personal competence
NEED	1. connected to personal expectations and objectives (self-promotion, academic success) 2. based on BICS and CALP	Sometimes stable
DUTY	a. *hetero-directed*, i.e. prompted by external factors such as curriculum-based programmes, teacher-centred methodology b. *self-directed*	1. highly unstable 2. stored in short-term memory 3. temporary

In terms of L2 acquisition theory, Krashen compared L2 acquisition to the process children use in acquiring L1. The central hypothesis of the Natural Approach is that similarly to L1 acquisition, SLA occurs by understanding aural messages through exposure to comprehensible input (Krashen & Terrell 1995: Preface). According to Krashen, exposure to **meaningful input** in the target language with a focus on the message rather than form is needed to acquire a language more than comprehensible output i.e. learner's production since 'there's no direct evidence that comprehensible output leads to language acquisition' and 'high levels of linguistic competence are possible without output' (1998: 178). A central role in the process of SLA is played, instead, by output within Swain and Lapkin's model (1995). Output may set 'noticing' in train, triggering mental processes that lead to modified output, as an attention-getting / metalinguistic device. When facing a problem during the production of utterances, students may turn to input with more focused attention searching for relevant input or work out a solution resulting in new, reprocessed output (p.386). The stage/s between the first and the second output are considered part of the process of second language learning (Fig.1).
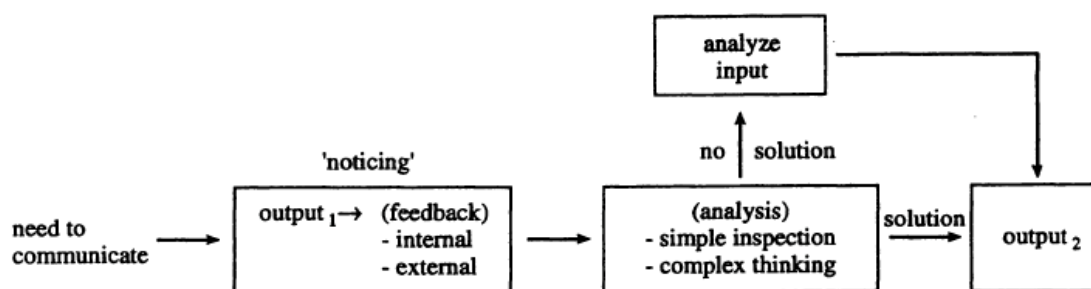

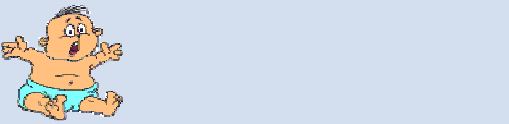Figure 1: Output and second language learning

(from Swain & Merill 1995: 388)

2. The foreign language
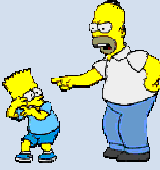
Any child who will be exposed to his/her first language during the critical period (2-13 years) will develop a good command of language not merely imitating the external environment but creating his/her own mental grammar. This grammar is characterised by a series of complex layers ranging from the use of symbolic signs to the acquisition of the basic vocabulary and the standard order of the sentence. In the process of L2 acquisition, the *visual* and *auditory inputs* will operate on a mental grammar which is already formed in all its parameters. But the construction of a new L2 mental grammar is a common development resulting first in the *interlanguage*, a simplified system of rules similar to the first stages of L1 acquisition characterized by a combination of features from both the native and the target language. For this reason, mistakes do not have to be interpreted as signs of inadequate learning, rather as an indication of what learners are hypothesizing about the L2 system they are constructing. Then, semantic-structural analogy and deviations from the target language are not necessarily triggered by interference.

3. The communicative context

1950s-1960s psycho-linguistic theories were mainly based on the developmental analysis of *grammatical competence*. From 1980s onwards, the orientation of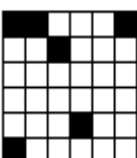 studies moved on to the development of the *communicative competence* seen as a combination of grammatical competence and *socio-pragmatic skills*. The main object of investigation became *speech acts* aiming at fulfilling specific *communicative purposes* called *communicative functions*. These functions can be organised according to the network of basic relationships occurring between the self (*personal function*), the other (*interpersonal* and *regulative functions*) and the world (*referential*, *immaginative* and *metalinguistic functions*). The interrelationships between communicative functions, speech acts and corrisponding exponents developing in early childhood are shown in Tab.1.

Function	Speech act	Exponents
Personal	Expressing one's thoughts or feelings love, joy, happiness, likes/dislikes, anger, hunger, thirst, cold or warmth	*I like…* *I'm hungry*
Interpersonal	Enables to establish and maintain desirable social	*Hello!*

	relationships
	  • greetings and leave takings
	
	  • introducing people to others
	  • accepting/ refusing invitations
	  • offering food or drinks
			Good morning!
			See you
			This is …
			Would you like..

Directive	Enables to act on the others to regulate their behaviour in order to satisfy personal needs:
	
	  • making requests / suggestions
	  • asking for permission
	
	  • giving and responding to instructions
			You should…
			May I…
			Stand up
			Touch your…

Referential	Talking or reporting about things, actions, events, or
	
	people in the environment in the past
	
	  • or in the future
	  • identifying items or people in the classroom, the school, the home,
	
	  • defining something or a language item or asking for a definition
			It lived…
			I will…
			That's a…
			
			How do you say…in English?

Imaginative	• Discussions involving elements of creativity and artistic expression:		*The story is about…*

• discussing a poem, a story, a piece of music, a play, a painting, a film • creating rhymes, poetry, stories or plays • recombining familiar dialogues or passages creatively • suggesting original beginnings or endings to dialogs or stories • solving problems	

The processes of meaning construction can be expressed through different codes of interpretation of reality: for example, during dramatization, meaning is expressed through a mimic–gestural signifier. The learner does not care about theoretical analyses of language. From a functional-communicative perspective, the role of language is to communicate meanings, and the learner's attention to the evidence to which he is exposed can be supported by *recurring chunks of language* used in a set of routines. Exposure to recurrent language along with visual representations enhance the emergence of meaning instantiated by associative chunking mechanisms.

Teaching methods based on constructivist and social interactionist perspectives rely on classroom practices focused on a teacher guiding a class /narration and teaching vocabulary in context. One of these methodologies is based on the concept of '*narrative format*' consisting in the dramatization of short narrative situations on everyday topics. The concept of 'format' dates back to 1970s theories based on the importance of common and therefore highly predictable micro-situations which form the basis of any adult-child interactions. The main assumption is that any child tends to spontaneously communicate in a familiar context in which he would be able to recognize recurrent words and expressions linked to specific non-verbal inputs such as gestures and other visual prompts. From the language point of view the child will follow the same path already taken for the acquisition of the mother tongue from one-two words sentences (olofrasi) to vertical and more complex constructions. A strategic function in view of effective learning is played by the way activities are presented by the teacher. *Classroom management* is firstly rooted in the teacher-student relationship which has some features in common with the parent-child relationship as they both share the ability to rough-tune the language at the children's level of language competence. Rough-tuning is the simplification of language caretakers make when talking to children in order to make their utterances comprehensible. The *comprehensible input* is also

instatiated when the teacher clearly fixes precise lesson stages which start with the explanation of the lesson agenda, i.e. what they are going to do during the lesson, end with a short summary of what they have learned and predict the content of the next lesson. The general method/approach the teacher will adopt will be also signalled by the different arrangements of chairs and desks. This is an important aspect which will have a great influence on the kind of classroom interaction needed to perform the different activities. For instance, many interactive activities such as jigsaw or restructuring activities often require students to change their seats or circulate around the classroom, whereas small groups arouse motivation and enhance peer-to-peer interaction and conversation.
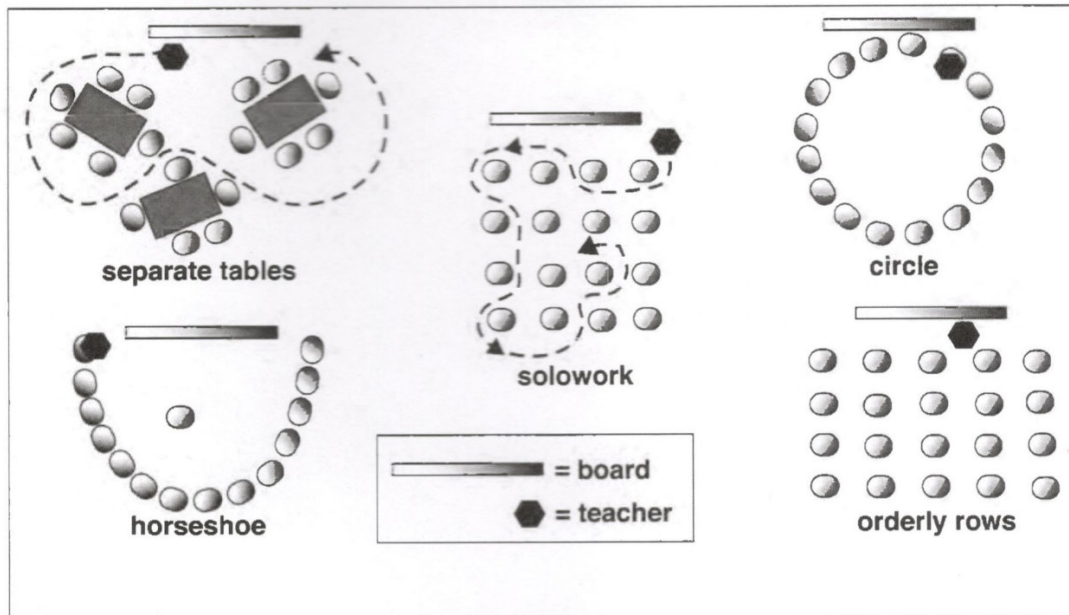
Fig.6 (from J. Harmer, How to teach English, 2nd ed., p.42)
["The meaning of the words of a given language, and how they can be used in combination, depends on the perception and categorization of the real world around us" (Nick C. Ellis p.65 in Handbook of SLA)]

LESSON PLANNING: THE TEACHING/LEARNING UNIT

CLASS	
TIME	
TOPIC	
TEACHING AIMS	
COMMUNICATIVE FUNCTIONS	
EXPONENTS (*VOCABULARY AND STRUCTURES*)	
COGNITIVE SKILLS	
LANGUAGE SKILLS	
PREVIOUS KNOWLEDGE	
ACTIVITIES	
TEACHING TECHNIQUES/METHOD	
AIDS/MATERIALS	
STAGES/PROGRESSION (Warm-up-Presentation-Practice-Production)	
ASSESSMENT	

TEACHER EDUCATION TASKS

TASK 1

Consider the materials and activities in the Appendixes 1, 2, 3 and 4:
1) Number the tasks and define them according to teaching procedures (e.g warm-up, presentation, practice, production).
2) Indicate the learning outcomes of each task by referring to Bloom's taxonomy: which cognitive skills are involved?
3) What task could be used for extension? Why?
4) Indicate in the table below which communicative functions, speech acts and corresponding exponents may be taught by using the text "Healthy Food."

Function	Speech act	Exponents
Personal		
Interpersonal		
Directive		
Referential		
Imaginative		

APPENDIX No. _____

Step: _____

Search for the origin of your favourite foods, then report to the class.
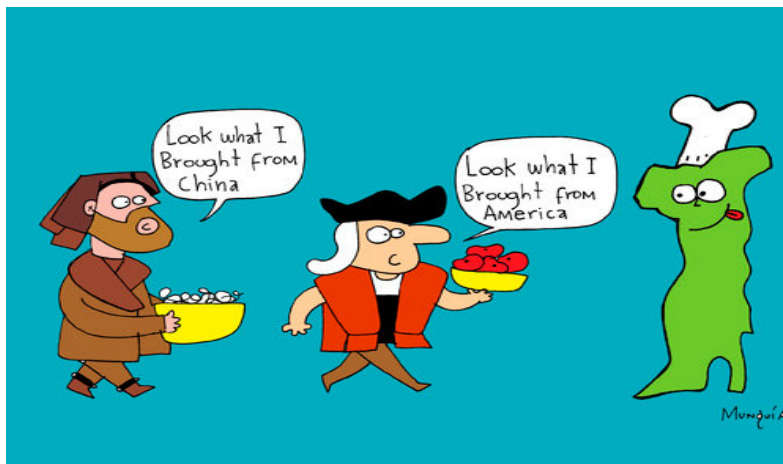
www.toonpool.com

APPENDIX No. _____

Step: _____

READING COMPREHENSION

"Healthy Food"

All vegetables and fruits are healthy. Fruit and vegetables may be any colour, shape or variety. They can be fresh, frozen, tinned or dried. They may be raw, cooked or boiled. Variety is important. Try to choose different coloured fruit and vegetables, particularly orange, green and red. Some examples are melon, stone fruit, broccoli, spinach, leafy greens, tomatoes, carrot and pumpkin.

Fruit juices are not necessary – it is better to eat the fruit instead and have a glass of water. Fruit juices may be a good source of some vitamins, but they are high in natural sugars and low in fibre. If you include fruit juice in your diet, limit this to one small glass per day. Potato chips are not the best way to eat potato – chips and crisps are made from potatoes but prepared by cooking in oil. They are high in fat and salt, and best left for your birthday parties.

TRUE / FALSE Questions

1. Only some vegetables and fruits are healthy
2. Fruits and vegetables can be cooked
3. Fruit juices are healthy because high in natural sugars
4. It is better to eat the fruit instead of having a glass of water
5. You can have potato chips at your birthday party

APPENDIX No. _____

Step: _____

1. How many types of food can you recognize in the box (picture)?
2. Can you sort them into different groups?
3. Can you define each group according to the features written in the table?
4. When can you eat them?
5. Which types did you find difficult to classify? Why?
6. What are your favourite foods on the table?

FOOD NAME	SHAPE	COLOUR	TASTE

TASK 2

Consider the materials and activities in the Appendixes 1, 2, 3, and 4:
1) Indicate what abilities are involved in each activity.
2) Describe in what ways the activities motivate students.
3) Define which learning styles are boosted by each activity.

Learning Styles

Visual	Musical/Auditory	Verbal	Physical/Kinesthetic
* You prefer using pictures, images, and spatial understanding.	* You prefer using sound and music.	* You prefer using words, both in speech and writing.	* You prefer using your body, hands and sense of touch.
Logical/Mathematical	**Social**	**Solitary**	**What is your learning style?**
* You prefer using logic, reasoning and systems.	* You prefer to learn in groups or with other people.	* You prefer to work alone and use self-study.	

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APPENDIX 1

1.Warm-up- Brainstorming: a. T shows map of North America and elicits from SS info about common obj we use from US; b. T points to Spain and America on the map to highlight distance, then asks questions; c. SS play the game in 3.

1) Students will be able to _____

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Christopher Columbus' Voyages
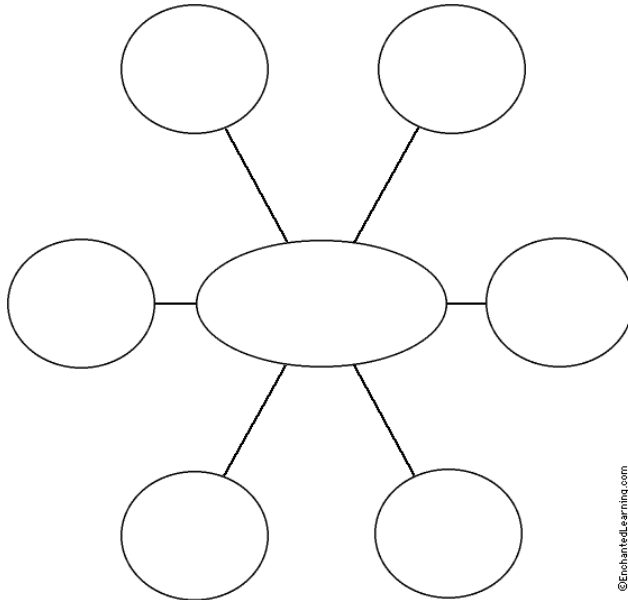
www.pinterest.com

2) Students will be able to _____

Help Columbus Find the New World!

Start

PINTA

Finish
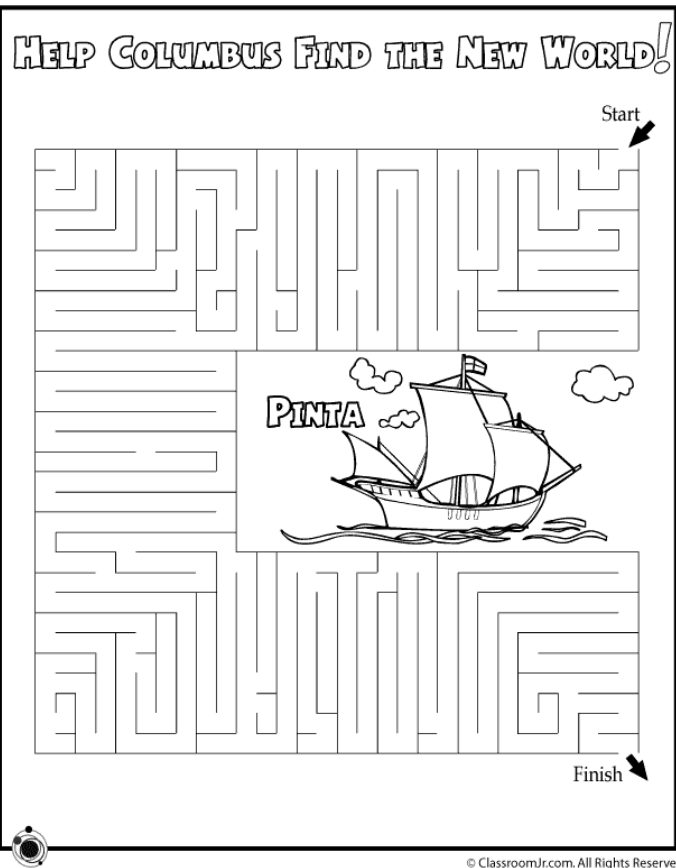
www.woojr.com

3) Students will be able to _____

APPENDIX 2

Presentation- Before watching: T asks questions about first shot of the video (Appendix 2)

http://www.bbc.co.uk/schools/primaryhistory/famouspeople/christopher_columbus/

a. Look at the shot on the screen, read the charter, then answer the following questions:

1. Who do you think is the character in the picture?
2. What can you see behind him?
3. Where is he standing?
4. Where will he set sail?
5. Why is he sailing?

APPENDIX 3

1) Students will be able to _____

Practice- SS will fill in the table, then answer the questions (Appendix 4); SS do online exercises (see GAMES) and final quiz

b. Watch the video and fill in the table.

Where?	Who?	What?	When?

1) Students will be able to _____

Now, look at the map (Appendix 1) and complete the time-line below.

----------|----------------|-------------|------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------------
>
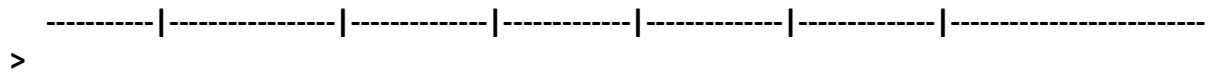
b. Now answer the questions.

1. Who is wearing a hat?
2. Who is the boy on the left?
3. What do they have to do before leaving?
4. Which year is it?
5. How long will the journey take?
6. Where are they leaving from?
7. What are the names of the three ships?
8. Why does Columbus write a list?

APPENDIX 4

1) Students will be able to _____

Production- SS will write a sentence under pictures 1-6, then complete the storyboard.

www.123rf.com

Fig.1_____
_____
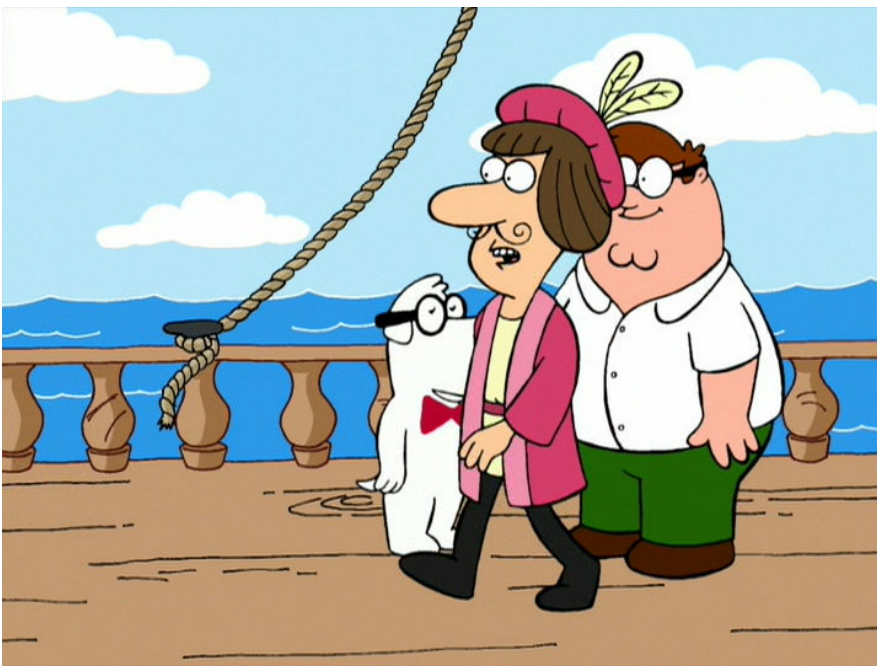
Fig.2_____
_____

Fig.3_____
_____

Fig.4_____
_____

Fig.5_____

_____
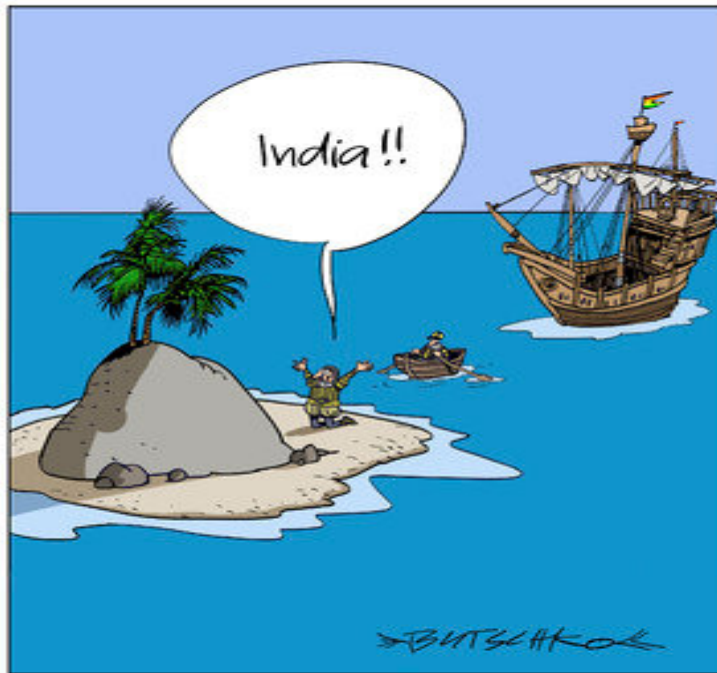
Fig.6_____

_____

Use the pictures below to create your own storyboard.
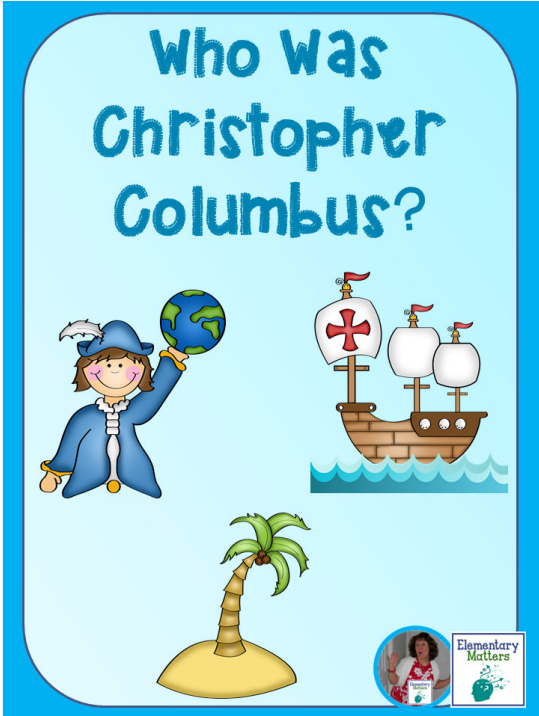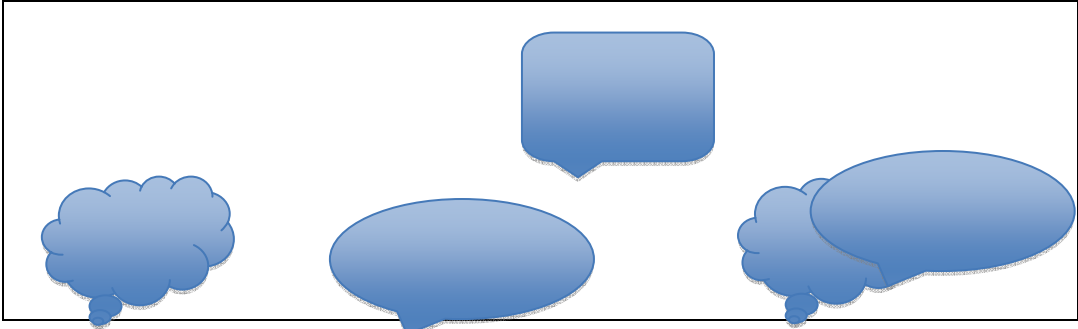
Main Characters

Christopher Columbus
A seafarer born in the Italian city of Genoa; he believed he could sail west to reach Asia

Bartholomew
Columbus's younger brother, a maker of maps

Diego
Columbus's firstborn son, Fernando's older brother

King John II
The ruler of Portugal and a strong backer of African exploration

Martín Alonzo Pinzón
Captain of the Pinta on Columbus's first voyage

Filipa
Columbus's Portuguese first wife

Fernando
Columbus's second son; sailed with his father on his fourth and final voyage

Queen Isabella I
Ruler of Castile (today's Spain)

Francisco de Bobadilla
Royal judge who arrested Columbus

ASSESSMENT & REFLECTION

A. THEORY

1. Many applied theorists in the acquisitionist tradition argue that language acquisition is the result of:

a. an innate human ability
b. interaction of innate human ability and environment
c. exposure to repeated linguistic habits

2. According to Bloom's taxonomy, children can attain:

   a. knowledge, comprehension and application levels
   b. only the knowledge level
   c. all levels

3. Motivation always leads to stable learning, even though it is triggered by duty.

   a. It is true
   b. It is false
   c. It is partially true

4. Mistakes in learners' interlanguage are always caused by

   a. L1 interference (L1 transfer)
   b. Learners' formulating hypotheses
   c. Lack of attitude to learn foreign languages

5. 'Knowing a language' means:

   a. the acquisition of its grammar
   b. the acquisition of routinized language
   c. the acquisition of grammatical and socio-pragmatic skills

B. PRACTICE

Look at this picture and the task beside it. Which cognitive skill is developed? Choose **a, b** or **c.**

Find something which isn't a fruit and isn't a vegetable

a. Reasoning
b. Remembering
c. Comparing

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Module 2 Teaching Listening

1. Introduction.

Good listening skills are essential to the academic and social development of children. For learning to take place in second language (L2) classrooms, primary school students must be able to listen to and comprehend their teacher's instructions in that L2. We could say that listening is 'the door' to learning, as it is the initial stage in first and second language acquisition. According to Sharpe (2001), the promotion of children's speaking and listening skills lies at the heart of effective learning in all subjects of the primary curriculum. Therefore, L2 teachers have to make the development of children's listening skills, a key aim of Primary teaching and equip them with the best strategies for effective listening.

The good news is that, like anything else, listening skills can be improved with practice. In this module, you will revise the basic theoretical concepts and learn about effective tasks and activities with different materials to be applied in an L2 class with young learners.

What is listening? Cognitive mechanisms underlying L2 listening comprehension.

Current views in literature claim that listening comprehension *is an active, complex and participative process* in which the listener plays a very important role. In L2 teaching, listening is considered a *receptive oral skill*.

During L2 listening comprehension, listeners are engaged in *bottom up* and *top down processes*. In bottom up processes, the listener builds an understanding by starting with the smallest unit of message, i.e. sounds. Sounds are then combined into words; words into phrases, phrases make up clauses and clauses make up sentences. Listeners use bottom up processes when they apply linguistic knowledge to understand the meaning of a message. If the listener, however, rather than relying upon the individual sounds and words, uses previous background knowledge (technically called *schemata*) in processing text, this means that he/she is relying on top-down processes.

In any case, both bottom-up (requiring linguistic knowledge) and top-down (requiring world knowledge) listening should be addressed since 'listening comprehension is not either top-down or bottom up processing, but an interactive, interpretative process where listeners use both prior knowledge and linguistic knowledge in understanding messages' (Vandergrift, 2006: 3). However, we have found that primary teachers across Europe do not apply bottom-up strategies very often.

The Primary L2 teacher can make use of numerous activities to develop the learners' bottom up and top down strategies, for example:

Some examples:	
Bottom up activities	**Top down activities**
✓ Identifying words belonging to a semantic field in a song. ✓ Filling in the gaps in a script. ✓ Discriminating minimal pair sounds. ✓ Dictations (for example 'running dictations'[3]).	✓ Predicting the content of the listening activity beforehand. ✓ Putting a series of pictures in order when listening to some instructions. ✓ Drawing inferences (such as identifying the relationship among speakers in a conversation).

2. **Some basic rules to teach L2 listening comprehension to young learners.**
   Here are some basic ideas that could be useful to take into account when exposing children to spoken L2s:
   - The teacher is the first source of comprehensible input for the development of listening skills. That is why he/she should be careful to make him/herself understood, by repeating, simplifying, and using gestures, intonation and formulaic expressions that help children to figure out the intended meaning. The use of good quality audios and videos will complement the teachers' input.
   - Apart from the listening practice deriving from teachers' talk, listening should be taught systematically, in varied ways and regularly. It does not seem a sensible idea to rely on children 'picking up the language' only.
   - Although listening is a receptive skill, the students are not and should not be passive while listening; in other words, they should be engaged and work on the listening task actively. The fact that learners are active during the actual listening, rather than waiting until the end to do something, keeps the learners busy and prevents boredom. We will see some 'things that children can do' later on.
   - Listening activities must be carefully graded according to the students' age, learning style, listening capacity and phonological awareness. The teacher should be conscious of children's *familiarity* with the context, the language, the task, the voice... etc. and the *difficulty* of the task –what is expected as the output.
   - In any case, we can assist children by giving them support (for example, providing a list of words, pictures, or even a text to read while listening). This support is like a 'temporary bridge' to reach understanding (Nation and Newton, 2009: 46).
   - Particularly with young learners, it is important to embed listening into stories, games, routines, rhymes and songs. Children may not understand every word, but they can make out the meaning from the context, visuals, and gestures as in real life.
   - Listening should be focused on meaning: it should be *meaningful*.

   And to finish, please consider this:

Some tips…
…for listening to be focused on meaning:

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[3] For an explanation of a running dictation, see
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=o9l2uzjGnOQ.

> ✓ Choose topics that children are interested in, ask them what they want to listen to. You can provide them with a list of topics.
> ✓ Expose children to authentic language. It may be complex, but you can compensate with a simple task.
> ✓ Think of situations where children will use listening in real life (watch online clips, for example) and prepare them for those situations.
> ✓ In class, combine listening with other skills. This is what happens in real life (see next section).

3. Integrating listening comprehension in an integrated-skills L2 class.

We advocate here for the integration of the four language skills in the L2 classroom – listening, reading, speaking and writing; that is, whenever it is possible, teachers should practice and promote receptive and productive skills globally. These skills should not be dealt with in separate blocks nor should one be favored more than the others, as they are not treated separately in real life. Besides, the achievements in one skill influence the others'. For example, research says that gains in listening skills and understanding seem to bring benefits to children's reading comprehension (Biemiller, 2003; Sticht and James, 1984).

Concerning listening and speaking, Nation and Newton (2009: 40) distinguish between these types of listening: (1) one-way listening (normally associated with the transfer of information, for example in a lecture) and (2) two-way listening (in relation to maintaining social relations). Type 2 happens in interaction, when the individual is both a listener and a speaker at the same time. We could say that interaction is another language skill (Council of Europe, 2001). Teachers should bear in mind that 'listening in interaction' is the most common type of listening in real life, and that teaching listening should be oriented to that end. That is, speaking should be an important part of a listening lesson plan.

4. Typology of listening tasks.

Because of their limited attention span, young learners need a variety of activities. This applies to listening activities too. Here are a list of possible tasks to do with children of different ages:

4.1. When children don't speak yet.

Some activities for children who don't speak yet are:
▪ *Listen and identify*: By pointing, children can show their understanding at very early stages of L2 learning. You can use these activities for vocabulary development and for grammatical awareness too. Nearly any song about the classroom can used for pointing (for instance, have a look at this one: http://www.dreamenglish.com/classroomsong).

- *Listen and do (TPR)*: TPR[4] techniques are efficient to make learners participate and feel involved. Children are not pushed to speak and this helps reduce their resistance to produce a difficult verbal answer. Besides, memory is increased if stimulated by motor activity. Examples of TPR are: 'follow the leader', TPR applied to routines, TPR for arranging the class, miming while listening to rhymes and chants, physical break chants etc.
- *Listen and respond*: there are very useful games where children need to 'give an answer' like for instance, the popular game 'Simon says':

Did you know that…
…the game 'Simon says' requires players to listen closely to the speaker's directions, so it can help sharpen Primary school children's concentration. It is mentally engaging, and it helps to unwind at the same time. To make it more interesting, give creative instructions: 'Simon says walk on the moon', 'Simon says move like a snake'…

- *Listen and make*: in these tasks, children are involved in a creative process: listen and colour, listen and draw, listen and cut/stick, etc. An example of this is 'create you monster': the children place stickers on a worksheet with the blank shape of a creature following the instructions of the teacher.

4.2.   Listening in the following stages.

As time goes by and children mature, the proposals just presented can evolve into more complex activities. For example, 'listen and make' activities may turn into *information transfer activities*, where learners reproduce the message that they hear in a new form (i.e., they listen to instructions and complete a map).

Apart from the activities above, when children are able to speak we can easily develop their listening capacity by *making questions*. This resembles listening in real interaction. First, learners try to understand and give short answers. Personal identification, likes, possession and their own world can be the starting topic. Then, the time will come for them to complete their utterances, and to combine listening and speaking in a more sophisticated way.

Also, in relation to top down and bottom up processes, listening tasks can focus on *discriminative listening* (to identify different sounds or words) or on *comprehension listening* (to get the meaning of the text). Meaningful tasks are preferable, but discriminating may be useful too.

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[4] TPR stands for Total Physical Response. Here is an explanation of TPR:
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bkMQXFOqyQA&list=PLHSv1FSnMGxlUTDEtfFBtvQf_Vo eHGa9H.

5. **L2 listening comprehension materials.**

Listening is, as we said at the beginning, a basic activity that children do from the moment that the teacher (or other children) talk to them. Nevertheless, there are materials that can complement the teacher's input, so that listening is tackled regularly and systematically. Concerning the origin of these materials, they can be classified into:

- *Authentic materials*: videos and clips, TV shows, films and series, etc.
- *Semi-authentic materials*: such as role plays with native L2 speakers who speak at a normal speed.
- *Pedagogically graded materials*: commercially prepared audios and videos for the L2 classroom.

These are all useful materials, which can be combined to find a balance between difficulty and authenticity, to help children make progress. Out of these, we will briefly deal with (1) songs and rhymes and (2) digital stories.

5.1. The use of songs and rhymes.

Songs and rhymes are a pleasurable, enjoyable experience which helps relaxation and group dynamics and increases attentiveness and receptiveness in the L2 classroom. Playing a song in class can stir students' imaginations and develop and sharpen their listening skills. Also, music is perfect to teach prosody, the rhythm, pitch, and tone of a language. Ersöz (2007: 20) suggests that teachers should choose songs that: (1) contain simple and easily understood lyrics; (2) link with a topic or vocabulary that learners are studying in class; (3) contain repetitive lines; and (4) allow children to easily do actions (to help emphasize meaning).

A well-known way of exploiting songs and rhymes with young learners involves performing actions in line with the lyrics (such as the listen-and-point and listen-and-do activities above). Dramatising the lyrics can also contribute to make their meaning clear to the learner (i.e. you can make a Lip Sync battle). Other effective ways for exploiting songs and rhymes include reordering scrambled words or lines of the song, photographs and pictures, captions in cartoons, etc. and providing students with a gapped version of the lyrics to complete. A suggestion: it helps if these gaps go with drawings, like pictograms or icons.

Concerning popular and traditional songs, Brewster and Ellis (2002) talk about songs, rhymes and chants and divide them into two categories: (1) songs which are necessary

for the regulation of children's games and relationships, like: ball bouncing rhymes, jump rope rhymes, count/choosing rhymes and (2) songs which are 'mere expressions of exuberance', such as tongue twisters and nonsense verses. Nursery rhymes (traditional songs or poems taught to young children, originally in the nursery) are repeatedly used in the L2 classroom. Learning such poems assists in the development of vocabulary, and several examples deal with rudimentary counting skills. In addition, specific actions or dances are often associated with particular songs. Here there are examples of nursery rhymes: http://www.nursery-rhymes-fun.com/.

5.2. Digital stories.

Digital stories normally follow a simple narrative line that children need to understand gradually. The multi-sensory character of these digital materials help to create an immediate context for the vocabulary and actions presented in the narration, and improve listening comprehension. Some Internet resources that are very useful for using digital stories are:
- A paying digital library (with a free two-week trial period): https://www.raz-kids.com/.
- The section on stories in this web page by the British Council: http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/listen-and-watch.
- A web with children books read out by famous actors: http://www.storylineonline.net/.
- A webpage with many ideas to teach listening (and the other skills; you have to register, though): www.kindersite.org.

6. Planning listening tasks.

We normally approach listening tasks in three stages: *pre-listening* (to prepare the reader), *while-listening* (meant to guide the reader through the listening text), and *post-listening* (to extend ideas and information contained in the text).

6.1. The pre-listening stage.

Pre-listening activities aim at generating interest, building confidence and facilitating comprehension. Apart from that, the pre-listening stage can help teachers:
- Provide students with *knowledge input* about a given topic, for example by showing realia related to it.
- *Activate background knowledge* (by showing pictures, brainstorming or simply by asking 'what do you know about…?').
- Once they know about the topic, children will be able to *predict possible contents* in the listening. One idea is to give children a choice of contents that the listening will be about, and ask them to choose the ones they think will be mentioned. Also, give them some time to go through the while-reading task, so that they can predict some of the answers before listening.

- *Pre-teach some vocabulary and/or structures* that will come up in the listening task. This will help concentrate on the overall meaning. Take into account that a large number of unknown words or structures will hinder listening, and lower confidence.

To reach these aims, we advise teachers to propose questions for discussion. They are not used very often with young learners but their offer interesting possibilities for pre-listening and for the developing critical thinking skills.

6.2. The while-listening stage.

Typical while-listening activities are:
- Listening for gist,
- Listening for specific intonation,
- Fill-in-the-gaps activities,
- True/false questions,
- Matching,
- Multiple choice questions,
- Ordering/numbering items,
- Finding mistakes,
- Writing short responses,
- Performing a task,
- Making decisions,
- Problem-solving tasks.

Examples of these activities can be found in the songs section of this webpage:
 http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/listen-and-watch.

Watch out!
Our data shows that problem solving activities are the least used to practise while-listening. However, posing a problem is giving a powerful reason to listen, it means doing something with a concrete outcome. Please consider choosing audios and activities that make children solve problems.

6.3. The post-listening stage or 'follow up'.

Finally, the post-listening stage encourages children to use the contents and vocabulary listened to and take them 'one step further':
- From listening to speaking and interaction: role playing.
- From listening to reading and writing: making a project (and looking for information in the Internet).

Also, children can transfer the information into another format, for example by designing a poster. Summaries are also a possible task here.

TEACHER EDUCATION TASKS

TASK 1

Aim of the task: gain practice in designing a listening lesson.

Procedure or steps:

1. The Kindersite Project (www.kindersite.org) is a good-quality collection of links to games, songs and stories for young children. Please go through its web page (you will need to register) to familiarise yourself with it.
2. Choose a songs in Kindersite that is suitable for your students and design a lesson plan around it. Think of:
   - The age of your children: what type of activities are appropriate?
   - The type of song it is and the language it contains: what is it good for?
   - The different stages in your lesson:
     - ✓ Pre-listening: what background knowledge needs to be activated? What is the most appropriate activity to prepare for listening?
     - ✓ While-listening: what activity or combination of activities are suitable for understanding the song?
     - ✓ Post-listening: what activity/activities are suitable for understanding the song? What other language skills will be developed in this stage?
   - Bottom-up and top-down: in your choice of activities, is there a combination of approaches?

TASK 2

Aim of the task: exploring the possibilities of problem-solving activities.

Procedure or steps:

1. Think of situations where your students may need to solve a problem. For example, a scavenger hunt.
2. Choose a video in Youtube (www.youtube.com) about this topic that is suitable for your students. i.e. 'the impossible scavenger hunt', https://youtu.be/0eneUs4oZHg. To choose the video, please remember the tips in section 3 above.
3. Plan problem-solving activities based on that video. You can think of pre-listening, while-listening or post-listening activities.

ASSESSMENT & REFLECTION

1. Listening is…
   a) A receptive oral language skill.
   b) A productive oral language skill.
   c) A receptive written language skill.
   d) A productive written language skill.
2. Authentic listening materials…
   a) Are not advisable for young learners.
   b) Help making listening a meaningful activity.
   c) Take place when the teacher speaks to the children.
   d) Tend to be used for practising bottom-up processes.
3. What is the relationship between 'listening' and 'interaction'?
   a) Interaction begins with listening.
   b) Interaction and listening are two sides of the same coin.
   c) Interaction and listening are opposites.
   d) Listening tends to take place in interaction.
4. What stage does typically help activating schemata?
   a) The pre-reading stage.
   b) The while-reading stage.
   c) The post-reading stage.
   d) The follow up section.
5. Which is not a typical while-listening activity?
   a) Listening for specific intonation.
   b) Multiple choice questions.
   c) Ordering/numbering items.
   d) Designing a poster.

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MODULE 3 Speaking Skills & Young Learners

1. Introduction

Recent social interactionist and socio-cultural research has clearly shown that we learn foreign languages "**in**" and "**through**" interaction. This is of course the same when it comes to learning of foreign languages by young learners. However, (1) activities that foster interaction among young learners and (2) "teacher talk" that can facilitate "**interactional competence**" are not very common in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. In order to develop young learners' speaking skills, teachers need to use activities and tasks that create opportunities for interaction, as such opportunities cannot be easily found by learners outside of the classroom. This requires an understanding of **interactional competence** (as opposed to communicative competence) and such an understanding can be established by raising teachers' **awareness** on their own and their students' **language use** in classrooms. Driven by this understanding, the aim of this module is to introduce and show the ways teachers can manage successful **speaking activities** for young learners by putting "interactional competence" and "high quality teacher talk" at the heart of their pedagogical agenda.

2. Lecture

To develop learners' speaking skills and interactional competence, we need to engage students in meaningful interactions in foreign language (L2) classrooms, since learner involvement is key for language learning. Involvement here refers to active participation of students, which can only be facilitated through teachers' interactional maneuvers that encourage learner talk and engagement. This idea of facilitating learner participation in interaction from the very early stages of L2 learning in fact contravenes with the Natural Approach developed by Krashen and Terrell (1983) (see the module on approaches to learning), yet it forms the very bases of a contemporary understanding in language teaching: we learn in and through interaction.

Research on classroom interaction has shown that L2 classroom language has unique features (Seedhouse 2004). Seedhouse's studies show us that what he calls "meaning and fluency context" includes communication between learners and teachers that is meaningful, and such interactional contexts facilitate learning opportunities. This is also valid for young learners' classrooms.

The idea of 'the younger the better' has dominated pedagogical agendas in EFL globally. However, according to Linse (2005), contrary to popular myth, younger children learning English "do not develop English language skills more readily than older learners" (p. 49).

Nevertheless, a clear advantage of young learners is their tendency to acquire target language pronunciation in a considerably successful way (Munro et al., 1996). Although pronunciation skill is an integral part of learning a foreign language, it should be kept in mind that the primary aim of learning a language is to be able to communicate in the target language. Therefore, foreign language teachers should prioritise "interactional competence" over other competencies.

Interactional competence	Communicative competence
Emphasises the ways in which interactants co-construct meanings and jointly establish understanding.	The focus is on individual differences in competence and the fact that one of the aims of learning a language is to move to the next level of competence.
Includes both interactional and linguistic resources, but places more emphasis on the way the interaction is guided and managed through turns-at-talk, overlaps, acknowledgement tokens, pauses, repair and so on.	Emphasises the knowledge and skills needed to use language in specific contexts as opposed to knowledge of language as an idealised system.
Is highly context specific: the interactional competence required in one context will not always transfer to another. Different interactional resources will be needed in different contexts	Context is everything: what we say is dependent on who we are talking to, where we are, why we are talking, what we have to say and when this takes place (c.f. Hymes, 1972).
Largely rejects individual performance in favour of collaborative enterprise.	Emphasises individual performance and recognises that this can and will change.
Less concerned with accuracy and fluency and more concerned with communication; this means that speakers must pay close attention to each others' contributions and help and support where necessary.	Accuracy, fluency and appropriacy lie at the heart of communicative competence and are also the measures used to evaluate it.
Places equal emphasis on attending to the speaker as producing one's own contribution; listening plays as much a part in interactional competence as speaking.	Focuses more on individual speech production than on the listener and acknowledgement of what has been said.

Interactional Competence vs. Communicative Competence (Walsh, 2011, p. 165)

Classroom interactional competence (CIC) can be defined as "teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning" (Walsh 2011, p. 158). Based on the idea that "maximising learner involvement is conducive to foreign language learning", teachers need to keep in mind that they need to encourage student participation in all classroom activities, while adjusting their language use according to the requirements of that activity. An important feature of CIC is that a teacher's use of language should be parallel to the pedagogic goal of the moment.

For instance, if the pedagogical goal is to elicit newly learnt vocabulary items from students, the teacher of young learners may rather use an object or visual and keep silent while eliciting; whereas if these young learners have a higher level of proficiency, in a conversational activity, she may need to use open-ended questions (rather than yes/no questions) and respond with elaboration questions (e.g. Can you give us an example?).

The use of language, which is in line with the type of activity and students' level, together with other aspects of CIC, help learners to be engaged in interaction and it thus facilitates learning opportunities. It is, however, not very easy to engage young learners in conversations at beginner levels, before they get to know basic conversational mechanisms like question-answer exchanges.

2.1. Teachers' language use in 'young learners' classrooms

One of the early stage activities that can be used with young learners to introduce such patters is chain work, which can be done through a fun activity like a 'ball game'. Question-answer chain drills give young learners the opportunity to practice simple interactional patterns in line with the pedagogical goals of the teacher. In extract 1 below (Sert 2012), a teacher candidate at a Turkish university uses a 'ball throwing game' to teach question-answer exchanges about dresses. Prior to this interaction, the trainee teacher introduces different words using audio-visuals and the students have previously covered colours and other required vocabulary. The primary pedagogical aim of this activity is to simply practice question forms using question-answer adjacency pairs. One of the main advantages of such an activity is that many students find opportunities to practice spoken language by not only using statements, but also question forms. In this way, the activity becomes more meaningful, also considering the fact that the students are using their own clothes to answer the questions.

Extract 1: Ball game (adopted from Sert 2012)

01 T: now it's time to play a game (.) i have a ball (.) and I am giving it to you (.)

02   you will throw the ball to one of your friends (.) and ask her or him

03   'what are you wearing?' (.) and your friend will give you the answer,

04   'i'm wearing a black skirt' for example (.) belma can you start?

05   (3.0)

06 B: what are you wearing Mine.

07 M: i'm wea- wearing blue skirt.

08   (5.0) ((Throws the ball to U))

09 M: what are you wearing?

10   (2.0)

11 U: i'm wearing a black skirt.

12   (1.2)

13 T: a black skirt? ((checks the colour)) yes good ((students laugh)) can you throw it?

14   (1.1)

15 U: what are you wearing naz?

16   (1.0)

17 N: I'm wearing a blue t shirt.

18 T: Okay, well done.

From lines 1 to 5, the teacher gives the instructions of the activity that will be carried out. An important feature of her instruction is that she uses a number of **pauses between her utterances** so that the learners will be able to understand the procedures of the activity. Secondly, she **models the language** (beginning of line 3 and line 4) that will be used by the students to make sure that the students will use appropriate question-answer forms. Modelling the language this way is a crucial step while giving the instructions to young learners at the beginning of any kind of activity. She also **demonstrates** the throwing action through her **use of hand gestures** so that the students have a better understanding of the activity sequence. At the end of line 4, she gives the turn to Berna and the chain activity starts after three seconds of silence. In lines 6 and 7, B and M successfully **exchange information** using the modelled question-answer by the teacher. In line 9, M initiates the turn to U, by using the question form. In line 11, U gives the required response and the activity proceeds smoothly in the following lines.

It should be noted that in line 18, the teacher acknowledges the student contributions and praises the student (well done). Young learners need to receive positive feedback after successful language use, and it is a well-known fact that this may have a positive effect on their motivation. Another important thing in this activity sequence is that there are shorter gaps between the turns as the activity moves forward. This indicates that the students are getting used to the flow of interaction and it becomes more rapid and fluent. In addition to this, although there were problems with question intonation and grammar (the use of indefinite article) at the beginning, the students started to be more accurate while forming the question-answer chains. In such activities, remember to:

Remember to…

✓ check your pace while giving the instructions!

✓ use an object like a ball that will help to run the turn-taking mechanism smoothly!

✓ give students the opportunity to allocate turns!

✓ model the question answer exchange before the activity starts!

✓ constantly monitor student utterances and spot potential problems

✓ avoid correcting each minor mistake at the beginning!

- however, act on immediately if other students fail to produce correct forms

Speaking skills of course do not always start with question-answer exchanges. Young learners are generally exposed to spoken language gradually, starting from the sound level and moving to the sentence/utterance level. First they need to be able to confidently produce sounds in a foreign language in order not to loose their motivation for speaking. In order to exemplify different features of teacher and student speech at this level, we can have a look at the example below. It is clear that speaking first starts by uttering **individual words and sounds**, and for very young learners, the teachers may first introduce vocabulary and encourage students to say and **repeat words**. This is the very first step in developing speaking skills. Yet, we should not simply introduce the target language items through texts and repetitions. We need to give students **rich prompts** by making use of **colourful materials**. In the extract below, the teacher introduces shapes by putting colourful pictures on the board as prompts, for instance.

Extract 2: Rectangle (adapted from Sert 2012)

01 T: this is my friend, rectangle. (0.7)

02 Ss: °rectangle°.

03 T: RECtangle. (0.3)

04 Ss: rectangle.

05 T: rectangle has, one (0.9) two (0.6) three (0.7) four sides= ((shows the sides on the material))

06 S1: =like a square.

07 T: like a square but is it a square? (0.9)

08 Ss: hmm

09 T: it's a rectangle (1.1) it has (.) two short sides (.) and two lo:::ng sides (1.1) lo:ng. (0.6)

10 T: can you make a rectangle?

11 Ss: yes.

12 T: short one (0.5) lo::ng (0.6)short (0.7) long again. ((showing the sides on the picture))

((the students all draw the sides on the air like the teacher))

13   yes:.

14 T: what is it? ((holds the picture up))

15 Ss: it's a rectangle.

In line 1, the teacher introduces the new word (rectangle) and this is immediately followed by a **chorus repetition** by the learners. This helps the teacher to **monitor** problems in pronunciation and she uses this opportunity to help students to produce **correct utterances by putting emphasis** in line 3 (at the beginning of the word). When young learners are first introduced new language items, they need this kind of correction from the teachers at phonological level.

Another teacher skill that can be observed here is that she **keeps her pace down**, utters each individual word **slowly**, and leaves considerably **long silences** between utterances. This makes the spoken language more intelligible for learners and guarantees clarity. In line 5, the teacher also uses **deictic gestures (i.e. pointing)**, and imitates the shape of rectangle, which is also repeated by the students. In line 6, we see an example of **student initiation** that elaborates on the teacher turns, which is a desirable goal since it shows that there is student participation even in a mechanical exchange like this one. In line 7, the teacher acknowledges the student contribution and expands her sequence with a further question.

Meanwhile, as can be seen in the first figure, she matches the two materials on the board, therefore **making meaning clear for the learners**. This is again followed by **hand** and arm **gestures** through which the sound form (stretching the 'o' sound in 'long') matches with the meaning of the word. The extract finishes with further non-verbal displays, teacher question and student repetition of the whole sentence in chorus. Students were successfully encouraged to produce the target items both in **sound** form, and then in **word** and **full sentence** form. Beyond that, although the extract starts with just repetition at the beginning, we see **question-answer pairs** after the students are confident enough to use the new items in a question answer exchange (lines 10-11 and lines 14-15).

> **Remember to…**
>
> ✓ start with a good modelling of the spoken language!
>
> ✓ keep your pace down!
>
> ✓ leave pauses between utterances/items when possible!
>
> ✓ start from the sound (line 3), move to the word,
>
> - then to an utterance (e.g line 9),
>
> - and finally to a question-answer pair (e.g. lines 14 and 15)
>
> ✓ use deictic and iconic gestures! (as seen in the figures)
>
> ✓ elaborate on student utterances if possible! (line 7)

2.2 Materials and activities for speaking

Role plays can be very effective in helping young learners to produce meaningful language. In role play activities, students (in pairs or in groups) can be given roles on a piece of paper and can be asked to create a dialogue based on the roles and the situation.

Story completion is also a good activity for young learners, since many stories are international and they already have background knowledge. The students can be asked to perform a dialogue, which provides an alternative ending to a well known story.

Getting to know each other is also a common activity type. Young learners like moving around the class freely, and this can be used by the teachers as an opportunity for communication. The students can be given a handout with a set of questions including those that will help them to get to know their classmates better (e.g. what is your favorite computer game?). The students then will be asked to go around the class and fill in the answers provided by their friends. Such an activity will help them practice adjacency pairs and also will help the class to become a community (Hellermann 2008).

Songs are invaluable resources for young learners, as they provide input for both pronunciation and vocabulary. Besides, with the repetitive target language forms in the songs, the students become more familiar with the language content. They are also found to be fun and motivating, especially if they include actions that students can perform. An example for such a song that also requires the students to move is "Head, shoulders, knees and toes", which can be found at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WX8HmogNyCY

There are numerous activity types for young learners. We need to make sure that we use a wide range of **visual and audio visual materials** (see task 2 below), the selected **topics** are **interesting** for the students, and there are enough **opportunities for language production**, whatever the proficiency level is.

3. Tasks for Training

TASK 1. RAISING AWARENESS ON INTERACTIONAL COMPETENCE

1. Record one of your classes in which you are focusing on students' speaking skills

2. Transcribe two very short extracts. One of the extract should reflect a part (maximum 1 minute) of the lesson when you think you are limiting student participation, and the other extract should reflect a moment where you think you are engaging students.

3. Analyse each extract based on the questions you ask, the interactional space you provide, and the ways you handle student turns. In particular focus on what you actually do after each student turn and discuss whether you facilitate student participation.

4. With a colleague, exchange recordings and comment on each other's interactional competence

5. Write a very short paragraph describing the ways the problems you noticed could be overcome

TASK 2: Conversational chain activity

Using the two videos below, come up with two conversational chain activities for young learners: one on introductions and one on descriptions.

Note that the teacher can use a ball to trigger participation from more students. The teacher can first show the video of the dialogues, or the pictures here, and then ask the students to repeat in chain, as we have exemplified in section 2.

- No, her door was white.
- No.
- And it had flowers on it.
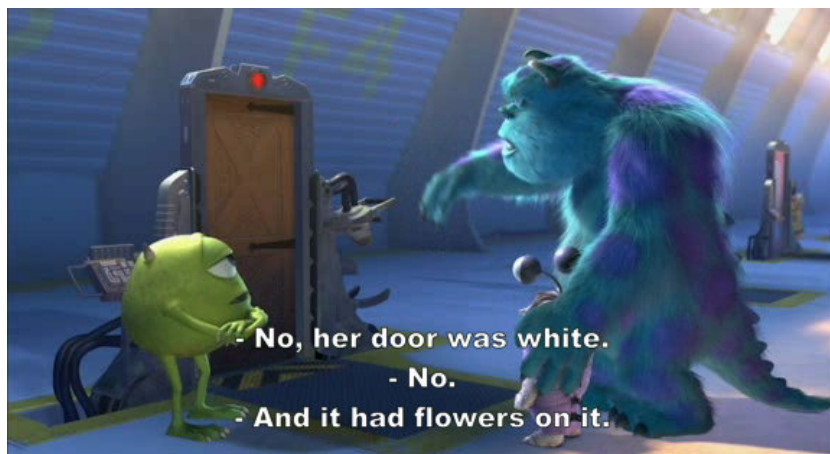
4. Assessment

1. *Discussion Question:*

Examine the different classroom excerpts given below. Based on the pedagogical goal (focus on form vs. focus on meaning)established by the teacher in the first turn, discuss the handling of errors to reveal whether they are appropriate or not.

Excerpt A: Embedded correction	**Excerpt B: Explicit negative assessment and immediate correction**
T: What did you do during the weekend Arda? S: I goed to cinema with my father. T: Oh you <u>went</u> to <u>the </u>cinema with your father? S: Yes. We watched The Monsters Inc.	T: okay. repeat after me Sezgi. I should (ʃʊd) see a doctor. S: I ʃʊ<u>l</u>d see a doctor. * T: No. Be careful. I <u>ʃʊd</u> see a doctor. S: I should (ʃʊd) see a doctor. T: Well done Sezgi.
Excerpt C: No correction with acknowledgement **tokens**	**Excerpt D: Explicit negative assessment and immediate correction** T: Who wants to share his feelings on the cartoon?

S: I thinked Super Man is best.*	Yes Burak.
T: Uh huh.	S: I finded it too funny*.
S: But Spiderman weren't good like him.*	T: <u>Found.</u> you must say found. it is an irregular verb.
T: Yeah I agree. I like Super Man better too.	S: I found it too* funny.
	T: <u>Very</u> funny!

2. Which of the following items is **not** a feature of "interactional Competence"?

a) emphasizes the ways in which speakers and listeners jointly co-construct meaning.

b) emphasizes individual performance

c) less concerned with accuracy and more concerned with communication

d) listening plays as much a part as speaking

3. Which of the following items is not a feature of a conversational chain activity?

a) students should also be given to allocate the turns to each other

b) the question answer exchange should be modeled by the teacher before the activity starts

c) giving clear instructions

d) teacher provides the correct answer immediately after a long silence or a mistake all the time

MODULE 4 Teaching Reading

1. **Introduction.**

   The ability to read effectively is fundamental in our society. We read for pleasure and enjoyment when reading a novel, to follow guidelines when reading a recipe, to get basic information when reading the instructions of a gadget. We read long fragments –such as texts in Wikipedia– and short ones –such as instant text messages. Teaching reading in a second language (L2) for these different purposes is a demanding task. Besides, reading with very young children often requires a different approach to teaching reading skills to older learners, who may be cognitively closer to us. These learners may not yet be able to read well in their own language so dealing with a different language may bring up extra difficulties. Another relevant issue is concentration: young learners have much shorter attention spans than older ones. And as they get older, not all children like reading (as they like speaking, for instance!), which is an additional complication.

   In this chapter we will explain how our brain processes the information to fit it within the cognitive structures of the individual reader and will provide teachers with some useful tools and activities to teach L2 reading to young learners.

2. **Lecture**

   What is reading? Cognitive mechanisms underlying L2 reading comprehension.

   Reading is *one of the four basic skills* needed to gain competence in mastering a second language. It is a *written receptive ability* which activates a chain of cognitive processes in making sense of the text.

   Many attempts have been made to explain how we read. They generally agree on the following: during the L2 reading comprehension task, readers are engaged in *bottom up* and *top down* processes. Bottom up processes are based upon the assumption that the reader, in order to build up the meaning of the text, starts from *decoding* the most specific levels of the language before grasping the most general ones. That is, the reader first recognises individual letters which, when articulated together, make up words; these in turn make up phrases, then clauses, sentences, texts… Top down processes are based upon the assumption that the reader does not need to decode every single word in the text to figure out the general meaning. The process starts from the higher levels of processing (*inferring, hypothesising, contrasting*…) and proceeds to apply the lower levels selectively. In this approach, *background knowledge* plays a key role since the reader combines the new information from the text with what he/she already knows.

   The best readers in any language are those who use *interactive reading*, which integrates elements of both bottom-up and top-down processes. The Primary L2 teacher can make

use of numerous activities to develop the learners' bottom-up and top-down strategies, for example:

Some examples:	
Bottom up activities	**Top down activities**
✓ Identifying written words by letter combinations. ✓ Reordering scrambled words and matching. ✓ Recognising word-order patterns in a text.	✓ Deducing from context. ✓ Drawing inferences.

3. Teaching reading comprehension in an integrated-skills L2 class.

The order in which skills are dealt with in the classroom is still a controversial matter. In any case, we advocate here for *the integration of the four skills in the L2 classroom*, that is, we should practice and promote receptive (reading and listening) and productive (writing and speaking) skills globally and whenever possible. Actually, this is what happens in real life: speaking and listening usually come together in interaction. Also, it is very frequent to comment on something that we are reading to someone next to us. In order for classroom discourse to resemble real communication, skills should be integrated in class too. In other words, they cannot be dealt with in separate blocks; none should be favoured over the others either.

A typical class with a focus on reading could begin with the teacher and the students interacting orally over the topic of the text; the text may be read in silence and then read out by the teacher –and then there is listening; some reading tasks may be undertaken in pairs –and that would require the children to speak; concerning the integration of reading and writing, take into account that these two skills are closely related in two ways:

a) Reading is a source of input and model for written language. In class, before we write, we usually have to read the instructions of the task.

b) Feedback between reading and writing is constant: we must read what we have written to improve the text.

Finally, please take into account that when introducing L2 reading and writing, we should know well about our students' first language written skills, to ensure that we do not interfere with the learning process of their own language. Only when reading and writing have been acquired in L1 can we begin these tasks in L2.

Did you know that…
…there seems to be a relationship between nursery rhymes and early literacy skills? Children's experiences, awareness, and knowledge of nursery rhymes are positively related to accomplishment in early phonological and print-related abilities, and introducing nursery rhymes in early childhood can be good for later development of literacy skills (Dunst *et al.*, 2011).

4. Beginning to read.

There are two main approaches to teaching L2 reading to young learners:

4.1. *Phonics instruction.*

To start reading, children need to learn how to recognise sounds and letters. Phonics instruction is a bottom-up approach to L2 reading that teaches children the way the letter sounds, not only the name of the letter. This approach is particularly useful with languages like English, whose spelling is complicated. First children are taught to read letters or groups of letters by saying the sound(s) they represent. So, they are taught that the letter 'l' sounds like /l/ when we say it. The process goes more or less as follows: (1) children are first taught a small group of sounds (like /m/, /a/ and /t/); (2) then they blend the sounds to read words made up of those sounds, e.g. /mat/; (3) and then they are taught more sounds and learn to blend those too. The order in which the sounds are taught will vary depending on the scheme used; in any case, they won't come in alphabetical order. Speedy recognition of the sound for each letter is really important too, so that children can blend them quickly to read longer words.

Some activities to help children connect sounds and letters are:

- *Memory games*: such as pelmanism (finding matching couples).
- *Initial letter games*: children recognise and collect cards with the first letters of different words ('what letter does "apple" begin with?').
- *Feel the letter*: children close their eyes and touch cut out sandpaper letters on a card ('find the "k" for kangaroo').

Finally, since much of the learning necessary for successful phonics is individual, the computer-based learning environment is a particularly good resource for L2 teachers. See for example these phonic programs for English as a Second language (ESL) that provide teacher instruction as well as online learning support:

- *Reading rockets*: http://www.readingrockets.org/teachers/firstyear/fyt_program/modules/phonics/phonics-practice
- *Starfall*: http://www.starfall.com/

4.2.   The 'look and say' or 'whole' approach.

The 'look and say' approach is a top down approach to reading which relies on showing children cards with separate words written on them ('flashcards'), and reading the words out loud three times a day for five consecutive days.

Teachers often use 'look and say' as part of vocabulary teaching. This way, when children learn to say a new word they learn to read it too. Of course, the new words are learnt in context, for example when the teacher reads out a story from a book. This can also be

done with phrases. Children use the same recognition skills when they are remembering a word or a short phrase.

The 'look and say' approach is suitable for all children, no matter how young. In fact, with this method, the younger children are, the faster they can learn. In contrast to phonics, with 'look and say' the burden of responsibility for providing the child with enough experience of seeing and hearing words rests with the teacher. With this method, by the time children are given their first books, they can go straight on to reading with understanding.

Some tips:

✓ You can help children with whole word recognition by using printed material as much as you can in your classroom. For ex. word cards can be used for labelling objects around (and you may change places of cards from time to time for children to spot. This way, children have to be attentive to the cards).

✓ Please try to find a balance between both bottom-up and top-down processes. Many times, little or no attention is given to the explicit instruction of bottom-up reading. Indeed, we have seen that phonics tends to be used less than word-recognition activities across Europe.

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5. Reading independently.

5.1. Which texts to choose?

As any experienced teacher knows, selecting the right texts for reading in L2 is key for a successful reading lesson. As a general rule, texts should:

- Be adapted to the learners' cognitive development.
- Cover a wide variety of topics.
- Enhance students' motivation.
- Reflect situations where learners can activate their previous background knowledge and enrich their interpretation.
- Introduce cultural references of the target language.

Have a look…

…at the texts here:

✓ A comprehensive list of online illustrated children's stories: http://www.magickeys.com/books/

✓ A web with links to interactive stories: http://resources.woodlands-

At early stages of language acquisition, *stories* are one of the most valuable reading resources to contextualise and introduce new language, making it meaningful and memorable (Wasik & Bond, 2001; Wright, 2000). There are plenty of examples of good practices with stories. Here is a webpage full of ideas of books to choose and free resources to strengthen reading skills: http://www.startwithabook.org, like for example the instructions to make an ABC nature book after reading about nature.

5.2.   Reading aloud or reading in silence?

The student's performance in the reading class can be realised in two different ways: either *reading aloud* or *reading silently*. Reading aloud is useful in the first years of Primary, to check bottom-up processing skills or simply pronunciation. Unfortunately, it tends to be boring for children, not very authentic and not very interactive (Brown, 2001). Silent reading is more natural in daily life. However, here is some food for thought: we have registered that, in their lessons with young learners, teachers claim to use reading aloud more than reading in silence.

Have a look…
…at this video on strategies for teaching reading: ✓ https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_MS-5k-yj2w

5.3.   Scanning and skimming. Intensive and extensive reading.

Reading is carried out in different ways, depending on what we what to 'do with the text'. For example, we *scan* the text when we are most concerned with the search of specific information within it. Typical scanning activities may include**:** looking for names, relevant dates, numbers in a directory, times on a timetable, etc.

Skimming, on the other hand, is what we do to get a global impression of the content of a text –the gist of the text. Techniques used for skimming are reading bold letter, italics, capital letters, repeated ideas or conclusions. Skimming is essential for everyday life and develops students' self-confidence since they obtain a lot of information without doing much reading.

On the other hand, *intensive reading* usually involves focusing on linguistic and content accuracy. It has to do with drawing our attention to the different aspects of the lexical, syntactic and discourse systems with the objective of gaining a full understanding of the

literal meaning presented in the written passage. Texts used for intensive reading are usually short and they are studied in depth. *Extensive reading* is oriented towards grasping a general understanding of the text for the purpose of enjoyment or learning. This activity is frequently carried out in silence. Texts used for extensive reading are usually long texts such as books or articles; reading them takes extended periods of time. Teaching extensive reading implies encouraging a reading habit and reading for pleasure. Unfortunately, we have seen that teachers do not promote this as much as extensive reading.

5.4.   How can we encourage young learners to read extensively?

Simensen (1987) classifies texts for extensive reading into three categories: *authentic* (not specifically written for language learning), *pedagogic* (texts specially written for language learning) and *adapted or graded* (texts adapted for language learning from authentic material). We believe that these categories are all useful in an L2 class.

Some ideas…
…to keep track of students' readings:
✓ Keep a class reading diary and ask your students to do the same (remember that you are a model).
✓ Set up a book board in the reading corner where students note down what they read and how they liked it. Also post book recommendations.
✓ Make a project involving designing posters, book covers or any kind of artwork about books that children liked a lot.
✓ Every number of weeks you can have a special lesson where students share reading experiences and prepare short presentations about books (and their film adaptations, for example).
✓ Ask children to write fun book recommendations about the books they have read. Draw attention to the style of blurbs, but let them write freely.

6. Planning reading tasks.

Reading tasks are usually classified in three groups: tasks to do *before reading*, tasks *during reading* (to guide the reader through the text), and tasks *after reading* (to extend ideas and information contained in the text). As we said before, other language skills (speaking, writing…) are integrated in these stages.

6.1.   The pre-reading stage.

Overall, pre-reading helps students activate their horizon of expectation (background knowledge, syntactic and semantic resources, cognitive strategies), take charge of their own learning, and become willing to tolerate ambiguity. The following are examples of student centered activities which may help teachers introduce and identify the topic of reading and activate previous knowledge:

Some tasks:	
Pre-reading stage	**Age range suggested**
✓ Identify the topic of the text with some pre-questions and/or with the help of visual aids.	7 onwards
✓ Explore key vocabulary that will come up in the text.	7 onwards 9 onwards
✓ Anticipate and predict possible information through brainstorming or true-false activities. ✓ Check previous assumptions with group discussions.	11 onwards

6.2.   The while-reading stage.

The following are activities which guide the reader through the text:
▪   General comprehension questions,
▪   True/false activities,
▪   Give-the-right-order activities,
▪   Fill-in-the-blank activities,
▪   Multiple choice activities,
▪   Problem solving activities,
▪   Information transfer activities (i.e. maps, diagrams, drawings, tables, etc.).

Watch out!
Our data shows that problem solving activities are the least used to practise while-reading. However, posing a problem is giving a powerful reason to read, it means doing something with a concrete outcome. Please consider choosing texts and activities that make children solve problems.

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│                                                 │
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Some examples of these activities can be found here:
https://www.uam.es/docencia/ocw/cursos/alonsoingles/material_de_clase.html.

6.3.   The post-reading stage or 'follow up'.

The tasks after reading should attempt to elicit responses from the text and promote the students' own interpretations connecting the recently acquired knowledge with previous knowledge. Examples of possible post-reading activities are: summaries and other types of writing tasks, discussions, role-plays and other oral interaction activities…

Tasks for Teacher Education

TASK 1

Aim of the task: to analyse top-down and bottom-up processes.

Procedure or steps:
1. Look at the following activities and classify them into top-down or bottom-up activities.

   A. The text that you are going to read is about a superhero. Who do you think will be and what will he or she do? Make up your prediction from the proposals in the table:

A teenager		turn invisible		saves an old lady
A child		travel in time		finds some stolen jewels
A firewoman	Who can	read minds	and	prevents a murder
A scientist		fly		stops an alien invasion
A journalist		climb up the walls		puts out a big fire

   B. Here you have a list of words from the text with their two possible meanings. Choose the meaning that this word has in the text:

   Can: (1) a verb as in 'I can swim'.   (2) the container of a drink.
   Mouse: (1) an animal.   (2) a part of the computer.
   Ball: (1) a round object to play football.   (2) an event where people dance.
   Club: (1) a stick made of wood to play golf. (2) a place where people meet.
   Pupil: (1) a student.   (2) a part of the eye.

TASK 2

Aim of the task: to select suitable texts for the development reading comprehension.

Procedure or steps:

1. Go back to the criteria for the selection of texts in section 5.1. and make up a list with criteria that is useful for your specific teaching context. Here is a list of questions based on that list, to help you:

> ✓ Is the text adapted to my class' cognitive development? What age are my students? What are their strengths and weaknesses? What special cases do I have?
>
> ✓ Does the text cover a variety of topics? Are they connected to what my students are doing in other areas?
>
> ✓ Does the text enhance students' motivation? Are the topics interesting? Is it something new?
>
> ✓ Can my students activate their previous background knowledge and enrich their interpretation? Is the text connected to something we have recently done?
>
> ✓ Does the text introduce cultural references of the target language? What communities of the target language are represented? Can I connect that with my students' culture?

2. Go through the webpages in the box in section 5.1. and choose a list of 10 texts that may be suitable for your class.
3. Apply the list of criteria in (1) and, out of the 10 texts, select 3 which are the most suitable.

Assessment & Reflection

1. Which activity is related to bottom-up processing of a text?
    a) Decoding.
    b) Inferring.
    c) Hypothesising.
    d) Contrasting.

2. What is a good practice when teaching reading?
    a) Approaching the text through top-down processes.
    b) Integrating reading with the other skills.
    c) Teaching reading in L1 and L2 at the same time.
    d) Focusing mainly on intensive reading.

3. What is *not* a characteristic of 'phonics'?
    a) Individual letters are taught in relation to the way they sound.
    b) Speedy sound recognition is important.
    c) To teach the sounds, teachers follow the alphabetical order.
    d) Much of the learning necessary for successful phonics is individual.

4. What term or expression is related to 'searching for specific information in a text'?
    a) Look-and-say approach.
    b) Scanning.
    c) Skimming.
    d) Extensive reading.

5. When are summaries and other writing tasks typically carried out?
    a) Before reading.
    b) During reading.
    c) After reading.
    d) At any time.

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MODULE 5: Writing

7.1. Introduction

Primary foreign language programs foster writing with young learners because writing reinforces the association between the sound and the word, gives the language relevance and meaning, creates the possibility of real communication exchanges with young learners in the new language (Martin, 2008: 51). Therefore, it is important that that writing process is made meaningful and cognitively engaging and that young learners experiment with the writing of simple words and language structures. Writing with young language learners should be personal, situational and contextualized (e.g. dialogues, stories, e-mails) and relate to real-life situations. Older learners (10 – 12 years of age) become more aware of writing for an audience and for a specific context, so they start producing written texts for others to read.

> *Writing with young language learners should be communicative, personal, situational and contextualized and relate to real-life situations (e.g. dialogues, stories, e-mails).*

7.2. Lecture

Supportive writing classroom

Guided writing at word/sentence level can be supported through the use of pre-writing activities. Clearly defined *goals* for the writing assignments, planning and organizing ideas, good written *models* that young learners are expected to produce, give young foreign language learners' support in producing written work.

In the module the following pre-writing activities, which introduce the key words to the topic and help organize writing, are presented:

    a. Using visual images
    b. Brainstorming
    c. Mind mapping
    d. Lists
    e. Outlines
    f. Graphic organizers
    g. Story maps

Pre-writing activities

Visual images provide support in (simple) writing activities where teachers show young learners illustrations, pictures, photos, and ask them to comment, discuss and write about what they see. It often happens that teachers ask young learners to "write" and they have no idea where to begin. Teachers can give young learners a visual prompt (e.g. photo, a work of art, illustrations, pictures, charts) to get them started and to guide them in terms of content so that they stay focused on the topic. Visual images that show a lot of things happening at the same time are great for this activity. Young learners can choose or even create a small story that revolves around the whole scene.

Brainstorming generates a number of **different ideas around the topic, elicits prior knowledge, and inspires creativity in young learners.** There is no editing or ordering of these ideas. They provide the basis for another activity in writing or speaking.

The use of **mind maps, graphic organizers, listing and outlines** introduce young learners to a way of organizing and planning their written work which they may find helpful in creating written assignments. They are particularly useful for planning texts such as descriptions, which do not develop in a linear or chronological way.

Story maps are used for teaching young foreign language learners to work with story structure for better understanding of a story. Story maps are visual representations to help young learners to organize important elements of the story. They learn to summarize the main ideas, characters, setting, and plot of an assigned reading.

For more information about using mind maps, graphic organizers, listing and outlines or story maps please see the following website or find your own:

http://www.studygs.net/writing/prewriting.htm

http://www.graphic.org/goindex.html

http://www.enchantedlearning.com/graphicorganizers/

http://web.archive.org/web/20080113144112/http://www.brigantine.atlnet.org/writesite/prewriting.htm

http://web.archive.org/web/20060427230854/http://www.sdcoe.k12.ca.us/SCORE/actbank/torganiz.htm

General writing modes

There are different forms or modes of writing. General writing modes or purposes for writing are:

1. **Narration (narrative writing)** – is used to tell a story (real or imagined). Young learners enjoy hearing and telling stories. It presents a series of events in order to inform or entertain the audience and usually include the plot, characters and dialogues (who, what, when, where, why). Narratives usually progress chronologically – a clear beginning, middle and end. Narrative writing can involve the **descriptive** mode (when describing the setting and characters) as well as the **expository** mode (when stating background or other information directly to the reader). It can also introduce feelings, emotions, thoughts and ideas, (in an imaginative way). Examples of narrative writing: short stories, novels, personal narratives, creative narratives, anecdotes, and biographies.

2. **Description (descriptive writing)** – imagine that you are painting a picture with words (using vivid imagery and specific detail). Using words you not only "paint" what you see, but also what you feel, hear, smell and taste, you tell what a person, place, thing, or event is like. The writer portrays it so vividly and emotionally that reader can picture it in her/his mind. In usually contains an introduction, body and conclusion. Examples of descriptive writing: reports, poetry, personal experiences, character sketches, advertising, and photograph captions.

3. **Exposition (expository writing)** – it explains or informs and presents (objective) facts, problems to the audience, such as background or research findings, and usually give a solution (summarize ideas, explain a process, give instructions). It is often used by journalists or in science. It compares/contrasts two things, people, places, events.
   Examples of expository writing: reports, encyclopedia entries, instruction manuals, informative essays, and research papers.

4. **Persuasion (persuasive writing)** – it seeks to convince the reader of a particular position or opinion to agree with the writer's argument or interpretation. It is an advanced, academic writing, we do not practice it with young learners. It often incorporates **expository, descriptive**, and occasionally ***narrative*** modes as well. Examples of persuasive writing: literary essays, debates, research papers, editorials, advertisements, and book, music or movie reviews.

Writing Modes	Examples for classes
Narration (narrative writing)	short stories, novels, personal narratives, creative narratives, anecdotes, and biographies
Description (descriptive writing)	reports, poetry, personal experiences, character sketches, advertising, and photograph captions
Exposition (expository writing)	reports, encyclopedia entries, instruction manuals, informative essays, and research papers
Persuasion (persuasive writing)	literary essays, debates, research papers, editorials,

	advertisements, and book, music or movie reviews

Shared writing

The concept of **shared writing** implies that a teacher writes *with* the children. The teacher and young learners interact and work together in order to model writing strategies: to draft, edit, and write contributions in a collaborative way.

Shared writing is a technique where young learners have a permanent record in their notebooks of a written text that they can refer to as a model and guide them in their own writing. It provides an invaluable scaffold or support in developing young learner's skills and confidence as autonomous writers.

Such a shared writing enables teachers to model cognitive strategies and process which young learners will be able to internalize and make use of it in their own independent writing.

Shared writing: a teacher develops a text together with YLs to provide a written model.

Post-writing activities / Revising

They help young learners to improve their work. After completing the draft young learners need to check and edit their texts.

Effective writing practices include revising or editing the text for mistakes in grammar, punctuation, and spelling. Revising can include adding, deleting, rearranging and substituting words, sentences, and even paragraphs in order to improve their writing over time so that their writing is effective. Teach revision/proofreading (e.g. young learners read their text and revise or change it if necessary, and check the flow of ideas, grammar, spelling, and punctuation; then peers or teachers respond with constructive comments to their writing and give specific suggestions, then the students respond to these comments) and discuss with young learners about their problems they see in their writing. When they learn the rules during the writing process they are much more likely to remember to use them in the future.

Teaching young learners to revise and edit each assignment will help them to grow as writers and gain confidence in their writing skills.

Post-writing: YLs check and edit the written text.

7.2.1. Recommendations for a supporting writing classroom

Recommendations for a supporting writing classroom

Recommendations presented below foster effective writing practices:

- teach strategies for planning, organizing, revising, and editing the written products,
- set specific goals for the writing assignments that young learners are to complete,
- provide good models of the type of writing they are expected to produce,
- analyze the models with your learners, encouraging them to imitate in their own critical and effective writing, as provided in the models,
- involve pre-writing activities that help them to produce and organize their ideas,
- involve shared writing and write with the children,
- provide post-writing activities to consolidate and practice the language young learners used while writing,
- allow students to work together to plan, write, edit, and revise their writing.

7.2.2. Tips for the curious teacher

Effective writing infers to coherent thinking, including pre-writing, during-writing and post-writing activities. It helps students to complete the writing task efficiently, and fosters the process of writing and revising.

Source: https://coerll.utexas.edu/methods/modules/writing/02/sets.php
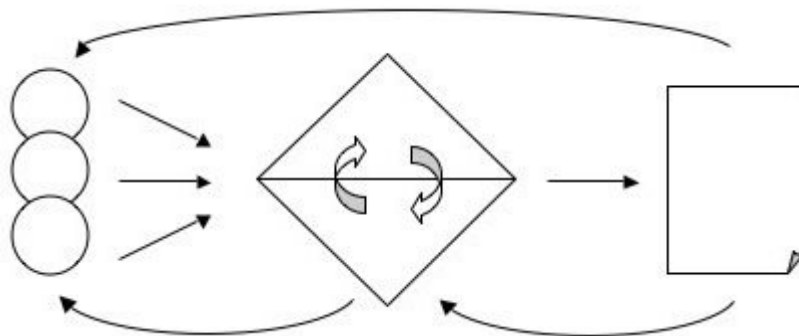
Pre-writing activities	During-writing activities	Post-writing activities
It activates, collects, builds, or reviews sub-skills for the final (text) writing.	It encourages writing (developing, creating and conclusions) and self-editing, sometimes peer review.	It fosters reflection (from teachers, peers), final revision (proofreading) and sharing of the text.

TEACHING WRITING

TASK 1

Think of pre-writing activities you use with your young learners to help them to develop their writing on a word, on a sentence and/or on a text level. Choose one and think about to what extent they help developing young learners' writing skills in the classes.

TASK 2

Think of examples which help to develop young learner's writing on a word, on a sentence and/or on a text level. Use at least one of the following pre-writing drafts: visual images, brainstorming, mind mapping, lists, outlines, graphic organizers, story maps.

TASK 3

Collect several books and workbooks for teaching English to young learners that you and your colleagues use in your country.

Find some examples of using visual images, brainstorming, mind mapping, lists, outlines, graphic organizers, story maps to support developing writing with young learners.

Study them and reflect on:

How do they support young learners' foreign language writing?

TASK 4

1. Watch the video clip and observe the steps the teacher is using with the children.
2. Analyse the steps. Reflect on how and why the teacher uses them in the way she does.
3. Think of your own topic and follow the steps to develop your own shared writing activity in your class.
4. Record your shared writing lesson.
5. Watch your video clip and analyse it.

Assessment

Multiple Choice Questions for Theory

1. What does "shared writing" imply?
a. The teacher and young learners write a text in a collaborative way to design a model writing.
b. Young learners write a text individually.
c. Young learners interact and write a text in groups.
d. The teacher develops a model text for young learners to copy.

2. What do "pre-writing activities" include?
a. **Illustrations, pictures, photos to comment and write about what they see.**
b. Descriptions in a chronological way.
c. A summary of the main ideas, characters and plots.
d. Goals for the writing assignments, planning and organizing ideas, good written models.

3. Which are the examples of "narrative writing"?
a. Reports, poetry, personal experiences, character sketches, advertising, and photograph captions.
b. encyclopedia entries, instruction manuals, informative essays, and research papers.
c. Stories, novels, personal and creative records, anecdotes, biographies.
d. Literary essays, debates, research papers, editorials, advertisements, and book, music or movie reviews.

4. What do "post-writing activities" include?
a. Revision or editing the text for mistakes in grammar, punctuation, and spelling by young learners.
b. Proofreading by the teacher.
c. Text checking by parents.
d. Editing by parents and young learners.

5. Which of the following activities foster effective writing practices?
a. Involving shared writing.
b. Teaching strategies for planning, organizing, writing, revising, and editing the written products.
c. Including mind maps, graphic organizers, listing and outlines.
d. Fostering descriptive writing.

PRACTICE: A task/practice with 5 multiple choice items assessing the practice

Task: Read and write the kittens' names.
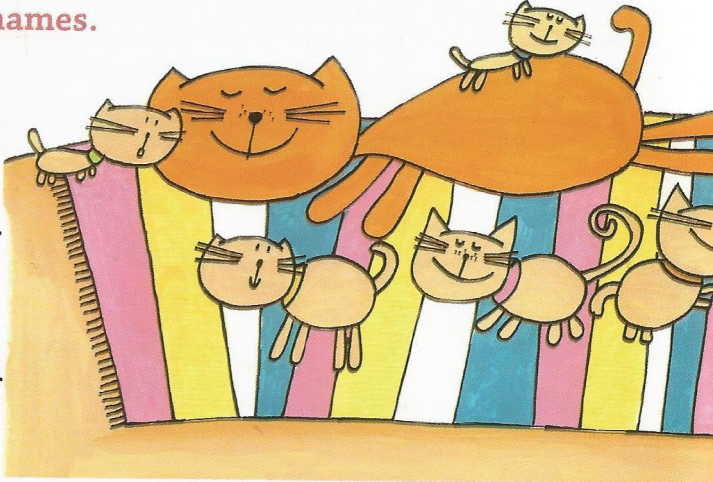
General aim of the task: Young learners are asked to read the text and complete the grid using the data from the text.

Example text

Lucy's Kittens

Read and write the kittens' names.
Preberi in zapiši imena muck.

Lucy's cat Fluffy has got five cute little kittens. Kitten N° 1 has got short legs, small ears and opened eyes. It's name is Dotty. Two kittens have got thin bodies. They are N° 1 and N° 5. Lizzy, N° 4 has got short legs and big ears. Her tail is short. Three kittens have got fat bodies. Tiger N° 3 is lazy. He sleeps all day long. He's proud of his long tail. Kizzy isn't like Spot. She's very small and sleepy. She's N° 5. Spot's legs are very long. What's his number? Can you tell them apart? Fluffy can!

Name	Number	Body	Ears	Eyes	Tail	Legs	M/F
Dotty	1	small	small	opened	short	short	girl
Spot							
Kizzy							
Lizzy							
Tiger							

Source: Jesenik, N., Šavli, V. (2005). *My Sails 3*, Student's book. Maribor: Založba Obzorja, p. 92.

1. Which of the following examples help to develop young learner's pre-writing related to this task?
a. Teaching new words by indicating what they are in the picture
b. Mind-mapping, graphic organizers, visual images
c. Story maps
d. Writing a dialogue

2. The use of reading grids can provide the basis for written texts. What activity could be useful to introduce the vocabulary in this text?
a. Asking questions for each piece of information in the text, e.g. name, body parts
b. Dictation
c. Guessing lexical items by reading the text
d. Translation

3. Which writing technique would you use to provide a model grid/text to young learners to support their writing?
a. Dictation
b. A creative writing activity

c. Writing a story

d. Shared writing

4. What task could follow this text to develop young learner's own writing?
a. Writing a letter of complaint to each kitten.
b. Describe your favorite pet and write a similar puzzle/text for your friend.
c. Write a dialogue between dogs.
d. Write a poem about different animals.

5. How would you encourage your young writers in revising or editing their texts?
a. By correcting their texts with a red pen
b. By not providing opportunities for self-correction
c. By introducing examples how to add, delete, rearrange and substitute words, sentences, or paragraphs
d. By writing or telling the young learner what to do – leaving nothing up to the young learner's choice

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MODULE 6 Vocabulary

1.1. Introduction

The research literature on teaching vocabulary has clearly demonstrated the essential role of vocabulary knowledge in order to communicate, read, or write adequately. Children with greater vocabulary knowledge find listening and reading easier, and participate more in writing and speaking activities (Nation, 1990; Pinter, 2006). Vocabulary size is interrelated with the general language level of learners and recent research by Meara and Milton has linked vocabulary size to the Common European Framework of Language levels (as shown in Table 1). Moreover they have developed tests that calculate how much vocabulary is needed to take milestone exams such as state school-leaving exams and TOEFL and IELTS (Meara and Buxton, 1987; Meara and Milton, 2003; Orosz, 2009, 182).

X-Level	CEFR
A1	<1500
A2	1500-2005
B1	2750-3250
B2	3250-3750
C1	3750-4500
C2	4500-5000

Table 1 Vocabulary size and the CEFR

X-Lex	UCLES	IELTS
< 2000	Starters movers and flayers	2
2000-2740	KET	3
2750-3240	PET	4
3250-3240	FCE	5
3750-4240	CAE	6
4250-4490	CPE	7
4500-4780	CPE	8
4750 +	Diploma	9

Table 2 Vocabulary size and exam levels

Yet, as demonstrated by numerous scholars, young learners' vocabulary learning is deeply connected to the evolution and development of memory (recall and recognition forms of memory), analytic and phonetic abilities (Alexiou, 2009). Hence, the training of learning abilities connected to learning vocabulary areas can greatly aid other areas of language learning.

Language aptitude is in flux in the early stages of life. Very young learners respond to, memorize oral words and store the phonetic representations of these words holistically and take in information from interaction with what they see, hear, and touch. Thus, a key factor in developing new vocabulary is to expose very young students to plenty of language input in order to provide examples of what words mean, how they are pronounced, etc. and the acquisition of new vocabulary may be affected by the type of input teachers provide in their use and selection of course books, word lists, teacher talk, and the learnability of new words (length, cognateness). On the other hand, teaching, recycling and the regular use of familiar vocabulary during classes may support vocabulary retention. For example, Laufer (2003) demonstrated that if a word is practiced in a productive word-focused task, its meaning has a better chance to be remembered than if the word is encountered in a text even when these words are presented several times. Memorization needs to be aided by appropriate tasks and recycling activities since numerous studies have found that "getting students to read or listen is not sufficient for vocabulary learning in the EFL classroom" (Laufer, 1998). As Alexiou notes, "good memory is not a good way of handling very large amounts of information. It must be organized; hence the growing importance of analytic skills" (2009, 57).

Teaching a new lexical item is not easy as it entails teaching pronunciation, spelling, morphology, function, collocation, register, connotation and how meaning changes in different contexts (Nation, 2001, 55; Woodward, 2001, 78). In the following lecture, some suggestions will be made on how to teach vocabulary in ways that take into consideration recent research on young learners.

1.2. Lecture

 1.2.1. Teaching vocabulary in a nutshell

In teaching vocabulary to young learners it is important to make a distinction between some really important frequent and therefore useful words, and words that they will need only for a specific text or task. As Paul Nation argued in 1986, the words which are used most frequently are also necessary to develop structure. Thus, he created the famous "Little English" vocabulary list based on extensive experience with low-level English language learners. In creating the list he also listed eight principles which influenced the inclusion of items.

Principle of language needs	Words are included in the basic word list with a view to helping learners express as many ideas as possible, and to express the feelings and demands they want to make.
Principle of frequency	Words which occur frequently in the language are included in the list, while less frequent words are excluded; range - words which occur in many different types of written English are preferred over words which appear in only a limited range of sources.
Principle of economy	Words whose meaning can be explained in simple paraphrases are excluded from the base list, as are words which have simpler synonyms.
Principle of regularity	Words with regular morphology are preferred to words with marked irregularities, and words which appear in simple syntactic frames are preferred to words with more complex syntactic patterns.
Principle of defining power	Words which are particularly useful for defining other words are included in the base list.
Principle of classroom and teaching needs	Words which are particularly frequent in classroom situations are included in the base list.
Principle of including loan words	The base list includes a large number of words which are commonly loaned into other languages.

Table 3 Paul Nation's "Little English" principles.

Numerous resources can aid teachers in the selection of lexical items. Today it is possible to check and analyze the frequency and functions of an item in authentic texts by surveying a corpus or by checking dictionary word lists and learner dictionaries whose creation is based on frequency (Calabrese 2004a; 2004 b). See for example the Oxford Learners Dictionaries, which include lists of topics, pictures of lexical items, and an "Add to my wordlist" application to create a personalized word list (http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/mywordlist/) and the Oxford Text Checker which will check the vocabulary in any text against one of three wordlists (the Oxford 3000™ - list of the most useful and important words to learn in English; the top 2,000 keywords taken from the Oxford 3000™; the Academic Word List - a list of words that you are likely to meet if you study at an English-speaking university).

In the case of young learners research on vocabulary acquisition in both L1 and L2 has also shown that "the middle of a general to specific hierarchy is particularly significant for children" (Cameron 2001: 79). Lexical items for basic level concepts tend to be learnt before words which are higher or lower in the hierarchy. For example, the basic level word cat will be learnt before the superordinate 'animal' and the subordinate 'siamese'. Moreover, word length and pronunciation may influence learnability. It has also been found that students are

more receptive to cognates and false friends and have greater difficulties when learning items whose sounds are alien to the phonological system.

Young children tend to learn the meaning and function of new language holistically and indirectly (Ellis, 1994; Pinter, 2006). Yet as age progresses, students will be able to learn abstract and remote words and topics. Since analytic skills increase with age, students will be able to reflect on and analyze morphology, the function of words and meaning relationships such as synonyms, hyponyms, etc. Appropriate and manageable tasks can be designed to increase analytic skills (see Fig. 1). Yet these should be introduced gradually and through tasks that involve the student in meaningful and interactive communication. Since, a very important aspect is that learners should be able to use their own resources when performing a task (Ellis, 2003, 14-16) there should always be a balance between recycling and introducing new vocabulary. Visual aids such as pictures, videos, drawings and *realia* may be used to describe, present and practice new vocabulary. They may also be used together with writing to recall, memorize, understand and interpret written items. For instance, the picture in fig. 1 aids memorization by playing on imagination and curiosity, and can also be used to play charades. In this case, young learners will not know nor remember all the words, but will be introduced to a basic principle of word-formation.
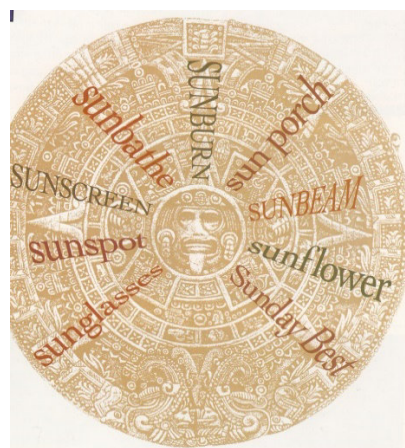
Fig. 1: Susan Milord, *Tales of the Shimmering Sky*, 1996.

Moreover, research in the last thirty years has increasingly focused on the importance of multiword units (Sinclair, 1991) in vocabulary learning. Learners corpus research (Granger, 1998) has found that lexicons operate not through words but in restricted combinations and as a consequence grammatical structures are conditioned by lexicon. Fluency is arguably influenced by being able to put words together quickly. This ability is greatly enhanced by knowing that some words have a tendency to keep company with each other. Thus, fluent speakers are helped by the possibility of employing typical phrases called chunks (ex. How are you?) and collocations (ex. "a quick meal" not "a fast meal"). For example, verb-noun collocations such as "lend money" may be perceived as arbitrary rather than meaningful by a learner and therefore collocations often remain a serious problem well into advanced learning due to rule based teaching. That is to say, since L1 speakers process language in

prefabricated sequences and learners rely on grammars and lexicons, learning isolated words may leave learners 'sounding odd'. Hence it is essential to present, practice and produce vocabulary in "meaningful contexts and typical lexical combinations" (Pinter, 2006, 84). For instance, the word 'season' in its basic sense is greatly outnumbered in frequency by its use in phrases such as 'football season', the 'rainy season', the 'tourist season', but learners cannot access its meanings unless they are provided with examples of its uses in context (Halliday and Yallop, 2007).

> Words and meanings cannot be stored in memory as an inventory and students must be provided with numerous examples of words in use and numerous occasions to use them.

Furthermore, it is advisable to start by teaching concrete rather than abstract words through *realia* or picture cards, which may be brought to school by the teachers or by students. Picture dictionaries such as Longman's Picture Dictionary also include activities and digitalised versions which can be used as ebooks or use on interactive white boards (http://www.childrenspicturedictionary.com/LCPD_eBook.html).

Some semantic categories have been found to be especially frequent in children language samples and thus are often viewed as "learnable" and easier to memorize (Szpotowicz 197). Following this proposition, coursebooks and dictionaries are often organized around situations, which are of interest to young children, as for instance "at the zoo", or topics, such "my birthday party", which create a binding force for the teacher's choice of vocabulary, roles, tasks, materials, etc. (see Picture 1).

Fig. 2 *Picture Dictionary* (Longman)

Situations and topics may also be exploited to create further tasks, which are negotiated with students so that they are relevant and stimulate their imagination and curiosity. Students can create their own notebooks with vocabulary they have learnt and keep it for their reference throughout the year. Alternatively, the teacher may want to assign some project work on a specific topic. For example, the teacher may ask students to create a small book on their favourite animals and so on. Course books and dictionaries employ topics and situations because it has been found that linking words in networks of meaning aids memorization. In this light, some course books have recently moved towards the creation of units which are linked by a story (see for instance Fig.3 and 4).
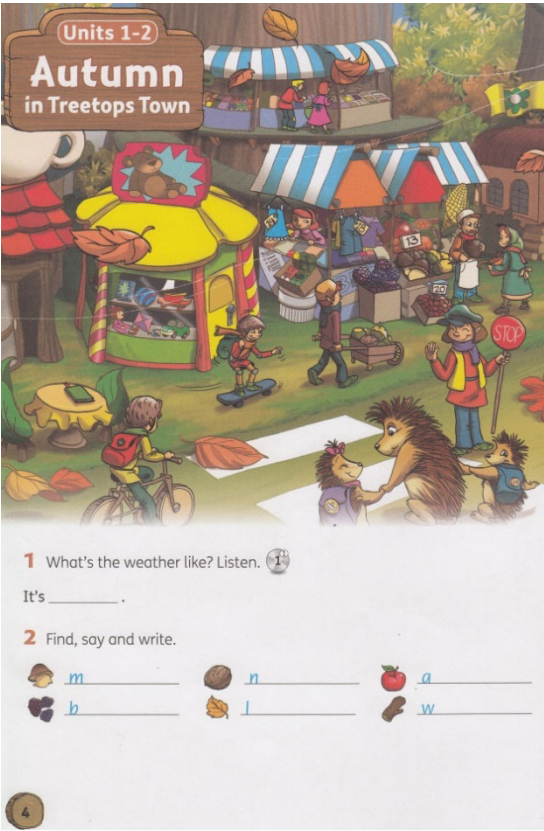
Fig. 3: Oxford's *New Treetops.*

Fig 4: *WOW! Magazine*.

Storytelling is an excellent vehicle to teach vocabulary in a holistic way. Lexical items are learnt in the context of relevant grammatical structures, and since many stories use repetition memorization is aided. It is advisable to use story and tales which have pictures to maximize the students' potential in decoding meaning from contextual clues. Books with pictures and multimodal texts can also be used to ask young students to recount stories without reading. Today animated stories can serve as a similar mnemonic device, providing a framework for storing the message that is delivered verbally and provide genuine pronunciation and intonation patterns (Yildirim and Pinar Torun 2014). The selected stories should be interesting and amusing, and should provide natural repetition to aid memorization. The same purpose may be provided by drama as it is connected to are their imaginary worlds, where they can act out a role and engage in 'pretend' activities. When memorising new items through drama, learners are involved in the learning process intellectually and emotionally.

Another useful element for implicit learning of sequences of language is the use of sound and rhythm through rhymes, songs, short poems, and chants. The British Council website provides numerous animated songs and lesson plans that include songs (http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/using-songs). It is important to make sure that the meaning is understood and this may be aided by the use of rhyme picture books as for example Michael Foreman's *Playtime Rhymes*. Also, children learn through active participation, imitating physical actions and singing.

Following the proposition that vocabulary should be presented in authentic textual environments, it becomes clear that tasks should involve real-world processes of language use, with a clearly defined communicative outcome. As mentioned in the introduction, young learners in a variety of contexts have been found to acquire words through meaningful and purposeful language rather than focusing on the language itself. Meaningful communication and socially interactive learning may be operationalized by presenting topics that have an immediate interest to the learners and building tasks that allow for indirect acquisition. A great opportunity to motivate and interest students is provided by Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) where a subject is taught through the medium of English (Bentley, 2010). In fact, vocabulary learning is most effective when students feel they 'need' a lexical item to communicate or achieve a communicative goal. Accordingly, task based activities may be more helpful than pre-teaching long lists of words.

Young learners are curious and risk-taking, hence they are motivated by tasks that provide the opportunity to discover, use their imagination, and solve communication puzzles. They can also guess meaning from other words and visual aids that provide information on unfamiliar words. In other words, young learners tend not be analytical but make use of a

> Games are very useful since children often can hold their attention longer when they are involved in a game they enjoy. They also like discovering things through puzzle-like activities.

variety of contextual clues to interpret new language including body language, intonation, facial expression, gesture, actions, circumstances. A characteristic of young learners is fast mapping i.e. they can learn a new word with very little exposure to the word (Clark, 1993). Hence, activities such as word maps, spidergrams, guessing and recounting may be used to elicit, recycle and introduce new words, while pre-teaching words through lists may overload students' short term memory and they may not remember the meanings when they read or listen to them (Ur, 2012, 31). It is essential to make use of non-verbal clues to benefit from their ability to acquire new language implicitly.

Brewster *et. al* (2002) have also highlighted that young learners have short attention spans and need physical movement in the classroom due to their high levels of energy. Thus, explicit presentation of vocabulary needs to be varied and interesting, and must be complemented by activity-based instruction (Pinter, 2006, 84-85).

Young learners are very good at guessing what new lexical items mean through non-verbal messages such as gestures, body movements, intonation, facial expressions.

Task based learning continues to evolve as new information technology tools continue to transform students' learning experiences by heightening their motivation and sense of autonomy and in turn, their vocabulary development. To capture this synergy, teachers will need to reimagine authentic learning and task design. Tasks which have been traditionally used in the classroom to increase motivation in learning vocabulary today may be implemented in fully multimedia format enriched with texts, pictures, videos, sound and animation that offer a high degree of interaction with the text and the possibility of enjoyable assessment through self-correcting (see technology module in SBATEYL).

TRAINING

Task 1:

Consider the following lexical items from the *Animal homes* topic from the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/topic/animal_homes).

aquarium aviary barn battery farm burrow cage coop den dolphinarium drey factory farm farm fish_farm goldfish_bowl hive hutch kennel lair lodge nest oceanarium pasture pen rookery roost safari park sett stall web zoo

1)Check which words in Oxford 3000 display the frequency key symbol .

2) Insert the words in The Oxford Text Checker and check the level of the word list according to frequency.
In a typical low intermediate text, close to 100% of the words will be Oxford 3000 keywords.
In a typical high intermediate text, 90-95% of the words will be Oxford 3000 keywords.
In a typical advanced text, 75-90% of the words will be Oxford 3000 keywords.
3) Identify which words follow Paul Nation's principles by inserting them in the grid below:

Principle of language needs	
Principle of frequency	
Principle of economy	
Principle of regularity	
Principle of defining power	
Principle of classroom and teaching needs	
Principle of including loan words	

4) Identify which words are most likely to be remembered by young learners according to learnability principles.

Task 2:

Consider the following activity and answer the following questions:

1) How does the activity help young learners to recognize new vocabulary?

2) How could the teacher balance the introduction of the new vocabulary?

3) How does the activity appeal to preferences in children's semantic categories?

4) What words do you expect your learners to acquire and be able to retrieve during the next lesson? On what basis?

5) How does the activity help learners to make strong memory connections?

New Vocabulary and CLIL

Global Warming Consequences:

Listen and label the pictures with the following lexical items:

Storms – Floods – Plant growth changing – Droughts – Animal Extinction – Ice melting

_____   _____   _____

_____   _____   _____
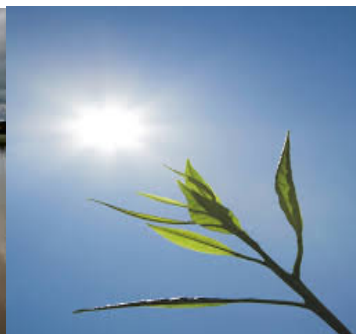
MODULE 7

Teaching Grammar and Correcting Errors

7. 1. Introduction

It is often believed that grammar has no place in young learner classrooms and grammar errors should not be corrected as this may discourage learners from using the language freely. This may be true for students aged 6-9 whom we name as very young learners. For this age group, it is more appropriate to teach words and chunks without analyzing the language not to confuse the students. However, starting from age 9, children are cognitively ready to recognize patterns and grammar rules and they should be encouraged to notice the forms in the input we provide (e.g. reading and listening texts) and during natural language use and interaction. As Cameron (2001) states grammar "has a place in children's learning because it is closely tied into meaning and use of language, and is inter-connected with vocabulary" (p. 96). Recent research also confirms that when children attend to forms besides meaning, they learn the grammar rules more efficiently and remember them for a longer time when compared to children who go through a pure meaning-based instruction. Research also suggests that when errors are left untreated, this leads to fossilization of errors by time; therefore, students get stuck at lower language levels and cannot go beyond a certain level of language proficiency (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Skehan, 1996; Swain, 2005).

For that reason, the question we face is not whether or not grammar should be included in young learner classes, but how we can integrate grammar into language classes in the most child-friendly and the most effective way. Instead of the problematic approaches in many EFL/ESL contexts, such as the traditional, direct and isolated practices of grammar teaching (focus-on-formS) or pure meaning-based approaches completely excluding grammar (focus-on-meaning), we need to employ contemporary approaches to grammar teaching blending form and meaning in a balanced manner (focus-on-form). For that reason, the aim of this module is to introduce some child-friendly, enjoyable, and scientifically supported methods of grammar teaching and error correction in young learner classrooms.

7. 2. Lecture

7.2.1. Theoretical principles behind teaching grammar

Historically, there have been three main approaches to grammar teaching in language classrooms. These are the traditional **focus-on-formS**, which puts grammar at the center and teaches it in isolation, **focus-on-meaning**, which reacts against focus-on-formS and refuses all kinds of grammar teaching, and the recent **focus-on-form**, which is a middle way between these two approaches (Long, 1991; 2000). Focus-on-form is defined as "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic forms" (Ellis, 2001, pp. 1-2). Among these approaches, focus-on-form has been supported by many research studies as the most effective method to teach grammar to learners, including young learners at primary level (e.g. Ellis, 2002a; Ellis, N; 2005; Harley, 1998; Norris & Ortega, 2000, 2001; Song & Suh, 2008; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; White et al, 1991). According to Ellis (2015), because learners have limited capacity to process both meaning and form at the same time in their brain and prefer to focus on meaning rather than form, teachers should draw students' attention to form during a communicative activity as a short 'time out' periods from meaning to form. Only this way, we will achieve full acquisition of the new grammar form and overcome persistent errors (p. 5).

You can see a comparison of the three approaches in the following table:

Table 1. Comparison of the three major grammar teaching approaches

	Focus-on-formS	**Focus-on-form**	**Focus-on-meaning**
Theoretical Grounds	• Based on the Behaviorist and Cognitive Theories of language learning. • Used in The Grammar Translation, Audio lingual, Direct and Functional Methods.	• Based on the Noticing Hypothesis, Output Hypothesis, and Social Constructivist Theories of language learning. • Used in the weaker versions of Communicative Approach & Social-Interactive Approaches.	• Based on the Input & Acquisition Hypotheses and Cognitive Theories of language learning. • Used in the Natural Approach and the strong versions of Communicative Approach.

Philosophy & Rationale	• Explicit grammar knowledge can be automatized and turn into implicit procedural grammar knowledge that is necessary to use the language with enough practice over time (De Keyser, 1998).	• Noticing is necessary for understanding the grammar rules in context because without conscious awareness raising, students cannot recognize the rules by themselves. • Conscious grammar knowledge leads to a more accurate use of the language and this knowledge is not forgotten easily.	• L2 acquisition is a natural and subconscious process that can only occur with natural exposure to adequate amount of comprehensible language input. • Conscious explicit teaching of forms and error correction are harmful because they interfere with the natural acquisition process.
Classroom Practice	• Deductive teaching of grammar. • Language is divided into isolated linguistic units and taught sequentially from easy to difficult. • First, grammar structure is explained directly and explicitly, often in isolation. Then, it is practiced through controlled exercises or drills and used in the classroom through teacher-led activities. • Errors are immediately corrected.	• Inductive. • Grammar teaching is done through taking attention of learners to structures in natural context. • Grammar teaching is also done through error correction during meaningful interactive tasks. • Student output (speaking and writing) is often free and unpredictable.	• No grammar teaching. • Children are expected to acquire the grammar rules naturally by time. • No forcing of children to speak or write at the early stages. • No error correction. • Texts are usually authentic and used as they would be in real life. • Student output (speaking and writing) is usually controlled and predictable.
Advantages	• Time saving. • Some rules can be explained in a fast way. • Comparison with	• Rule discovery would encourage autonomy and self-regulation. • Greater cognitive depth.	• Tasks often simulate real-life situations. • Students are exposed to a flood of natural language

	L1 is possible.	• Motivating, more interesting and challenging. • Learners are not passive receipients but active learners. • Activates pattern recognizing and problem solving skills.	input.
Disadvantages	• Boring and demotivating for young learners. • Language is divided in artificial little pieces. • Grammar terminology or metalanguage does not make sense. • Teacher-centered • Abstract, so easily forgotten. • Limited exposure to real language and real like communication opportunities. • Accuracy (correct use of language) is the priority.	• Inductive approach (discovery learning), so it is time consuming. • It is difficult for teachers, more planning and systematic lesson design is necessary. • Learners may learn rules wrongly as it is often implicit and not as clear as explicitly told rules. • Real spoken interaction is encouraged so students' output may not always be predictable.	• Students produce accurate language to some degree. • Leads to fossilization at lower levels of language proficiency so students cannot achieve high levels of language proficiency. • Unrealistic and hard to achieve in EFL contexts where exposure to language input is limited. • Students' errors are not corrected. • Fluency (to use language with ease and smoothly) is the priority.

While including grammar instruction in young learner classrooms, age of students should be considered as a key factor. For very young learners (pre-school), due to their level of cognitive development, grammar should only be presented in the natural language context as "chunks" without much attention to form. The children should be introduced the forms through the natural language such as songs, chants, stories, mini-dialogues, and other forms of spoken or written interaction. However, as children

grow (starting from 9), they should be encouraged to focus on grammar structures in a meaningful language context and notice grammatical patterns.

In addition, some grammar patterns need special treatment; thus, teachers should not assume these forms will be naturally acquired by students. For example, complex grammatical forms, the forms that are in contrast with students' first language, the forms that are infrequent and insignificant in input and the forms that are irregular cannot be acquired naturally through exposure; therefore, they need special attention. These forms can even be explained in simple mini-grammar lessons if students have recurring difficulties in using them accurately.

7.2.2. A Step by step guide for application of Planned Focus-on-form Grammar Teaching

1. **Planning**: Determine the target grammar structure to be learned and practiced beforehand and prepare the necessary materials, reading and listening texts to introduce the form, and possible interactive activities to practice the form.

2. **Presentation**: Introduce the target structure in a meaningful context for students to recognize not only the grammar rule but also its functions (Nunan, 2011). This can be done by role-play or simulation techniques and/or through a listening or reading text to familiarize the students with the new form and help them elicit the grammar rule and its functions (Celce-Murcia & Hilles, 1988; Nassaji & Fotos, 2007).

   a. Presentation via role-play or simulations: Let's take there is/there are with plural and singular forms of the words as an example. Here the teacher can show certain objects in the class and ask what they are. For example, the teacher shows the black board, asks the students what it is, receives the answer, and then says " There is a blackboard in our class." Similarly, the teacher asks the students about the desks, and asks what they are. After students respond, the teachers says "there are desks in our class." Then, asks "What else are there in our class? The students start to say sentences, and the teacher repeats the sentences using there is/there are structure, emphasizing the target structure while pronuncing with extra stress and raising her/his voice. Here, the aim is to make student recognize the form, its function and the differences between the singular and plural use of there is/there are.

b. Presentation through listening or reading context: This can be done by *input enhancement* techniques, such as highlighting, circling underlining, **bolding,** coloring the important grammar features in texts. For example, while teaching "there is and there are with plural forms," is/are and the plural suffix should be somehow marked to take the attention of learners to it. Also while reading the text, the teacher should pronunce these features by giving extra stress and raising her voice and by using her/his body language to take the attention of learners to the target grammar forms. After that teachers can prepare while-lesson focused activities, such as asking students to fill in the blanks which include the target form or asking students to match the correct form with some visuals to further help students notice the structures. Encourage more noticing by repeating and recycling the new structure (Shin & Crandall, 2014). Please see the following dialogue to present the structure through reading:

A: There **is** a girl in the garden. She is playing with sand.

B: Oh, yes. She is Sue. She is my friend.

A: There **are** three boy**s** in the garden, too.

B: Who are they?

A: I don't know, but they are playing with a ball. Look! There **is** a ball next to Sue.

B: There **are** also two bicycle**s** and six marble**s** over there.

3. Practice of Forms: The students are first asked to practice the structure in guided communicative activities to further focus on form and notice it either through writing or speaking to scaffold students. Here the focus should be on both meaning and form in a balanced manner. This activity may include fill in the blanks exercises, answering questions, completing sentences starting with there is or there are according to some pictures the teacher provides, such as in the following examples:

There is a racket on the shelf.

There are pencils on the floor.

There..... a .... on the drawer.

There .....a .....near the drawer.

There .... on the table

Students can also be asked to find the differences in two pictures by speaking in pairs. This is also both a meaningful and focused activity. Each student is given a different version of the same picture (see the picture below). Each student asks questions to each other and the other one answers according to his/her picture by using there is /there are structure. Then, they mark the differences they find in their own piece of picture and compare them later.

However, after these guided communicative activities, students should also be encouraged to interact with each other freely in real like situations. In such activities, the language produced is often unpredictable; therefore, the focus should not be on only one particular grammar structure. For example, the teacher can give a task in which students are asked to describe their bedroom to a friend (either by speaking or writing) and the other will draw a picture based on the description. In this task, the focus will not be on the target grammar; therefore, students can use any necessary structures and expressions freely including but not limited to there is/there are.

E.g. I have got two book cases and a desk in my room. There is a lamp on my desk. The lamp is blue and white.......

4. Correcting errors:

Correcting errors during meaningful communicative activity is another way of focusing on forms. However, teachers should make sure they are correcting student errors, not mistakes. There is an important difference between a mistake and error. **Mistakes** are usually accidental and happens during a particular language production process, such as slip of tongue while talking thus should be ignored. However, **errors** take place as a result of lack of

grammar knowledge thus should be corrected. If a mistake recurs in the same pattern over and over, the teacher can conclude that it is an error that should be treated.

If the focus of the lesson is totally communication and fluency as in interactive practices, teachers can chose to treat errors after the classroom activities by taking notes during the class on common errors produced by students not to interrupt the flow of the course. At the end of the class, the teacher can also present a mini-grammar lesson on the common and systematic errors (Nassaji, 1999; Gordon, 2006).

Teachers can also chose to treat errors during the classroom interaction in a conversational and natural way similar to real communication situations in which people react to each other by asking confirmation, clarification or repetition to negotiate form and meaning (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013). According to Ellis (2015), feedback is most effectively utilized by learners when it is provided under natural contexts in which learners are trying to actually perform the skill" (p. 4). Therefore, this is also an effective way of treating errors and another way of focusing on form during real interaction. Here, the main aim is not to eliminate the errors completely, but to help students focus-on-form and notice the grammatical forms during meaningful language production through error correction.

There are 6 types of error correction methods used by teachers during an interactional activity (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). These are recast, repetition, elicitation, clarification request, explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback. Among these, recasts were found to be the most commonly used error correction method in young learner classroom; however, it was found to be the least effective one among the six correction types (e.g. Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 2001; 2004) because recasts were generally very ambiguous; thus, young learners often fail to perceive recasts as indicators of their errors. Metalinguistic feedback is also not appropriate for young learners as it uses metalanguage about grammar rules such as "noun clauses", "The simple present tense."

1. **Recast**: Saying the right form of the error. Recasts do not have much influence on the treatment of errors, but may be preferred in activities in which only fluency and communication is aimed.

The fox is **sing** a song.

The fox is **singing** a song.

2. **Repetition**: Repetition of the error to help students notice and correct it themselves.

The fox is **sing** a song.

The fox is **sing** a song???

👍**Elicitation:** By asking questions encouraging students to find the right answer themselves

The fox is
doing what???

The fox is sing a song.

3. 👍**Clarification request**:

What do you
mean? How do

we say that?

The fox is sing a song.

4. 👍 **Explicit correction**:

No, the fox is singing a song.

The fox is sing a song.

5. 👎 **Metalinguistic feedback**:

How do we say

that in Present

The fox is sing a song.

1) Do not use metalanguage (e.g. passive voice, noun clause...)
2) Use visuals
3) Use examples
4) Introduce the structures in context
5) Take attention to forms by bolding, highlighting, underlying, coloring...
6) Do not give abstract rules in isolation, make them concrete
7) Help learners understand the functions of grammar rules in context
8) Use games, songs, stories, dialogues, rhymes while introducing grammar rules
9) Recycle the grammar structures
10) Help students practice the structures through real interaction
11) Use guessing activities, elicitation and inductive teaching
12) Take developmental stages in language acquisition in consideration
13) Encourage experimenting
14) Create an anxiety free classroom environment
15) Ignore mistakes
16) Identify recurring errors
17) Be kind to errors, but correct them when necessary

7.3. Tasks for EDUCATING TEACHERS

Task 1. Focusing-on-form through Listening

Aims of the task: Presenting the form in a meaningful listening text for young learners

Role of the teacher: Think of some effective presentation techniques for students to recognize the form "The present continuous tense" in the following listening text.

Procedure or steps: How would you present the grammar structure "The present continuous tense" to your student in the following song? Explain clearly the stages of your presentation, what would you do to enable your students to **notice** the grammar pattern while listening, activities you would need, and what students are exactly expected to do.

SONG

Are you eating? Are you eating?

Yes, I am. Yes, I am.

I am eating. I am eating.

Jam and bread. Jam and bread.

Rice and soup. Rice and soup.

Cookie and milk. Cookie and milk.

(http://www.agendaweb.org/songs/english-songs-for-kids.html)

Task 2. Focusing-on-form through reading

Aims of the task: Presenting the form in a meaningful reading context for young learners

Role of the teacher: Think of some effective presentation techniques for students to recognize the "Simple Present Tense" in the following dialogue.

Procedure or steps: How would you introduce the grammar structure The Simple Present Tense" to your students? Explain clearly the stages of your presentation, what would you do to enable your students to **notice** the grammar pattern, materials and activities you would need, and what students are exactly expected to do.

Dear Mary,

How are you? I am writing this postcard from France. France is a wonderful country. The food is delicious here. Everyday, I eat croissaint and pastries at breakfast. I also walk around the city and take pictures. I see Eifel tower from our hotel room. People sit in cafes for hours and love shopping here. I will tell you more when I come back. We are leaving on Monday. Please take care. See you soon!

Jane

Task 3. Focusing-on-form during spoken interaction through error correction
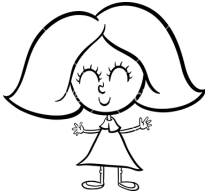
Aims of the task: Focusing on the form through error correction during a meaningful speaking activity.

Role of the teacher: Think of some effective error correction techniques for students to recognize the form in the following situation.

Procedure or steps: Correcting the recuring errors during an interactive activity.

Target form: The Simple Present Tense (like/dislike)

Activity: Students will talk in pairs about the pictures below, and then they will make similar sentences as a whole class speaking activity.

The following dialogue takes place as a result of the above activity. How would you deal with the following recuring errors? Explain clearly the error correction type/s you would prefer and why? How exactly would you apply this technique/s to help your student notice the grammar errors below?

Teacher: Which animal does Kate like?

Student: Kate like cats.

Teacher: Does she like snakes?

Student: No, she dislike snakes.

7.5. Assessment & reflection

Test on the theoretical principles

1. Which age is the most appropriate to start focusing on forms in young learner classrooms?
   a. 5   b. 7   c. 9   d. 12

2. What are the long-term negative effects of ignoring and not correcting student errors in young learner classrooms?
   a. It does not have any negative effects because students can realize and correct their errors automatically themselves.
   b. Students' errors can get fossilized and students cannot reach advanced levels of language proficiency.
   c. Students lose motivation to experiment with language and use it in class.
   d. Students' speaking fluency suffers when their errors are not corrected.

3. Which of the followings suggests that explicit grammar teaching would result in automatized language use with enough practice?

   a. Focus-on-Forms   b. Focus-on-meaning   c. Focus-on-Form   d. Focus-on-tasks

4. Which of the followings suggests that noticing and consciousness raising during meaningful language use is necessary for students to recognize and understand the grammar rules.

   a. Focus-on-Forms   b. Focus-on-meaning   c. Focus-on-Form   d. Focus-on-tasks

5. Which of the followings suggests that L2 acquisition is a natural and subconscious process that only occur with natural exposure to adequate amount of comprehensible input thus no grammar instruction and error correction is necessary.

    a. Focus-on-Forms   b. Focus-on-meaning   c. Focus-on-Form   d. Focus-on-tasks

6. Especially which L2 grammar patterns or forms need special attention and focusing?

    a. The most frequent forms in the input
    b. The forms in contrast with students' L1
    c. The forms that are regular or consistent
    d. The forms which are common in students' L1

7. Which of these error correction types is the least effective in lon-term treatment or errors?
    a. Repetition
    b. Elicitation request
    c. Explicit correction
    d. Recasts

Test on Practice

Look at the following classroom script and answer the following questions

Teacher: Today, we will learn "have got" and "has got" in English. Have got means...........[The teacher explains the meaning of have got in students' L1]. Look at the board:

I have got a ball.

You have got a box.

We have got a pencil.

They <u>have got</u> bags.

He <u>has got</u> a ball.

She <u>has got</u> a box.

It <u>has got</u> a tail.

[Then, the teacher gives the rule in a direct and explicit way].

Teacher: We use 'have got' with the pronouns I, you, we , and they, but we use 'has got' with the pronouns he, she and it. Is it clear? Now, open your workbooks to page 24. Look at the first exercise. Fill in the blanks and write either have got or has got according to the personal pronouns in the sentences [The teacher waits for the students to finish the exercises).

Teacher: Have you finished? Ok. Andrian, please do the first one.

Student: Mary has got an umbrella.

Teacher: Good, welldone. Who wants to do the next one?

Student: Peter have got an umbrealla.

Teacher: Because Peter is third singular pronoun, you need to use has got. So what wil be the correct answer?

Student: Peter has got an umbrealla

Teacher: Good. Who will do the third one?

Student: Susan has got an apple.

Teacher: Very good.

1. What is the aim of this class?

    a. To make students to communicate using the 'have got' and 'has got' structure.
    b. To make students to learn the rules regarding the usage of 'has got' and 'have got' with different pronouns.

c. To focus students' attention to the structure 'have got' and 'has got' during a meaningful communicative task.

d. To make students to interact freely with each other about what they 'have got' in their school bag.

2. Which grammar approach was used in the script above?

   a. Focus-on-Forms

   b. Focus-on-meaning

   c. Focus-on-Form

   d. Focus-on-tasks

3. What might be an acceptable practice in this script with regard to the presentation of the grammar structure?

   a. The grammar structure is presented in sentences instead of an extended text

   b. The grammar structure is explained in the first language of the students

   c. The grammar structure is practiced through controlled drills

   d. The grammar structure is underlined to take attention of learners to the target form

4. What error correction technique did the teacher use?

   a. Repetition

   b. Elicitation request
   c. Metacognitive feedback
   d. Recast

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MODULE 8
Intercultural Communicative Competence

1. Introduction

In this module we are going to explore the notion of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC from now on), and how this competence can be worked on in the second language (L2) class. As we will see, the environment of L2 teaching and learning is one of the most appropriate contexts for the development of ICC, as culture and language 'go together': they are two sides of the same coin.

There is plenty of literature on good classroom practices for fostering ICC, providing the reader with indications and suggestions on how to make progress in ICC through specific techniques and activities (to find out more, you can see online publications such as Byram *et al.* and Lázár, *et al.*, 2007). Some of these recommendations are summarised below.

Before we begin, it is important to take into account that (1) culture is much more than obvious cultural symbols such as traditions or works of art; (2) being intercultural is not simply being tolerant with others; (3) intercultural situations do not only take place between people from different countries or who speak different mother tongues. Let's see that the concepts of *culture* and *interculturality* exactly are.

2. Lecture

What is culture? What is ICC?

We normally assume that the culture of a community are aspects such as:
- ✓ Works of art, literature, music…

But it is also:
- ✓ Their typical cuisine, the way people dress, the way they celebrate festivities…

And even more subtle cultural traits such as:
- ✓ The distribution of physical space in conversations,
- ✓ The way we keep eye contact,
- ✓ The relationship we have with animals,
- ✓ The roles of people in relation to age, gender, and the working environment
- ✓ The common conceptions about sin, illness, death…

The items on top of this list are 'visible' and identifiable. The latter, are not that visible. However, they are relevant too. Knowing and managing them makes individuals more competent in social relations. ICC is related to the successful management of these issues.

Very broadly, ICC is the capacity that we have to be skillful and successful when we are faced with intercultural encounters. An intercultural encounter can take place in remote places to our home town with people who don't speak our language, but it can also happen in our neighbourhood, with people from a different ethnicity to ours. Besides, 'being skillful and successful' means much more than being tolerant and knowing about the other. It also has to do with *suspending our judgement*: taking into account that the event that we are witnessing may not be explained only from our point of view.

That is why, to be interculturally competent, it is necessary to know oneself, to know our culture, and to find points in common between our culture and the culture of our interlocutor (normally called C1 and C2 respectively).

According to Michael Byram (1997), these are the components of ICC:

This is ICC		
Component		**Definition**
Knowledge		Knowing the system of cultural references of social groups (their products and practices) in C1 and C2 and knowing social and individual interactions.
Attitude		Having the affective capacity to overcome ethnocentrism and to establish and maintain a relationship between C1 and C2.
Skills	Interpreting and relating	The ability to interpret a document or event from the C2, explain it and relate it to the C1.
	Discovering and interacting	The ability to create an interpretative system of the meanings, beliefs and cultural practices that we get to know, coming from unknown cultures or not.
	Critical/cultural awareness	The ability to evaluate critically perspectives, practices and products of C1 and C2 on the basis of explicit criteria.

3. How can Primary teachers develop ICC the L2 classroom?

3.1. ICC and linguistic competence.

The L2 class is the perfect environment for the development of ICC. Any language activity in which children express their likes and dislikes and listen to their classmates' is related to knowing themselves better and respecting others, and this, as we have seen,

is what developing ICC is about. We could say that linguistic competence is part of a broader competence, which is ICC.

Good ICC activities develop both intercultural and linguistic competence. This facilitates the teacher's work, who can more easily integrate work on ICC in the syllabus. For example, *debates and discussions* help improve both ICC and speech patterns –opening and closing a conversation, turn-taking, changing the subject…–, and some other culturally determined aspects of non-verbal communication such as facial expressions, eye contact, gestures, etc. Besides, they are good dynamics to foster critical attitudes: learners can contrast their positions and search for a common ground in conflicting situations. Instead of searching for differences (which can reinforce existing stereotypes and prejudices), it is a good idea to look at the similarities and common perspectives of two cultural practices.

Have a look:
…at these webpages on debate topics for children:
✓ http://www.buzzle.com/articles/debate-topics-for-kids.html.
✓ https://www.englishclub.com/speaking/agreeing-disagreeing-topics.htm.
✓ http://www.kidsworldfun.com/blog/speech-and-debate-topics-for-kids/.

Other useful fluency-oriented language activities are information-gap social games[5] –where the classmates have some information that the student doesn't have– and drama activities –for instance staging an interview with famous characters in history; the former help develop empathic attitudes by trying to find out more about the other and the latter foster cognitive and emotional competence by putting oneself in the place of the other. And of course, they work on language skills: there is oral interaction in conversations, reading and writing for preparing the play…

A nice speaking activity that helps develop ICC and reflect over prejudice, stereotype and discrimination is (1) drawing an alien face in the board; (2) discussing his/her identity, occupation and educational background from his/her physical description and (3) rising related issues: why did we come to these conclusions? What are other people from his/her planet like? Would we like to be their friends? (adapted from Apedaile and Schill, 2008: 24).

3.2. Experiential learning.

Activities proposed in the classroom in relation to ICC should link practice with experiential and meaningful learning. That is, they should relate to the children's

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[5] Here you have an explanation of information-gap activities: http://www.educ.ualberta.ca/staff/olenka.bilash/best%20of%20bilash/info%20gap%20activities.html.

experiences. This way, children will develop an awareness of their own cultural perspective and establish connections between this perspective and the target culture, so that they are brought together in a *third culture* or *third space* (Kramsch, 1993). It is all about 'beginning and finishing the activity in the students' mind' (Tomlison and Masuhara, 2004: 8) and helping them to know themselves.

In this concern, effective strategies could be to have *students design their own culture-oriented materials*. For example, children could make wallcharts about the sights of the place where they live. It also seems that teaching models based on *project-based* or *task-based work* are useful too because in these methodologies, students are given the chance to learn and think from experience.

Did you know that…

…the Common European Framework of References for Languages links tasks and ICC. More specifically, it states that tasks activate appropriate general competences such as intercultural skills –i.e. mediating between the two cultures (Council of Europe, 2001: 158).

3.3. ICC and plurilingualism.

Teaching ICC has to do with helping to making students plurilingual citizens. That is, to be effective, the activities meant to attain ICC should not focus on a specific culture but on multiculturality and on the improvement of a general capacity that allows the student relate with other cultures. This contributes to the development of children's personality: by relating to other cultures, they should end up being aware of their own sociocultural identity, and understanding that this identity changes in time and space depending on where they are and who they are with. They will also realise that their cultural representations are provisional and dynamic.

Nice activities to promote plurilingualism and multiculturality are:

▪ Comparing idioms and sayings in different languages.
▪ Comparing different versions of traditional tales.
▪ Watching the body language of speakers of different languages.
▪ Listening to people doing code-switching between languages and 'analysing' their speech.

3.4. The roles of the teacher and the children in class.

The teacher should be seen more as an intermediary or mediator than as the representative of a culture. He/she should search for a common ground in conflicting situations, and foster a critical attitude not only towards the other but also towards one's own culture. Depending on the learning situation, he/she could also play other roles such as provider of information, informant, counselor, guide, etc. The children, on

the other hand, in their daily contact with the L2, can become mediators between C1 and C2 too –and develop their 'third space'. This will be more efficiently attained, as we have said, through experiential learning, in an atmosphere where affective factors such as motivation, empathy, curiosity, tolerance and flexibility towards ambiguous situations are given special attention.

As a summary, these are necessary characteristics of ICC activities:

In short…
ICC activities should: ✓ Either contrast C1 and C2 or have C1 as a starting point. ✓ Have a specific linguistic objective. ✓ Be related to experiential learning. ✓ Help students get to know themselves. ✓ Promote the development of plurilingualism, not just one L2. ✓ Consider the teacher mainly as a mediator, and possibly in other roles too. The children should end up as mediators too. ✓ Reflect a clear interest on emotions, in particular on putting oneself in the place of 'the other'.

4. **Activities: typology and examples.**

   Depending on their procedural characteristics, ICC activities can be classified into:
   - Observation activities, intended to make cultural concepts and attitudes explicit;
   - Presupposing activities, related to the analysis of prior cultural knowledge;
   - Activities meant to help face a culture shock[6];
   - Activities based on getting to know and analyse stereotypes;
   - Activities of comparison and contrast between C1 and C2;
   - Situational activities of experiential learning –namely role-plays and simulations;
   - Activities on constructive criticism, where the focus is placed on finding a solution to a problem.

   Also, there are the *tasks carried out in real scenarios* outside the class. Whenever possible, children should be exposed to intercultural situations out-side the class to enhance classroom work. Cultural exchanges, trips and cooperation with people from other countries boost tandem learning and reveal the need to achieve a certain degree of communicative and intercultural competence. Access to input from a variety of Englishes is granted through the Internet and ICT (chatrooms, forums and online discussions, e-mail, etc.).

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[6] Culture shock is a state of anxiety that results from losing all cultural symbols or references in social interaction.

Finally, there are activities associated with traditional conceptual learning, which teach factual cultural information about cultures, and which are the activities that, in a narrow sense, people tend to associate with interculturality. The items in this list are not mutually exclusive –it may be possible to classify activities under more than one heading–, and they are complementary –it is common practice to combine activities belonging to different categories.

Some examples of activities that we often do in the language class and that easily contribute to the development of ICC are the following:

Some examples:

- ✓ Preparing a recipe of the C1 and the C2.
- ✓ Looking for solutions to an intercultural conflict that may arise in the class.
- ✓ Watching a video on mute and making out the dialogue from the gestures.
- ✓ Making a survey about stereotypes and typical behaviours in the C1 (for example, asking about time habits: 'are you late?', 'when do you start school?'…).
- ✓ Keeping contact with a class from a twin school abroad…

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5. **Assessment of ICC.**

Assessing ICC is controversial, mainly because it is ethically problematic to evaluate intercultural attitudes or personality. On the other hand, ICC is always evolving, and it is difficult to measure quantitatively.

The best way to deal with this is to approach assessment of ICC from different sources, combining objective tests with more qualitative tools such as observation, interviews, self-evaluation, portfolios, etc. A very interesting document for the evaluation of intercultural competence that can be applied to young learners is the Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters (published by the Language Policy Division of the Council of Europe in 2007): http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/autobiography/default_en.asp.

TASKS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

TASK 1

Aim of the activity: to identify intercultural activities.

Procedure or steps:

1. Have a look at the activities below and decide which of them is more suitable for the development of ICC. Think of the characteristics put forward in the box in section 3.4.

Type A

Knowing about (ej. Sports play an important role in American life)	
Content Nature	Getting information.
Learning objectives	Show a mastery of the information.
Techniques/activities	Cultural readings, films, videotapes, recordings, realia, personal anecdotes.
Teacher's role	Informant.

Type B

Knowing oneself (ej. What importance do sports have in your own life?)	
Content Nature	Self-awareness.
Learning objectives	Children themselves are the subject matter in a process of guided self-discovery, as they discover their own values and their reactions to those of the target culture.
Techniques/activities	Examine and make statements about themselves.
Teacher's role	Counselor or guide.

Type C:

Knowing about (ej. The importance of sports across cultures)	
Content Nature	Values and Assumptions.
Learning objectives	To infer, to generalize, to develop one's curiosity, tolerance, sensitivity and empathy.
Techniques/activities	Interpret, make explanations and compare with the student's own culture.
Teacher's role	Co-researcher or guide.

TASK 2

Aim of the task: design an activity for the development of ICC.

Procedure or steps:

1. Organise an online pen-pal exchange task for your students stating:
   - Intercultural objective/s,
   - Linguistic objective/s,
   - Emphasis on plurilingualism and multiculturality: specific possibilities of the task.
   - The comparison of C1 and C2:
     - Possible points in common.
     - Specific activities.
   - Role of teacher and of children.
   - Possible outcomes and further steps.

ASSESSMENT & REFLECTION

1. What should we do when facing an intercultural encounter?
   a) Suspend our judgement.
   b) Expect a problem.
   c) Ignore our background.
   d) Participate only when asked.
2. What is *not* a component of ICC?
   a) Knowledge.
   b) Attitudes.
   c) Skills.
   d) Perspectives.
3. What methodology is particularly useful for the development of ICC?
   a) Blended learning.
   b) Task-based learning.
   c) Suggestopedia.
   d) Text-based instruction.
4. What is 'the third space'?
   a) It is the result of comparing the speakers' culture with other cultures.
   b) It's the room where ICC learning should take place.
   c) It is another name for Intercultural Competence.
   d) It is one of the stages in intercultural learning.
5. What characteristic is *not* specific of good ICC activities?
   a) They have a linguistic objective too.
   b) They are based on the students' experiences.
   c) They begin with work on receptive language skills.
   d) They help learners get to know themselves.

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MODULE 9

INTEGRATING TECHNOLOGY IN YOUNG LEARNER CLASSROOMS

Figure 1. *Word cloud of some vocabulary in the module via Wordle.*

9.1 Introduction

This module aims to discuss the integration of technology in young learner classrooms by covering the place of technology in language teaching, the relationship of young learners with technology and some sample digital applications in foreign language classrooms. Since there can be developments in technology each and every day and it is not possible to add every digital tool in the module, the digital tools presented here are representative. Thus, teachers can search and critically evaluate the digital tools as they prefer and need. Moreover, as technology integration cannot be introduced with an approach of "one size fits all", the module aims to increase awareness of the teachers towards technology integration and encourage them for hands-on experiences with technology.

By the end of the module, the participants

- will become aware the process of technology integration into language teaching,
- will be aware of basic terminology used in technology integration into language teaching,
- will become aware of the current digital tools to be used in language teaching,
- will be able to use technology effectively to meet the needs of language learners.

> *Think about the following questions:*
>
> *When you hear the phrase "**technology integration**", do you feel comfortable? If your answer is no, what do you think the possible reasons are?*
>
> *Have you ever heard the term "**digital natives**"?*
>
> *How would you describe your relationship with technology? Are you tech-savvy or techno-phobic?*

9.2 Lecture

Picture 1: *Tech-savvy teacher*   **Picture 2:** *Techno-phobic teacher*

(Picture 1: Taken from http://www.ncce.org/about-ncce/tech-savvy-teacher, Picture 2: Taken fromhttps://medium.com/enrique-dans/europe-s-technophobic-governments-bc37eb9e0444#.t4am966vo)

You can take the short quiz at the link http://www.edutopia.org/quiz-tech-savvy-teaching if you want to find out your relationship with technology.

9.2.1 A brief summary of technology integration in language teaching

In nearly past three decades, the integration of technology in language teaching has been evolved dramatically. The integration was first called *Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)* which included the use of computers, CD-ROMS and multimedia applications for language teaching purposes. The CALL era, which is between mid-1980s and 1990s, has undergone several changes in line with the developments in language teaching methodology. Dudeney and Hockly (2012) list the changes as three stages: (1) behavioristic CALL with decontextualized 'drill and kill' exercises; (2) communicative CALL with the emphasis more on language production; (3) Integrated CALL with more focus on the four skills and emphasis on Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC).

In late 1990s, with the wider internet access, the significance of *Information and Communication Technologies (ICT)* has become more prominent. The major shift from being consumers to producers of technology in language teaching was with the advent of *Web 2.0* tools. *Web 1.0* was more like a static resource used only by experts and consumed by teachers and learners while *Web 2.0* tools included more creative tools for teachers and learners without the need to be a digital expert such as blogs, forums and wikis. Simultaneously with Web 2.0 tools, more user-friendly tools such as *Interactive White Boards (IWBs)* took their place in classrooms and are still used actively by teachers and learners. Furthermore, it was also noticed that there is a move from *CALL* to *Technology Enhanced Language Learning (TELL)*. CALL methodology sees technology as assisting language learning while in TELL, technology is regarded as one of the environments in which target language is used and contextualized (Walker & White, 2013).

Recently, the 2012 Horizon Report by determined that mobile, blended learning and game-based learning will be the major future trends of educational technology (Johnson, Adams & Cummins, 2012). The results of this report can also be reflected on language teaching domain. The common use of mobile technologies such as smart phones and tablets are also becoming the resources for language learning purposes with applications including online materials and settings. Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) will also facilitate blended language learning and teaching which supports both online (out-of-class) and face-to-face (in-class) teaching by teachers. Furthermore, digital games are also becoming more prominent in language teaching. Digital game-based language learning (DGBLL) supports the use of digital games to enhance learning while the focus is only on playing rather than language learning. The virtual worlds like *Second Life* can be given as an example of sophisticated game used by learners.
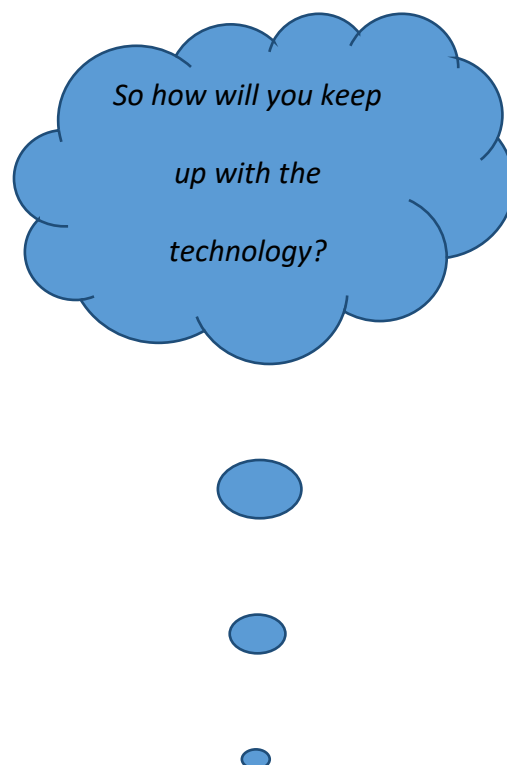
9.2.2. Technology and young language learners

(Picture 3: Taken from http://banmilleronbusiness.com/blog/2016-09-15/digital-natives)

Children of today are more engaged in technology in their daily lives. For this reason, the term "digital natives" is used frequently when describing the relationship of children with technology. Prensky (2001) claims that there are digital natives and digital immigrants in terms of the use of technology by children and adults. As illustrated in the Cartoon 1 below, digital natives are the ones who acquire innovative technologies that exist in their daily lives naturally and voluntarily while digital immigrants are the ones (mostly adults) who have possible adaptation problems with the latest technologies.

Cartoon 1: Digital natives and digital immigrants (*https://brookesaltmarsh.wordpress.com/digital-natives-debate*)

It is mostly assumed that most of the young learners in language classrooms are digital natives while most of their teachers and parents are digital immigrants. Thus, foreign language teachers should be able to find ways to adapt themselves into this digital world and make use of this characteristic of young learners for language teaching and learning purposes (see Cartoon 2 and 3 below).
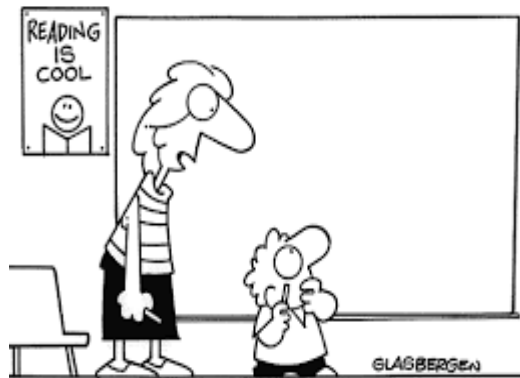
"There aren't any icons to click. It's a chalk board."
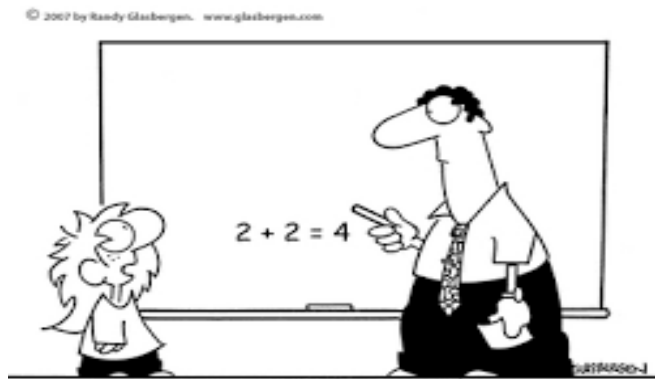
"How can I trust your information when you're using such outdated technology?"

Cartoon 2: (https://kenwilsonelt.wordpress.com)   Cartoon 3: (http://mshayes.org)

Particularly in EFL classes, young learners need more opportunities for exposure to authentic texts and domains in the target language. Thus, in this respect, the technology has a significant contribution to provide learners with authentic target language input to learn and to practice. With the help of internet, teachers and young learners can be integrated into the world of the target language. The list below summarizes the possible benefits of technology integration into young language learner classrooms.

Benefits of technology integration

1. It increases motivation and learner engagement.
2. It promotes learner autonomy.
3. It provides young learners access to target language in class and out-of-class.
4. It enables young learners to be creative and productive by using the target language.
5. It engages young learners to do task-based activities.
6. It provides project-based activities.
7. It appeals to the types of multiple intelligences and learning styles.
8. It increases collaborative activities.
9. It enables young learners' use the target language vocabulary and grammar in context.
10. It facilitates teachers' administrative and assessment workload.
11. It enables development of linguistic skills with meaningful activities.

Concerns about technology integration into young learner classrooms

Although it is highly recommended to integrate technology in education, there are some concerns to re-consider. Firstly, teachers should use digital tools in their classroom if they really need and if technology would help enhance language learning. Each teacher should search the tools that they need and really help their teaching so that technology will not be used for technology's sake (Stanley, 2013). Therefore, teachers should avoid prioritizing technology over language teaching. Furthermore, while assigning digital activities or tasks to young learners, teachers should consider the amount of screen time. The issue of

screen time is acknowledged as important since it may cause some detrimental effects on children's brain.

Moreover, there are also some concerns about the online safety for children. Teachers should select the digital tools that are pedagogically, developmentally and ethically appropriate for young learners. For instance, social networking sites such as *Facebook* or *Twitter* should not be used with the children under the age of thirteen. In addition, teachers should avoid using or introducing websites which students would engage in or be exposed to cyber-bullying (Walker & White, 2013).

9.2.3 The process of technology integration into young learner classrooms

Although teachers may favor technology integration, they may feel uncomfortable about how they would integrate or where to start. Below is a sample guideline which may help teachers about the process of technology integration in their classrooms. The steps in the guideline may differ according to each learning context.

A Sample Guideline for Foreign Language Teachers to Integrate

Technology in Young Learner Classrooms

1. Self-evaluate your current relationship level with technology.

2. Make a list about the existing available computer and internet technology provided in your school and in your classroom such as availability of the computers or any computer room available, internet accessibility and up-to-date software.

3. Conduct a technological survey (see Example 1 below) about the IT skills of your learners to find out the current knowledge about and availability of technology of your learners.

4. Search and decide which digital tools can assist in your language teaching context (See Table 1 for sample tools and Table 2 for other suggestions), evaluate the tools critically whether they match your needs and your students' needs.

5. Try the digital tool at first by yourself. Take some notes for your learners to draw attention.

6. Plan the process about integration of the tool into the current syllabus.

7. Plan the process about training of the digital tool of your learners.

Example 1: A Sample technological survey: Teachers can design their own survey according to the digital tool they plan to use in the classroom. The results are analyzed to decide on how teachers will integrate technology into their classrooms.

Learning-technology survey Part A – technology I use at home 1. I have a smartphone 2. I have a computer at home. 3. I can access internet at home. 4. I know how to use Google. Part B – technology for language learning 1. I would like to use my mobile phone for language learning. 2. I would be happy to use my computer for learning language. 3. I love studying with my computer at home.	**Yes** **No**

9.3. TASKS FOR TEACHER TRAINING

Task 1: The use of Digital Storytelling tools

Aims of the task: To introduce digital storytelling tools to teachers; to increase teachers' awareness towards digital storytelling and its tools; to enable teachers to critically evaluate the tools presented for their own teaching purposes; to increase teachers' level of relationship with technology.

Duration: Between 45-60 minutes.

Procedures:

1. Go to the following websites of digital storytelling tools one by one. Search the content of each website. Let yourself surf in the websites for a first impression.
    1. www.storybird.com
    2. www.littlebirdtales.com
    3. http://www.carnegielibrary.org/kids/storymaker
    4. www.pixton.com
2. What are your first impressions? Which tool is more appealing to you? Why?
3. Watch the short tutorials for each tool by clicking on the following links.
    Storybird: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=30-o4dw8mPU
    Littlebirdtales: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uEnhabCzrvo
    My StoryMaker: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Qmr9TWawbeQ
    Pixton: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ULgrjjj4VzA

4. After watching the videos, go to each tool again to practice the tools.
5. Then fill in the chart below by answering questions as Yes/No or any possible answers for open-ended questions.

	Storybird	Littlebirdtales	My Storymaker	Pixton
a. Does it allow voice recording?				
b. Does it allow adding music?				
c. Does it have images or pictures available in the tool?				
d. Can user upload images or pictures to its content?				
e. Does it have any animations?				
f. Is it user-friendly?				
g. Does it have any drawing option for your learners?				
h. Which language skills do you think that the tool(s) may support in your teaching?				
i. For which groups of learners would the tool be appropriate?				
j. Which tool is more appropriate for your current students?				

6. Think about the following questions:
   How would you integrate digital storytelling into the current syllabus in your language classrooms?
   What would be the benefits or challenges of digital storytelling to your students?
   Would you assign a digital storytelling project as an individual or group work project? Why?

Task 2: The use of Voki with speaking Avatars
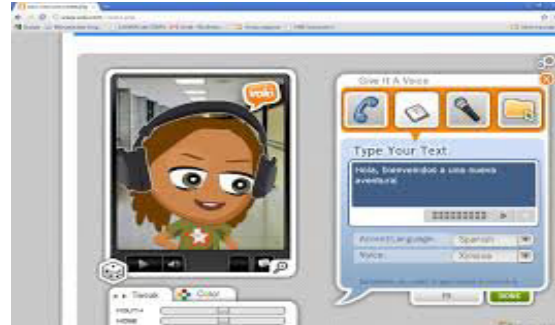
Aims of the task: To introduce Voki to teachers; to increase teachers' awareness towards Voki and speaking avatars; to enable teachers to critically evaluate the tools presented for their own teaching purposes; to increase teachers' level of relationship with technology.

Duration: Between 30-45 minutes.

Procedures:

1. Visit the website of Voki (www.voki.com).
2. Click on the speaking avatars on the home page to listen introduction and read the introduction enabled.
3. Watch the official tutorials about how to use Voki on the following websites:
   https://vimeo.com/94226594
   https://vimeo.com/94226595
4. Log in Voki and try to create your own avatar.
5. Try the Text-to-Speech option and record your voice options.
   Listen our avatar asking questions about Voki by clicking on the link.
   [http://www.voki.com/php/viewmessage/?chsm=d803fa6b968ebc57383abedc834dd b95&mId=2682862](http://www.voki.com/php/viewmessage/?chsm=d803fa6b968ebc57383abedc834ddb95&mId=2682862)
6. Answer the questions by recording or using text-to-speech tool with your avatar.
7. Publish and share your avatars with us.

9.5. ASSESSMENT & REFLECTION

9.5.1. Principles

1. Which of the following order of the terms represents the correct sequence of the process of technology integration in language teaching?

a) Web 2.0 → TELL → CALL → MALL

b) CALL → Web 2.0 → TELL → MALL

c) CALL → MALL → Web 2.0 → TELL

d) TELL → CALL → MALL → Web 2.0

2. In this digital storytelling tool, ………, the students will be able to create stories in English by drawing their own pictures with "paint" option as well as uploading other pictures, record their own voice for narration and publish their stories online.

a) Storybird   b) Glogster   c) Littlebirdtales   d) My Storymaker

3. Which of the following statements is not considered appropriate when choosing digital tools and websites for young language learners?

a) Digital games can be used to enable young learners to learn and practice target language in a more fun way.

b) It is more meaningful for teachers to choose the digital tools that really assist their language teaching process.

c) Digital tools need to be evaluated by the teachers according to pedagogical, developmental and ethical appropriateness for young learners.

d) Social networking sites such as Facebook and Twitter can be used in young learner classrooms for practicing target language collaboratively.

4. Which of the following tools do not allow teachers to assign tasks, to interact with their students out-of-class and to comment on students' work?

   a) Padlet   b) Voki   c) Penzu   d) Wordle

 5. Which of the following statements cannot be considered as one of the benefits of technology integration in young learner classrooms for language teaching purposes?

a) It provides project-based and task-based activities by using target language.

b) It promotes learner autonomy by enabling more access to target language.

c) It increases IT skills of young learners by using technology as out-of-class activities.

d) It enables young learners to be creative and productive by using the target language.

9.5.2. Practice
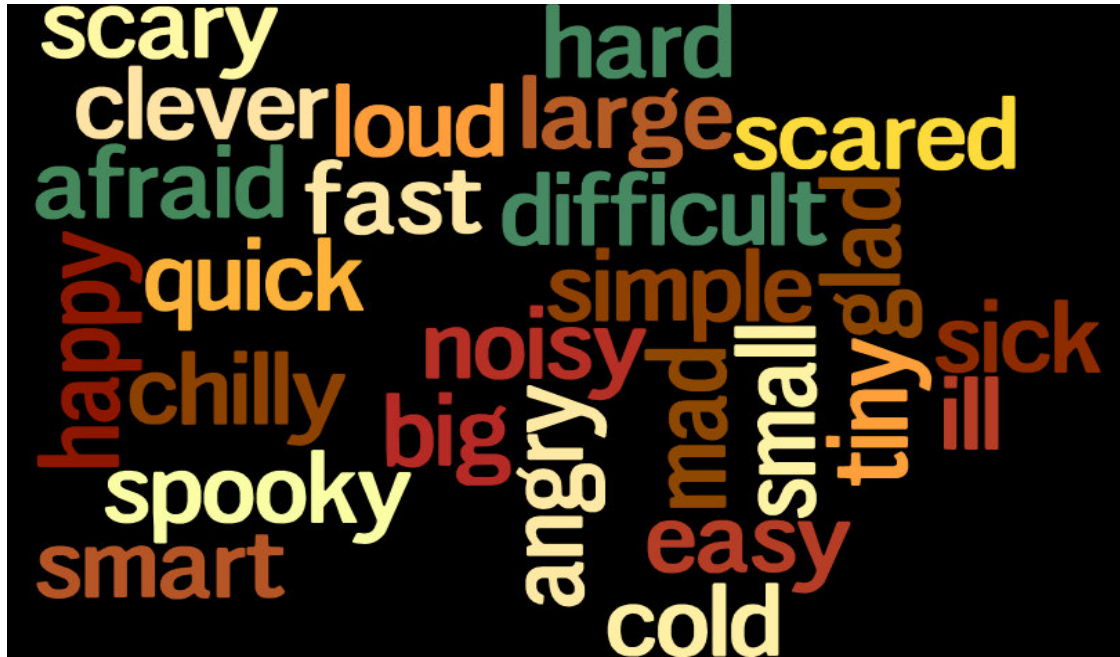
1. Which web tool was used to create the picture above?

a) Penzu   b) Voki   c) Wordle   d) Storybird

2. Which of the following objectives would be aimed at by creating such picture?

a) Teaching collocations   b) Teaching antonyms

c) Teaching phrasal verbs   d) Teaching synonyms

3. Which of the following would be wrong about creating this picture with a web tool?

a) The words are too demanding for young learners.

b) Creating similar pictures with the same web tool is easy for young learners.

c) Young learners may enjoy a matching activity with this picture.

d) Teachers can easily create similar pictures for teaching any vocabulary item.

ANSWER KEY:

Principles: 1.B 2. B 3. D. 4. D. 5. C Practice: 1. C 2. D. 3. A.

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APPENDIX

Table 1: Some Web 2.0 tools suggested for teaching foreign languages to young learners

Web 2.0 tools	Description	Website & Pricing
Digital Storytelling tools (*Storybird, Littebirdtales, My Storymaker, Pixton*)	Digital Storytelling tools are applications used for storytelling through digital technology. A digital story, based on a chosen theme and told from a specific point of view, can be created by multimedia software and utilized for several purposes. Teachers can create their digital stories to introduce a topic to present new vocabulary or grammar in context or to encourage reading and listening. Students may be required to create their own digital stories individually or collaboratively.	www.storybird.com – Free www.littlebirdtales.com – Free www.carnegielibrary.org/kids/storymaker – Free www.pixton.com – Paid (30-day free trial)
Webquests	Webquests are motivating, authentic, inquiry-based activities or mini-projects by using World Wide Web to search for a purpose collaboratively, to share ideas. Teachers assign a topic that can be interesting and matching the needs of young learners. The topic can be the same or relevant one with other subject areas or the topic of the language class.	www.zunal.com - Free www.webquest.org - Free
Voki	An application which allows teachers and students to generate speaking avatars representing the user. Voki enables Text-To-Speech technology that is transferring the text to speech by chosen speaker.	www.voki.com – free (individual user), Voki classroom (paid, 15-day free trial)
Wikis	A platform where students can chare information and resources with their peers, conduct a project collaboratively by tracking the process. A wiki can be used for scaffolding learners during collaborative writing projects.	www.pbworks.com/wikis.html - free www.wikispaces.com/content/classroom - free
Glogster	An application for interactive digital posters to include media links, sound and video. It can be applied as individual or group work task to create	www.glogster.com www.edu.glogster.com (Its edu version is more useful for young

	presentations about an assigned topic and to interact with peers.	learners)-Paid
Wordle	A user-friendly application for creating word clouds to visualize the target language. It can be used for presenting key vocabulary about the text in pre-listening or pre-reading stages, practicing the grammatical or lexical structures such as collocations, irregular verbs or creating interesting visuals for writing and reading purposes or as a dicto-gloss activity.	www.wordle.net - Free
Penzu	A platform for creating journals or diaries. Young learners may use penzu for diary writing in the target language. Teachers may use "penzu classroom" for assigning tasks, interacting with their students out-of-class, commenting on students' work.	www.penzu.com-Free (Individual), Paid (Penzu Classroom version)
Padlet	A tool called digital wall which can be used to compose a vocabulary wall collaboratively with the words used in classroom, to brain-storm the ideas about an assigned topic, the write the reports of a research, to create and share a wall about an assigned topic with visuals, videos and audios. Teachers can also use padlet as a platform to communicate with the students for assignments, announcements or videos etc.	www.padlet.com – paid (for teacher), free (for students)
Picture book reading	A website that includes several stories in English narrated by famous people with pictures. The website also presents activities about the story which can be adapted for classroom use. This website can be used in collaboration with the use of Web 2.0 tools suggested in this list according to the needs of the teachers and learners.	www.storylineonline.net -free
Digital games	Games used to engage learners and to support interaction in the target language. They offer immersive environments that the learners are motivated.	www.clubpenguin.com – Free www.learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/fun-with-english - Free
Flickr	A website that allows uploading or downloading pictures, images and photos, managing photos and videos. Teachers may use the pictures to support their teaching or students may create and share	www.flickr.com

	pictures or photos related to a topic assigned by the teachers in language classrooms.	

Table 2: Some blogs suggested for professional development about technology and language teaching

Website	Description
Teacher Reboot Camp: http://teacherrebootcamp.com/	A blog by Shelly Terrell who suggests resources, ideas and links for teaching with technology
Learning technology teacher development blog for ELT **http://nikpeachey.blogspot.com.tr/**	A blog by Nik Peachey who provides simple online activities to autonomous EFL and ESL learners to help improve English and digital literacy.
Digital Play. http://digitalplay.info/blog/	A blog by Kyle Mawer and Graham Stanley' with activities and ideas for EFL/ESL Teachers interested in using computer games and digital toys with their learners.
Box of Tricks **http://www.boxoftricks.net/**	A blog by Jose Picardo about technology and education.
Technology for language learning **http://blogs.ihes.com/tech-elt/**	A blog by Tom Walton with posts and suggestions about the use of technology in language classrooms.
Educational Technology in ELT **http://educationaltechnologyinelt.blogspot.com.tr/**	A blog by Vicky Saumell with experiences of tech tools to

	enhance language learning.
Nik's Daily English Activities http://daily-english-activities.blogspot.com.tr/	A blog by Nik Peachey's Blog with tips, resources and teaching materials to help EFL and ESL teachers use ICT and new technology.

MODULE 10 Assessment

Assessment: Any systematic means of discovering and recording how well someone is able to do something. (Rixon, 2012, p. 4)

8.1. Introduction

Assessment has the power to change young learner's (YL's) lives because the effect of assessment can be either positive or negative (McKay, 2006; Bitchener, 2008), depending on variety of factors, such as assessment process (identifying **appropriate teaching methodologies** and **learning activities**, giving **feedback** or comments to young learners on how well they are doing, interpretation of learners' progress in accordance with the learning objectives to demonstrate the acquired knowledge in the most adequate way). Classroom assessment helps foreign language (FL) teachers to gather, record and interpret information about YL's progress and achievement, to use this information to improve their teaching approaches, and to report it to all those concerned with YL's education. Assessment of YLs should **be in agreement with learning; interactional** and not isolated. Efficient classroom assessment should include (Kirsch, 2009: 192): sharing learning objectives and assessment criteria with YLs, discussing learning strategies, efficient questioning techniques, appropriate feedback (comments) and involving YLs in assessment.

Assessment of YLs should be performed in a stress-free environment, including communicative, all-inclusive assessment activities orientated to the age and interest of the children. YLs should perceive assessment as a communicative learning and teaching process, and not a competitive grading activity.

8.2. Lecture

Assessment methods

The most commonly used assessment methods are:
Formative assessment is used to support and plan for YL's learning on a daily basis. It focuses on what young learners can do, offering feedback and comments as to how they can improve and progress in line with the objectives. It raises standards of YLs' learning, achievements and progress, and equips them for life-long learning (McKay, 2006).
This module aims to implement formative assessment in the FL classroom practice so that FL teachers have student's learning as their priority to support their further FL development.

Furthermore, it aims to provide clear and constructive feedback and comments to guide and support YL' efforts and learning.

Summative assessment takes place during or at the end of the period of study, a course or a school term and is generally based on the results of a (standardized) test (McKay, 2006; Cojocnean, 2012). This type of assessment is often used in the school practice since the administration of tests, marking, scoring and the interpretation are more controlled; and results are most likely reported to parents, school administration, education departments or government authorities.

Classroom Assessment should work in harmony with teaching and to some purpose:

- *to enable current teachers to notice patterns in learning and behaviour and act accordingly*
- *to raise learners' awareness of what they can do and need to do*
- *to sharpen learners' metacognitive skills*
- *to introduce ways of demonstrating skills that also work as frameworks for teaching*
- *to inform other teachers what to expect from learners (Rixon, 2012, p. 11)*

Assessing speaking

Oral language is the central component of foreign language acquisition for young learners. They gradually develop the ability to use foreign language for communication so the oral ability may not be fully developed when FL teachers assess YLs. McKay (2006: 186-199) points out that YL's speaking is best assessed in an **integrated way** through language use in language use tasks. The spoken language that is to be assessed should be based on the curriculum (e.g. covering goals/objectives and/or outcomes, language functions, comprehension, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar in oral language). Oral language assessment is less likely to engage YLs if no **support** is available; visual support (pictures, objects, diagrams), and conversational (in-task) support from the teacher (comprehensive questions, comments, ideas, gestures, facial expressions).

Cañete Outeiral (2014: 67) suggests following **descriptors** for **assessing YLs' oral competences** in the target language in order to assess YLs' language production and pronunciation, social interaction, and non-linguistic competences which are introduced in YLs' classes. FL teachers in assessing YLs focus on **social interaction** (e.g. among equals, with experts, with novices) where YLs participate in social activities in particular contexts and goals.

CRITERIA FOR ASSESSING AN ORAL ACTIVITY				
POINTS	**PRODUCTION**		**SOCIAL ENGLISH**	**NON LINGUISITC COMPETENCES**
	LANGUAGE	PRONUNCIATION		
Extraordinary (4)	Speaks using the appropriate vocabulary and structures without remarkable mistakes	Uses the pronunciation which is well understood, comprehensible, tries to use sounds, intonation, stress	Uses the presented vocabulary and structures in social situations with friends or teachers	Uses gestures and facial expressions to support what s/he's saying

		like "natives"	spontaneously	
Very good (3)	Speaks correctly with few mistakes using the appropriate language & structure	Uses the pronunciation which is understood, comprehensible, L1 accent may be evident	Tends to use vocabulary and structures in EFL in social situations	Is confident and uses non-linguistic competences to help communication
Acceptable (2)	Speaks with several mistakes although it is comprehensible	Tries to use the correct pronunciation but makes several mistakes, L1 features may be intrusive	Sometimes uses vocabulary and structures in EFL in social situations	Uses non-linguistic competences to help communication more than linguistic
Needs improvement (1)	Only uses single words, speaks with a lot of mistakes	Pronounces the words as they are written, pronunciation is at times difficult to understand	Only uses vocabulary & structures when requested in the EFL class	Relies on non-linguistic competences to communicate
Not acceptable (0)	Doesn't try to speak or speech is incomprehensible	Doesn't try to speak or speech is incomprehensible	Doesn't speak in English, doesn't use any vocabulary	Isn't able to communicate even with non-linguistic competences

Adapted from the source: Caňete Outeiral, A.M. (2014). *Assessment of Young Language Learners: Using rubrics to bridge the gap between praxis and curriculum*. Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature, Vol. 7(1), p. 52 – 77.

FL teachers should select **various task types for assessing YL's speaking** that suit the purpose of assessment, the context of assessment and YLs' characteristics. In the classroom, oral language can be assessed effectively by using **taped recordings** of YL's speaking (3 - 5 times a year - kept in portfolios, e.g. interview, describing something, mini dialogues) while the teacher makes a record, and later through conferencing with the YL, discusses the assessment results (McKay, 2006). This may enable a detailed analysis of YLs' progress and thorough feedback can be given to them. YLs can also be asked to describe (jumbled) pictures, sorting and finding patterns (categorization tasks, e.g. choosing from a set of four pictures – which one is different or does not belong with the other one). Some other suggestions: information-gap activity in which YLs colour pictures and then find the differences between them, describing (e.g. a person, place, animal), asking and answering questions about one situation (e.g. an interview with a (famous) person), storytelling, mini dialogues and role plays, reporting on a project, telling someone how to do something (procedure), partner and group discussions, and many more.

In this way FL teachers can check if the language use is being used appropriately to the topic, audience and purpose with the text.

Assessing listening

When assessing YL's listening skills McKay (2006, 207-215) recommends that FL teachers **avoid using very familiar texts**, because they provide an assessment of children's accumulated knowledge of the text, but not of their ability to comprehend new language. FL teachers should select **listening only tasks with a final product**, used as evidence of their FL understanding (e.g. YLs are asked to perform an action, to draw a picture or fill in a diagram, to build a model). They should involve **authentic samples of spoken language**, involving real interaction (with pauses, different accents, fast speech, noises, music playing in the background), although a lot of resources on the market (e.g. from publishing houses) do not pay attention to this issue and it is difficult to get them for the primary level. The tasks should involve listening and doing (carrying out actions), answering questions, retelling. YLs need to concentrate to understand the **overall meaning of the listening text**, and to identify the main points (com. McKay, 2006, 207 – 215). **Visual materials** (e.g. pictures, chards, puppets), should support assessment tasks for listening comprehension, especially for less proficient YLs.

Literature suggests (McKay, 2006; Ioannou-Georgiou and Pavlos, 2003) **different listening tasks** for assessing YLs' listening comprehension. We have selected some types of tasks that FL teachers might find useful while assessing YLs' listening skills:

- 'Listen and do' tasks requiring action responses: Total physical response tasks (nods or shakes of the head, pointing, moving around, following the questions, requests and commands, like classroom commands, commands involving the body, verbs in general, prepositions, abilities, physical descriptions, comparatives, likes and dislikes, general knowledge).
- 'Listen and do' tasks requiring short language responses (such as listening for specific information (scanning), listening for gist (skimming), listening for detailed understanding (intensive listening): for example true/false tasks, noting specific information, grids and charts, matching tasks (e.g. matching words/sentences/texts with suitable pictures, spot the mistake/differences).
- Listening tasks requiring longer responses (e.g. responding to a series of comprehension questions, guessing meaning from context, reciting/singing a specific nursery rhyme/song with acceptable pronunciation, rhythm and stress, dictation, predicting what will follow). YLs have to listen to them and decide what the main points are, identifying signals that indicate the structure of organization of the ideas. The cognitive load can therefore be high (McKay, 2006: 208).

Some of the following **descriptors** (involving YLs' language understanding, social interaction, and non-linguistic competences) might help you in **assessing YL's listening skills**:

- recognizes the phonemes (similar speech sounds, to distinguish one word from the other, e.g. */c/* and */b/*, as in the words *"cat"* and *"bat"*), rhythms and patterns (sounds, stress and intonation) of English,

- responds appropriately to a nonverbal message, such as body language, gestures or facial expressions,
- understands, follows and responds to simple oral messages in context,
- identifies simple details in oral texts (e.g. colours),
- comprehends the overall sense of texts (e.g. stories), even though they include some unknown structures,
- expresses agreement/disagreement, (critically) evaluates a (heard) verbal message,
- understands, follows and responds in social situations in the classroom.

Assessing reading

Reading can help to reinforce what YLs are learning orally (Pinter, 2006). Hasselgreen et al. (2011) recommend that YLs should start reading in a FL with decoding familiar written language, matching spoken and written forms or completing short texts with personally relevant information. Introducing reading beyond word level should happen gradually, from word to sentence level, and further to short text level.

For assessing YL's reading Hasselgreen et al. (2011: 39-47) recommend the use of **running records** – with FL teachers hearing children reading aloud, developed by Clay (2000) for assessing reading in the YLs' first language or language of instruction. They suggest that first a FL teacher chooses a sample of the text (e.g. storybooks – Penguin Young Readers, Cambridge Storybooks). While the YL reads aloud a teacher makes a record, focusing on the coding system (e.g. a problem word, a word that is read correctly but misunderstood, self-correction, if a YL substitutes the word, write that word above the replaced word, e.g. *goat/coat*, if a YL leaves out a word, write the line / in the text, intonation problems, for added word write a sign +). Then the FL teacher plays the recording, allowing participants to listen to it and seeing the teacher's records. This approach helps the teacher to identify particular weakness which can be worked out on with the YL, to help him/her to develop his/her reading ability further, and to direct the teacher to decide what the YL needs to practice (e.g. letters, sound or words, pronunciation). Furthermore, Hasselgreen et al. (2011: 47) also suggest literacy **workstations** as another way of assessing YL's reading. These are work areas within the classroom where YL's work alone or with a partner, practising reading the book(s)/text(s), discussing or writing about it, and working with words in a meaningful and relevant context. On the other hand, a **readers' theatre** may also help in YL's reading in a FL. YLs read the script of the book/text with expressive voices and gestures. There are no memorisations, costumes or objects. The aim is to make the text meaningful and fun (ibid., 2011: 47).

Some of the following **descriptors** might help you in **assessing YL's reading skills**:

- understands, follows and reacts to written messages at the word or sentence level;
- understands the overall sense of short written texts (e.g. true/false);
- pronounces words or (short) texts in a generally comprehensible, understandable way,
- extracts specific information from brief texts (e.g. familiar topics, finding the correct picture/character, reading and drawing);
- understands, follows and (critically) responds to brief written messages (e.g. matching questions to the answers, putting short paragraphs in the right order),
- understands, follows and responds in (written) social situations in the classroom.

Assessing writing

Writing is a complex activity as YLs need to carry out a range of different tasks simultaneously, such as: organizing ideas, thinking about spelling and grammar, choosing the right words, ensuring coherence and cohesion and considering the perspective of the writer and audience (Kirsch, 2008: 127).

There exist a **variety of assessment criteria for writing**. Weigle (2002) introduces the most common: the content (what is written), and how it is written – cohesion, grammatical structures, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation. Hasselgreen et al. (2011: 22-24), together with a group of language testing specialists, suggest the **descriptors for assessing** young FL learners in order to evidence what a YL knows or can do at a given time, and on which FL teachers may provide their feedback, based on the **descriptor grid**:

Levels	Overall structure and range of information	Sentence structure and grammatical accuracy	Vocabulary and choice of phrase	Misformed words and punctuation
Approaching A1	Makes an attempt to write some letters/words (pre-writing level – word recognition) and phrases (sentence level), but needs support or a model to do this correctly.			
A1	Can write a small number of very familiar or copied words and phrases and very simple (pre-learnt) sentence patterns, usually in an easily recognisable way. The spelling often reflects the sound of the word and mother tongue spelling conventions.			
A1 / A2	Can adapt and build on a few learnt patterns to make a series of short and simple sentences. This may be a short description or set of related facts on a very familiar personal theme.		Can use some words which may resemble L1, but on the whole the message is recognisable to a reader who does not know the L1. Spelling may be influenced by the sound of the word and mother tongue spelling conventions.	
A2	Can write short straightforward coherent texts on very familiar themes. A variety of ideas are presented with some logical linking.	Is able to make independent sentences with a limited number of underlying structures.	Vocabulary is made up of very frequent words but has sufficient words and phrases to get across the essentials of the message aspired	Some evidence of knowledge of simple punctuation rules, and the independent spelling of very common words.

			to.	
A2 / B1	Is able to make reasonable attempts at texts on familiar themes that are not completely straightforward, including very simple narratives. Clauses are normally linked using connectors, such as "and", "then", "because", "but".	Sentences contain some longer clauses, and signs are shown of awareness of basic grammar, including a range of tenses.	Vocabulary is made up of widespread words, but is able to combine words and phrases to add colour and interest to the message (e.g. using adjectives).	Clear evidence of awareness of some spelling and punctuation rules, but misformed words may occur in most sentences in more independent texts.

The levels described in the descriptor grid are aligned with the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR). CEFR offers the self-assessment grid as "a draft for a self-assessment orientation tool based on the six levels" (A1, A2 – for beginners, B1, B2, C1, C2 – mastery of a language) that is "intended to help learners to profile their main language skills, and decide at which level they might look at a checklist of more detailed descriptors in order to self-assess their level of proficiency" (Council of Europe 2001, p.25).

When assessing writing in the classroom, it is important that YLs write their first draft **without help**. If a learner does not remember some vocabulary, the FL teacher can write it at the bottom of the learner's sheet or (s)he can use the dictionary, so that later it is easy to identify which vocabulary was not familiar to the learner and what (s)he managed unaided. While assessing, a FL teacher writes **comments at the margins of the paper**, so that the YL recognises his/her own achievements. The FL teacher can also **highlight** the different parts of the text (e.g. vocabulary, spelling, grammar or use of language, a text structure), using different **coloured highlighters**. A useful aspect of the colour code system is that it gives a YL a useful tool to assess his/her own or the peer's work, where clarifications are needed. Then, YLs can do an exercise to correct or rewrite the text.

A more detailed or an **overall comment** should be written at the end of the text (also using some descriptors from the suggested grid), providing examples, so that a YL is familiar with the progress or where (s)he should work more. A draft and the revised form should be kept by the YL, for example in a FL portfolio, so that it is accessible to the learners and parents to compare it with earlier or later performances (see also Hasselgreen et al., 2011: 19-32).

The Cambridge English exams offer three tests – Starters (below A1), Movers (at A1) and Flyers (at A2 – KET examination) for YLs. The tests cover all four language skills (reading, writing, listening

and speaking) and show progress and achievements of YLs in their English language learning.

Self-assessment

YLs need to be taught how to assess their work or the work of their peers using quality criteria. The targets of their self- and peer assessment should be kind, specific and helpful. YLs should be encouraged to:

1. Identify their success, things they have done well. **This could be done in the GREEN pen so that it is clearly highlighted as self assessment**. It has a great impact on their self-esteem and motivation to continue to improve their work (Clarke, 2003: 133)
2. Identify a place for improvement, areas they need to improve. **This could be done in the ORANGE pen so that it is clearly highlighted as self assessment**. Clarke (2003: 133) suggests that one strategy is to ask a YL to identify a place which could be improved by drawing a wiggly line underneath the sentence or phrase to be improved, ready for a teacher to write an improvement suggestion.
The teacher then writes the explicit state whether progress has been made.
3. Identify their success and make an "on the spot" improvement and make the improvement as part of the lesson. Then the YL writes the **self-reflection comments** of his/her engagement at the task.
4. Finally, the teacher comments the YL's effort.

Peer-assessment

8.2.2. Tips for the curious teacher

Oral feedback interaction strategy

Feedback is the "information that is given to the learner about his or her performance of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance" (Ur, 1996: 242).

Studies show (Stobart, 2006; Bitchener, 2008; Khatri, 2013) that a combination of direct, explicit, focused written **feedback** or comments and one-to-one conference feedback enables the students to improve their FL proficiency (e.g. the use of past tense simple or the definite article) in new pieces of writing or oral performances.

We believe that giving constructive feedback to YLs affects the learners' confidence and enthusiasm for FL learning. Therefore, some improvement prompts are suggested here to provide relevant and specific oral feedback to YLs. They help the YL know how to make the specific improvement and support further learning. Clarke (2003: 83) suggests three types of improvement prompts:

- the reminder prompt: a repetition of the learning intention. This device seems most appropriate for brighter learners, who need less support in making their improvements (e.g. *Say more about the house; Explain this for me; How do you think the man feels in the house*? – the use of the "feeling words" (e.g. sad, happy, bored, tired) is the part of the learning intention);
- the scaffolded prompt: the teacher tries to find a way what (s)he would like the YL to say/write (e.g. *Can you describe the man*?, *How can you end your description/story*?);
- the example prompt: models an example/ choice of possible improvements or asks a YL to provide his/her own idea.

In the grid below you can find some useful improvement suggestions and practical examples how you can offer clear and constructive feedback to your young FL learners in order to develop successful oral assessment criteria.

Improvement Prompts	Types of prompts	Examples
Reminder	Repeat the learning intention	*'Say more about the house.'*
Scaffolded	A sentence given by the T with missing words	*'The man is playing with a ball. It goes up, and it always comes ...'*
	A specific focusing directive	*'We could say he has brown, short hair and wears ...'*
	A specific focusing question	*What's the man going to do?* *What happens next?* *You say the man living in the house is young and big ... how could we make that more interesting? (What does he look like? What's his favourite food / clothes?)*
	Open-ended question/invitation	*Anything else? How can you end your description of the picture?*
Example	Offering two or more alternatives	*Choose one of these, or your own:* *What is his favourite food? Hamburgers? Pizzas?*

Written feedback interaction strategy

In order to help YLs to develop writing skills, FL teachers need to give constructive and understandable feedback so that YLs know how to make the specific improvement. Clarke (2003: 95 – 130) suggests that teacher's improvement suggestions as reminder prompts, scaffolded prompts or example prompts generally fall into the following categories:

1. Elaborating and extending (e.g. *Tell us more* ...)
2. Adding a word or sentence (e.g. *Add one word* ...)
3. Changing the text (e.g. *Find a better word*)
4. Justifying (e.g. *Why* ...?)

The following improvement suggestions are adapted from Clarke (2003), who offers feedback guidelines to teachers providing quality written comments through marking YL's writing in the first language or language of instruction, so that they suit our target group and may be used in foreign language learning.

Categories	Improvement suggestions	Examples
1. Elaborating and extending	Reminding the YL to the learning intention	*Write a description of Jack.* *Explain this for me.* *Write more about the place.*
	Scaffolding prompts, focusing on specifics, details	*What do the animals in the house look like? How do they move?*
	Scaffolding prompts, writing an effective description	*What are Nino's favourite clothes, hobbies, food?* *Describe some important detail. Perhaps:* *He likes ice-cream, so he is now probably somewhere near the ice-cream stand.*
2. Adding a word or sentence	Missing words (e.g. adjectives or adverbs)	*Add some words describing his/her body, hair, eyes, clothes, food.*
	Missing sentences (e.g.	*Can you write two things Tom like*

	describing, retelling)	*doing?*
3. Changing the text	Changing the text (e.g. replacing individual words, sentences, texts)	*Look at the two words I underlined. Can you add some new words to describe your friend, e.g. a funny boy, a childish friend or think of your own?* *Can you think of a better way of writing this sentence?* *I'm not quite sure what happens at the end of your dialogue. Please could you explain it below.*
4. Justifying	Why ...? Because ...	*Why is he scared? Tell me more.* *Why is she jealous?*

8.3. TASKS FOR TRAINING

Your reflections as FL teachers

Aims of the tasks

In these tasks you think about your own experience about assessment procedures in the classroom and reflect how this might affect your initial approaches to assessment with young foreign language (FL) learners.

Task 1

Materials: a piece of paper

Step 1

1. Read the following statements and decide to which extent you agree with each statement. Then, write some key notes about each statement in the table.

1 To a great extent   3 Very little

2 Somewhat   4 Not at all

Statement	1	2	3	4	Notes
I felt good about my assessment at foreign language classes in the primary school.	1	2	3	4	
My foreign language teacher's comments at primary school were very helpful.	1	2	3	4	
I assess my young learners (YLs) in any way on their achievements in a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	
I use numerical grades or marks when I assess my YLs' achievements.	1	2	3	4	
When I assess I provide specific feedback	1	2	3	4	

(e.g. overall comments) to my YLs (e.g. on their vocabulary, grammar, textual structure).					
When I assess I use a red pen and correct everything that is wrong.	1	2	3	4	
When I assess I use correction symbols to indicate errors (e.g. V = vocabulary error, S = spelling error).	1	2	3	4	
I use peer assessment (e.g. YLs give feedback to each other) in my classes.	1	2	3	4	
I encourage my YLs to evaluate their own work.	1	2	3	4	
In my FL classroom my YLs improve their tasks after I have corrected them.	1	2	3	4	
I share the FL assessment criteria (e.g. comments, a scale of points) with my YLs so that they are informed with them while your assessment.	1	2	3	4	
I share the FL assessment criteria with YLs' parents.	1	2	3	4	
Learner is responsible for keeping his/her records on the achievements.	1	2	3	4	

Step 2

Think about which general assessment principles or strategies are effective in assessing young FL learners and how they might affect your initial approaches in primary FL assessment.

Assessing speaking

Aims of the tasks

In these tasks you respond to an example provided by a young learner and his teacher. You then reflect on assessing YL's speaking skills.

Task 2

Materials: a piece of paper

Step 1

1. Read the profile of the young learner.

Profile of the young FL learner 1
- 11-year-old boy, Tim - 3rd year of English study - Class has three 45 minute English lessons a week - Class has learnt the basic vocabulary and language structures (e.g. colours, toys, animals, you and me, clothes, food and drink, in town, weather, face and body, holidays, sports, my family, numbers 1-100, home, school, time and seasons; have/has got, be (is, am, are), singular/plural, irregular plural, there is/are, modal verb can, some/any, a/an, Present Tense Simple, Yes/No questions in Present Tense Simple, WH-questions in Present Tense Simple (Who, What, Where, When, How much, How many).
YLs task
The FL teacher asks Tim some questions to describe a picture.

Profile of the young FL learner
- 9 year old girl, Zana - 1st year of English study - Class has two 45 minute English lessons a week - Class has learnt the basic vocabulary and language structures (e.g. colours, toys, animals, Christmas, school, home, numbers 1-20, friends and family, greetings; have/has got, be (is, am, are), singular/plural, modal verb can).
YLs task
The FL teacher asks Eva some questions to describe a picture.

2. Imagine, you are Tim's <mark>(Zana's)</mark> teacher and you have to assess his/her speaking skills. You have chosen David Hockney's picture A Bigger Splash. You try to lead a dialogue with Timi (Žana) about the picture.
Listen to "your conversation" – Listen to the recording with a dialogue between a teacher and a YL.

David Hockney (1967), A Bigger Splash

A tapescript 1 (teachers hear the dialogue between a teacher and the 11-year old learner).

3. Think about the type of feedback you would provide to Tim/<mark>Zana</mark>. Think about these questions:
a. How will you comment Tim's / <mark>Zana</mark>'s speaking?
b. Will you comment on the organisation, responding, initiation of his/her ideas?
c. Will you provide feedback to his/her communication (even though there were some pauses)?
d. Will you provide feedback on his/her pronunciation, stress and rhythm?
e. Will you comment his/her grammatical errors?
f. Will you comment his/her choice of vocabulary?
g. Will you provide feedback at the end of your conversation?
h. Will you praise his/her effort?

i.   Would you correct his/her speaking errors immediately after (s)he told the incorrect sentence?

j.   Will you give an overall mark to Tim/Zana? If so, what overall mark would you give? What are the reasons for your chosen mark?

k.   Which descriptors for assessing his/her language production and pronunciation, social interaction, and non-linguistic competences in English (please see the grid in the theoretical part) would you use, in order to evidence what Tim/Zana knows or can do at that time?

l.   For grades (extraordinary – very good – acceptable – needs improvement) write down some general descriptors for assessing Tim's/Zana's speaking.

4. a. Imagine, you work with a YL who is not so successful in FL learning. What kind of support, questions, comments, or improvement prompts would you provide in his/her description of a picture (object/person/animal) while assessing his/her speaking in a foreign language?

b. In the introduction to this module you have read that literature suggests different improvement prompts (e.g. the reminder, the scaffolded and the example prompts) for effective feedback to young FL learners.
Listen to the recording one more time.

Write down the questions (improvement prompts) asked by the teacher in a dialogue. Identify the strategies of teacher support or prompts (according to Clarke, 2003) in a conversation with the YL. Indicate how and why the teacher used them. Suggest some (possible) improvements. How would you use them in the class?

Step 2

1. Self-reflection: Which assessment strategies to Tim's /Zana's speaking do you think are effective in assessing your YL's speaking? How might they affect your speaking assessment approaches to develop your YLs' fluency and accuracy in English?

2. Which task types for assessing YL's speaking do you use in your classes? Reflect on why they are useful and how they support your feedback to YLs.

Assessing listening

Aims of the tasks

In these tasks you reflect on assessing YL's listening skills, on criteria for selecting tasks for assessing listening and design task types for assessing listening.

Task 1

Materials: a piece of paper

Step 1

1. What kind of feedback do you provide to your YLs while assessing listening?

a. Do you have clear criteria for how to assess your YLs' listening?
b. Do you tell your YLs how and what will be assessed? Do you share the assessment criteria with your YLs?
c. Do you provide feedback and comments on:
- recognizing the phonemes, rhythms and patterns of English,
- responding appropriately to a nonverbal message, such as body language, gestures or facial expressions,
- understanding and following simple oral messages in context,
- identifying simple details in oral texts (e.g. colours), even though they include some unknown structures,
- comprehending the overall sense of texts (e.g. stories),
- understanding and following in social situations in the classroom. If so, how?
d. Do you use observation checklists with detailed descriptors for assessing YLs' listening skills? How do they support YL's further FL development?
e. Do you use marking schemes or rating scales (e.g. *5 – excellent; while listening to a text you can match the names of all the animals we learnt; 4 – very good; while listening to a text you can match the names of animals well; 3 – good but you could do better; you can match the names of some of the animals. What about the rest?; 2 – Try harder! You can do it!; You can try harder to match the names of the animals. Would you like that? Can I help you?*)
f. How do you explain what overall mark one YL has received?

Step 2

1. What kind of feedback and comments to assessing listening are effective for your YLs?

How might they affect your listening assessment approaches and your future planning for scaffolding your YLs' listening skills in English?

2. What criteria should FL teachers follow for selecting tasks for assessing listening?

3. In the introduction to this module you have read that literature suggests different listening tasks for assessing listening comprehension:

- 'Listen and do' tasks requiring action responses,
- 'Listen and do' tasks requiring short language responses,
- Listening tasks requiring longer responses.

For each category develop or collect your own examples (at least one) and explain the main assessment points.

4. Why do you think that the suggested listening assessment tasks are effective in your FL classroom? How can you improve your suggested assessment listening-only tasks?

Do you give listening tasks that let your YLs demonstrate that they have the abilities you are assessing them on?

Assessing reading

Aims of the tasks

In these tasks you reflect on assessing YL's reading skills in your class and experience the running record method for assessing YLs' reading aloud. Then you reflect on the method.

Task 1

Materials: a text, a mobile phone to record the reading, a coding scheme

Step 1

1. Reflect on the following:

Are your YLs efficient readers in a foreign language? Why or why not?

Which effective reading strategies do you use in your FL classes?

How do these effective reading strategies affect on assessing reading?

2. Do you assess the reading of your YLs?

Do you have clear criteria for how to assess your YLs' reading? Do you share them with your YLs?

What kind of feedback do you provide to your YL? Do you provide feedback and comments on:

- understanding and following of written messages at the word or sentence level;
- understanding the overall sense of short written texts (e.g. true/false);
- extracting specific information from brief texts (e.g. familiar topics, finding the correct picture/character, reading and drawing);
- understanding and following of brief written messages (e.g. matching questions to the answers, putting short paragraphs in the right order),
- reading aloud,
- understanding and following in (written) social situations in the classroom?

3. How effective are these comments to assessing YL's reading?

How might they affect your reading assessment approaches and your future planning for scaffolding your YLs' reading skills in English?

Step 2

Running records

Here you will find a reading aloud method of an unknown text which informs the teacher of particular reading problems a YL might need help with.

1. Imagine, you choose one YL in your class to read aloud a text so that you can assess his reading skills (while the rest of the class try to solve some other activities). Imagine, that you use your mobile phone to record your YL's reading text aloud.

You record miscues (see example below) in the text, focusing on the following coding scheme:

Coding
A problem word: put a straight line above the word, e.g. *pencil-case*
A word that is read correctly but misunderstood: put a line underneath the word, e.g. *pencil-case*
SC   Self-correction: write SC above the word, e.g. *under*
If a student substitutes the word, write that word above the replaced word: *cable*   *table*
If a student leaves out a word, write this line: /
Intonation problems: ..... ? (should have a question intonation)   .... ! (other types of wrong intonation)

| |
|---|
| + big |
| Added words: put + (if a YL added a word), e.g. on the chair |
| Add more here, if necessary |
| |
| |
| |

Source: Adjusted from Hasselgreen, A., Valedaité, K., Maldonado-Martin, N. and Pizorn, K. (2011). *Assessment of Young Learner Literacy Linked* to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Graz: ECML.

A following text for the running record method might be used (for 8-9 year-old learners). For 10 to 12 year olds Hasselgreen et al. (2011) suggest to use storybooks to assess their reading.

2 Read and colour. Preberi in pobarvaj.

The brown hamster is under the table and the black hamster is on the chair. The pink pencil-case is on the table and the orange pencil-case is in the school bag. The green pencil is under the table and the blue pencil is in the pink pencil-case. The red apple is on the table and the green apple is under the chair.
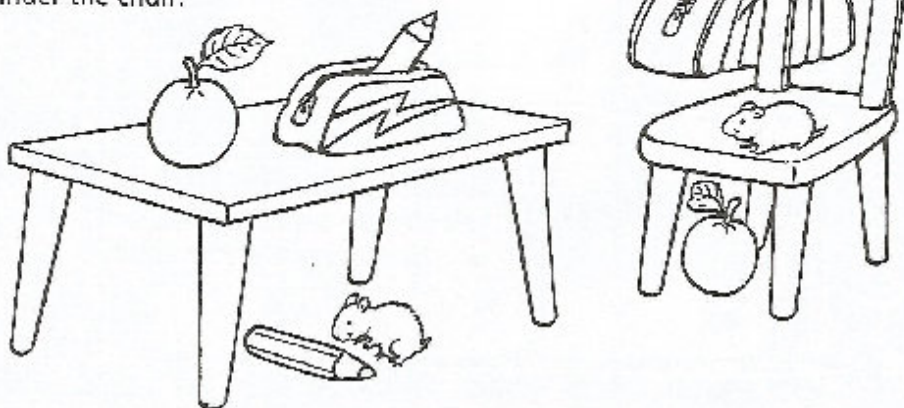
Source: Maidment, S., Roberts, L. (2009). *Happy Street 1*, Work Book. Oxford: OUP, p. 50.

2. After reading, you read the text and the YL listens to it.

3. YL retells the text or answers questions about the text so that you check for comprehension.

4. Then, you and the YL together analyze the coding scheme (see example below) and while listening to the recording from the mobile phone (together with the text), you both focus on the reading "problems" and discuss particular weaknesses to further develop his/her reading ability.

Have a look at one example of a FL teacher's reading record:

Cable   _____

The brown hamster is under the ==table== and the black hamster in on the ==chair==. The pink

_____   _____

                    ___ _____   _____
==pencil-case== is on the table and the ==orange pencil-case== is in the school bag. The green ==pencil==

  _SC_   /
                    _____   _____
is ==under== the table and the blue ==pencil== is in the pink ==pencil-case==. The red apple is on the table

                    /
                    _____
and the green apple is under the ==chair==.

5. Think about how effective is the method in assessing YLs' reading skills. How would you improve the method? How would you improve the coding scheme? Any other comments to the method? Could the suggested method enhance assessment in your classes?

Assessing writing

Marking Codes

Aims of the tasks

In these tasks you use marking symbols as a means to give written feedback, then reflect on the value of using these literacy codes in assessing YL's writing.
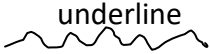
Task 2

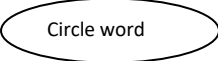Materials: a piece of paper

Step 1

1. Make a list of symbols or literacy codes you use when assessing YLs written achievements in a foreign language.
   If you do not use symbols or literacy codes when responding to YLs' written achievements, invent five symbols (e.g. S = spelling) you might use in your FL classes.
2. Add to your list some symbols which you could use to give positive feedback. Include the meaning of your symbols (e.g. ☺ = good/excellent work).

Step 2

1. In the following table there are some marking codes that a FL teacher might use when responding to YL's written achievement. In the middle column is a short description what it means. Add any extra symbols from the previous task (use your own symbol list) which you would like to use in your classes.
2. In the right-hand column of the table, think of one example of each type of an error and write it down in the table. An example has been done for you.

Marking codes

Mark symbol	Means ...	Example

~~underline~~~	Try this spelling again.	
P	Punctuation error.	
V	Verb tense error.	
1 2 3	Incorrect word order.	
(Circle word)	Wrong word used. Find and correct it.	Line 8: His aunt is wearing a beautiful goat. coat.
✓✓	Excellent use of language.	
:)	I like it. Well done.	
?	I don't understand. Rewrite it to improve the expression.	
//	New paragraph. Mark in where it should be.	
. . .	Develop your explanation further.	
D	You need to add more detail.	
(Add more here)		

Step 3

1. Following you will find a text written by an 11-year-old learner who has been learning English for 3 years. Imagine, you are this learner's teacher. You are going to use symbols to respond to his written work. Before doing that, think about these questions:

- What colour ink will you use?
- Which errors will you indicate (e.g. all his errors, or only those which interfere with understanding)?
- How will you indicate the errors (e.g. circle them, underline them with a wavy line)? Will you write the correct form of the errors?
- Will you use marking symbols to give feedback? If so, which ones.
- Where will you write comments (e.g. in the margins, in the body of the text above each error, in a separate paragraph at the end)?
- Will you comment on the organisation of his ideas?
- Will you provide feedback about the content of his work?
- Will you give an overall mark? If so, how will you decide on your mark?

2. Then, use your chosen marking symbols and write them directly in the written text, as if you were his teacher and you are going to hand it back to the YL.

Reflect on your reasons for responding in the way you did.

3. How effective are these comments to assessing YL's writing?

How might they affect your writing assessment approaches and your future planning for scaffolding your YLs' writing skills in English?

MY BEST FRIEND

My best friend has brown eyes and short brown hair. He's tall and thin. He's favorite colour is black. Today he has black trousers, blue T-shirt and grey socks. He's shoes are trainers and they are black.

He doesn't train any sport but he can play video games very well. I, Ismi, Niki and Bobi play tanki online together. Ismi is my best friend because we play videogames together, we play together and he's friendly, nice.

He's favorite food is pizza and he likes too drinq aple juice.

Improvement suggestions in writing

Aims of the tasks

In these tasks you use improvement suggestions as a means to give written feedback to YLs, and then reflect on the value of using these improvement suggestions in classes.

Task 2

Materials: a copy of young learners' texts

Step 1

In the introduction to this module you have read that literature suggests different improvement prompts or suggestions (see the grid below) for effective feedback to young FL learner's writing.

1. Read the texts in the grid written by some young FL learners and provide your comments to individual written situations. Think of your own comments to the texts, according to the categories suggested by Clarke (2003) as you see them in the left column of the grid, and write them down.
2. Then, put yourself in a position of a YL and provide an example of the improved text.
3. How effective are the improvement suggestions in providing feedback comments to your YLs?

Improvement suggestions	YL's written texts	Comments
Reminding the YL to the learning intention **Elaborating and extending**	*Jack is my friend. He lives in Slovenia. He's got a dog Spotty.* YL's improvement:	
Scaffolding prompts, focusing on specifics, details **Elaborating and extending**	*There are parrots. Parrots are red, green and blue.* YL's improvement:	
Scaffolding prompts, writing an effective description **Elaborating and**	*We can see the island and the blue sea.* YL's improvement:	

extending		
Missing words (e.g. adjectives or adverbs) **Adding a word or sentence**	*This is my schoolbag. You can find normal things in it. Let me see, I've got notebooks, course-books and workbooks.* YL's improvement:	
Missing sentences (e.g. describing, retelling) **Adding a word or sentence**	Tom is a good friend. He is funny and talkative. He's got a hamster and a cat. YL's improvement:	
Changing the text (e.g. replacing individual words, sentences, texts) **Changing the text**	*Kaya: Here's a present for you, Nina. I hope you like my bracelet. I made it for you.* *Nina: Oh, how nice. Thanks.* *Mum: It's late and tomorrow is another day, girls.* *Kaya: Bye.* YL's improvement:	
Why …? **Justifying**	*Luka is jealous of his sister.* YL's improvement:	

Some possible suggestions:

Improvement suggestions	YL's written texts	Comments
Reminding the YL to the learning intention **Elaborating and extending**	*Jack is my friend. He lives in Slovenia. He's got a dog Spotty.* YL's improvement: *Jack has got short, brown hair. He is funny and always happy. He likes sport and he can play volleyball well.*	*Write a description of Jack (his hair, eyes, hobbies, what is he like).*
Scaffolding prompts, focusing on specifics, details **Elaborating and extending**	*There are parrots. Parrots are red, green and blue.* YL's improvement: *There are parrots. Parrots are red, green and blue. They have a yellow beak and two legs with claws. They can fly and are funny. Some can talk.*	*What do the parrots look like? How do they move?* *What can some do?*
Scaffolding prompts, writing an effective description **Elaborating and extending**	*We can see the island and the blue sea.* YL's improvement: *We can see the island and the blue sea. There is a palm tree and coconuts. I see a brown crab and a jellyfish. I see people like ants.*	*What can you see at the seaside? Fish? Birds? People? Trees?* *Describe what you see there. Perhaps:* *A palm tree looks like a stick.* *A crab looks like a small stone.* *People look like ants.*
Missing words (e.g. adjectives or adverbs)	*This is my schoolbag. You can find normal things in it. Let me see, I've got notebooks, course-books and workbooks.*	*Let's use some additional words, describing the things that you have in your schoolbag (e.g. numbers, colours, size).*

Adding a word or sentence	YL's improvement: *This is my schoolbag. You can find normal and <u>strange</u> things in it. Let me see, I've got <u>eight blue and green</u> notebooks, <u>three big</u> course-books, <u>three small</u> course-books and <u>five middle-sized</u> workbooks.*	*OR* *Nina, use numbers, colours, the size to describe the books in your schoolbag, like two blue notebooks or middle-sized course-books.*
Missing sentences (e.g. describing, retelling) **Adding a word or sentence**	Tom is a good friend. He is funny and talkative. He's got a hamster and a cat. YL's improvement: *Tom likes sport and he can play golf well. We play computer games together, especially Dirty Blob.*	*Can you write two more things Tom like doing? What do you do together?*
Changing the text (e.g. replacing individual words, sentences, texts) **Changing the text**	*Kaya: Here's a present for you, Nina. I hope you like my bracelet. I made it for you.* *Nina: Oh, how nice. Thanks.* *Mum: It's late and tomorrow is another day, girls.* *Kaya: Bye.* YL's improvement: *Kaya: Have you got a mobile phone, Nina?* *Nina: Yes, it's 040 895 963. What about you?* *Kaya: Wait a minute. My number is 041 741 123.* *Nina: Thanks. See you tomorrow on the*	*Can you think a better way of writing the end of your dialogue?* *I'm not quite sure what happens at the end. Please could you add some more.*

	beach. *Kaya: Bye.*	
Why ...? **Justifying**	*Luka is jealous of his sister.* YL's improvement: *Because his mum always helps her instead of him.*	*Why is he jealous of his sister? Tell me more.*

Assessment on Interculturality

1. Do you discuss about target/other culture and customs (e.g. music, food, clothes, language) in your classroom? If yes, do you talk about how different the people from other countries are, how they behave?

Do you compare them to your own culture?

Do you ask your YLs about what advice would you give to people coming from other countries and cultures?

Do you discuss with YLs if they have ever felt confused by the actions of someone from another culture? If so, how?

Do you talk about the most important values of your own culture and cultures from other countries or regions?

Do you discuss about changing things in your own/other cultures, what would it be like?

2. Which activities, strategies for comparing your own and other culture do you use in your FL classes? About which critical incidents, e.g. presenting people with a situation and asking 'what would you do', do you talk about in your classroom?

Reflect on why they are useful and how they support developing the intercultural awareness in your classes? How might they affect YLs' cultural diversity awareness?

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The recording is developed by the Slovenian teacher Nevenka Jesenik and her student Tim at the Duplek Primary School, Slovenia.