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Department of Philology**

**TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES OF EFFECTIVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE
TEACHING**

Bachelor's Thesis

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INTRODUCTION

The present thesis is about different methods of teaching foreign languages. For the last 20 years, connections have been becoming inevitable among nations, states, organizations, and countries, creating a huge need for knowing another language or more multilingualism. People need to use international languages in trade, tourism, international relations between governments, technology, science and media. There are many methods of teaching languages. A teaching method comprises the principles and methods used for instruction. The choice of an appropriate teaching method depends mainly on the information or skill being taught, and it may also be influenced by the aptitude and enthusiasm of the students. For effective teaching to take place, a good method must be adopted by a teacher. A teacher has many options when choosing a style by which to teach. The teacher may write lesson plans of their own, borrow plans from other teachers, or search online or within books for lesson plans. When deciding what teaching method to use, a teacher needs to consider students' background knowledge, environment, and learning goals. The efficiency of a teaching approach differs from one individual to the next and from one activity to the next. The transfer of information is the purpose of teaching by making pupils do, read, and listen, although the information is communicated in quite different ways.

The *subject matter* of the present paper is effective foreign language teaching using different language teaching methods and tools.

The *object matter* of this study is to give some ideas on effective foreign language teaching methods and tools.

The *theoretical value* of this work is to introduce some approaches and tools of foreign language teaching and its stages.

The *practical value* of the paper lies in presenting the findings of the empirical research showing the students' future teaching habits.

The *aim* of the present thesis is to describe the language teaching methods and describe when can we use the different tools in foreign language teaching.

According to the aim of the present research, the following tasks can be outlined:

- to write down the history of language teaching approaches;
- to describe the different methods of foreign language teaching;
- to describe the tools and techniques of foreign language teaching;
- research the students' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching.

The thesis is divided into an introduction, three parts, a conclusion, a list of literature review, a conclusion, a Ukrainian summary and appendices. The first part of the thesis outlines a historical overview of foreign language teaching methods. The second part of this work describes some of the tools and techniques of foreign language teaching.

The third part contains the empirical research conducted in the Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education with 50 participants. The main instrument of the research is a questionnaire designed to find out the students' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching. Furthermore, it helps to get an insight into future teaching habits among students. All questions can be found in the questionnaire attached in the Appendices.

PART 1

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING METHOD

Language teaching approaches have progressed from being based on dogmatic views about the sole good way to teach to being based on understanding foreign language acquisition processes and the dynamics of the language classroom.

The teaching of Latin was the basis for the first conceptualisations of language teaching. In the seventeenth century, European vernacular languages began to be studied as foreign languages (FLs). They were taught using the grammar-translation technique, just like Latin when they were made into school subjects.

For many years, the grammar-translation technique was the dominant method, typified by the formal teaching of the ancient languages (Latin and Greek).

Language analysis, memorisation of paradigms, and difficult grammatical rules were designed to train the student's thinking so that they could read and translate literary writings and learn to compose similar texts. However, the FL was rarely utilised in class, and no linguistic communication skills were created.

By the end of the nineteenth century, there was a lot of opposition to the grammar-translation technique, which manifested itself in a variety of new methods. Their shared thought was that a language is learned through direct associations between foreign words and the objects and acts they signify rather than through the home tongue. The new approaches were dubbed the "direct method" by the general public. (Larsen-Freeman, Long, 1991.)

The importance of pronunciation was boosted by the insistence on the FL as the medium of instruction and the growth of phonetics as a subject at the time. The learner was an active participant in the educational process because the grammar was taught inductively. It was also taught functionally, which means that the grammar structures taught were based on what was most commonly employed in speech. Speaking came before reading, and reading was handled in such a way that guessing meaning from context was encouraged. According to several experts, the method's most significant benefit is that the student is actively involved. Over time, several changes to the direct technique have kept it alive for a long time.

The reading approach, which originated in the United States, was based on a pragmatic appraisal of what could be truly mastered in the short, usually two-year period that learners spent on average acquiring FLs. Experts in language training decided that the most a learner could expect to achieve were the capacity to read and understand FL texts without translating them. They felt that if learners could master reading comprehension to a certain amount, they would be able to continue learning on their own. On the other hand, the approach was mostly utilised in language

courses that were too short to provide learners with sufficient language competence to manage authentic reading texts.

In the 1920s and 1930s, oral skills overtook written skills due to rapid technological advancements, societal shifts, and new communication needs. The 'audio-lingual technique,' as it was known at that time, was founded on and inspired by discoveries discovered by structural linguists and behaviourists. According to a descriptive approach to language, language learning was viewed as a culturally and socially determined process of habit formation. As a result, new approaches to teaching FLs emerged, emphasising the primacy of speech over writing, the native speaker's supreme authority, the importance of teaching the language itself rather than about the language, the need to remember that languages differ, and the importance of viewing language learning as habit formation. In addition, some teaching gurus at the time emphasised the visual element (usually in the form of a picture) as a means of conveying content and context. As a result of this trend, the audio-visual technique was developed. For a few decades, another structuralism-based technique was popular in several parts of Europe. Petar Guberina of Zagreb and Paul Rivenc of Saint-Cloud invented the audio-visual global structural (AVGS) technique. This method was developed on the premise that a foreign language is best learned when it is delivered in global language structures (chunks of language) using auditory and visual stimuli (Nunan, 1998).

However, as a result of Chomsky's views about language and the growing importance of psychology, a new method – cognitive code learning – emerged. Proponents of the new approach maintained that language learning indicated a rule that governed creativity, rejecting behaviourism's passive recipient posture. Learning was supposed to be a problem-solving exercise in which students sought out the rules that explain how the language works. This implied that the learner was a part of the process and had some control over it. Although cognitive code learning is not widely recognised as a language teaching method, it is significant as a reaction to an era in which audio-lingualism had a significant impact on language teaching and as the possible cause of another reaction – the so-called alternative methods of the 1970s, which were humanistically oriented (Medved, Krajnovic, 2005.)

According to Chomsky, effective elements such as attitudes, motivation, and language anxiety were emphasised in humanistic approaches. (Chomsky, 1957.) Several strategies founded on humanistic tenets gained prominence during the 1970s. Community language learning (CLL) (also known as counselling learning) is based on the work of Charles Curran. He advocated for group cohesiveness and teacher-student trust to guarantee the desired emotional climate in which students are not defensive but responsive to learning. Gattegno's silent manner is founded on the notion that teaching should be learner-centred and subjugated to learning since the inner state of

the learner is of primary importance. The approach employs coloured rods to assist the teacher in speaking less and allowing pupils to speak more. (Curran, 1976.)

The concept of holistic learning underpins suggestopedia. According to Lozanov, the method's originator, it can be done if learners are brought to a deep level of relaxation. This can be achieved through rhythmic breathing and listening to FL texts while listening to particular music that engages crucial sections of the brain's left hemisphere. Asher's entire physical response is based on his first language learning experiences. It begins with a latent period that occurs before speaking. Students are exposed to a large amount of understandable information during this time and must demonstrate their understanding by following the teacher's orders (Lozanov, 1978).

Krashen and Terrell created the natural approach in the early 1980s. The method is based on Krashen's monitor theory and follows what is sometimes referred to as foreign language learning tradition. One of the theory's fundamental premises is that the only valuable knowledge of a language may be learned through acquisition, an unconscious process similar to first language acquisition. Negative feelings can cause major problems since they can interfere with learning and manifest themselves as an affective filter. Teaching should take this into account. Within the natural method, the teacher should deliver comprehensible material that is fine-tuned to a level somewhat higher than the learners' current level of competence. The emphasis in the classroom should be on meaning rather than form, and the atmosphere should be upbeat to keep the affective filter low (Medved, Krajnovic, 2005).

1.1 Grammar Translation Approach

Grammar Translation, as the names of some of its most prominent proponents suggest, arose from German scholarship. According to one of its harshest opponents, the goal was "to know everything there is to know about anything rather than the item itself." The Prussian Method was the first name for grammar-translation in the United States (Richard, Rogers, 1986). The Grammar-Translation Method has the following main characteristics:

- The purpose of foreign language study is to learn a language so that you can read its literature or so that you may benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual growth that comes with it. Grammar Translation is a method of learning a language that begins with a detailed examination of its grammar principles and then applies that knowledge to the work of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language. As a result, it considers language acquisition to be little more than memorising rules and facts to comprehend and control the morphology and syntax of a foreign language. In acquiring a foreign language, the first language serves as a reference system.

- Reading and writing are emphasised, with speaking and listening receiving little or no attention.
- Words are taught using bilingual word lists, dictionary research, and memory, and vocabulary is chosen based on the reading texts. The grammar principles are provided and illustrated, a list of vocabulary items is presented with their translation equivalents, and translation tasks are recommended in a typical Grammar-Translation text.
- The sentence is the most fundamental unit of instruction and language practice. The focus on the sentence is a distinguishing element of the technique, with much of the session devoted to translating sentences into and out of the target language. Grammar was previously utilised as a tool to aid in studying foreign language literature, but this was deemed too difficult for secondary school pupils; therefore, the concentration on the sentence was an attempt to make language learning more accessible.
- The need for accuracy is highlighted. Because the high priority attached to meticulous standards of accuracy, which, in addition to having an intrinsic moral value, was a prerequisite for passing the increasing number of formal written examinations that grew up during the century, students are expected to achieve high standards in translation.
- Grammar is taught deductively, which means that grammar rules are presented and studied before being practised through translation problems. In most Grammar-Translation texts, there was an attempt to teach grammar in an ordered and organised manner, and a syllabus was followed to sequence grammar elements across a work.
- The medium of instruction is the student's native language. It is utilised to introduce new concepts and make analogies between the foreign language and the student's native tongue. (Howatt, 1984.)

From the 1840s through the 1940s, grammar-translation dominated European and foreign language teaching, and it is still widely employed in various parts of the world today in a modified version. As Howatt points out, it was not always the terror that its detractors painted it to be at its best. Its most heinous excesses were established by individuals who sought to show that learning French or German was just as demanding as learning classical languages. This resulted in the type of Grammatical Translation classes despised by thousands of school students, for whom studying a foreign language meant memorising interminable lists of useless grammar rules and terminology and attempting to make perfect translations of stilted or literary prose. Although the Grammar-Translation Method frequently causes students to get frustrated, it places less obligations on teachers. It is still utilised in settings when the major goal of foreign language training is to grasp literary texts, and there is little requirement for speaking skills. Grammar-translation concepts are frequently reflected in contemporary literature for teaching foreign languages at the college level.

These publications are usually written by people with a literary background rather than a language teaching or applied linguistics background. As a result, while it is true that the grammar-translation method is still frequently used, it has no supporters. It is a method for which no theory exists. No literature provides a reason or justification for it or that seeks to connect it to linguistic, psychological, or educational theory difficulties.

Opposition to the grammar-translation method grew in numerous European countries during the mid- and late-nineteenth century. But, as it was known, the Reform Movement laid the groundwork for creating new methods of language teaching and sparked debates that have lasted to this day. (Howatt, 1984).

1.2 Direct Approach

The direct method should be linked to the target language without being translated into the original tongue. The goal is to give language learners a realistic tool for understanding communication. It is beneficial to mention something in order to comprehend the conversation. Rather than translating the teaching materials, the teacher is expected to directly utilise the target language in class, as this is the most effective way to teach a language. The teacher should not explain the meaning but rather correlate it with action and demonstration. Learners who are learning about a certain subject are instilling grammar principles through illustration and demonstration at this time. The teacher-student and student-student activities are acted upon by this strategy. In this strategy, new vocabulary is taught by employing familiar words, with great attention paid to correct pronunciation. (Larsen-Freeman, 2000.)

This language is the most extensively spoken and is beneficial to learn when students utilise it in the classroom. The Direct Method, also known as the Natural Method, is a popular method that allows students to complete a certain task. It allows students to communicate with others by sharing or exchanging information in a foreign language that consists of a collection of sounds or written symbols. The Natural Method, which is utilised in everyday communication, also focuses on the answer question session, which focuses on the teaching language. The primary objective of this method is to deal with the meaning of words, expressive gestures, and linguistic achievement that are closely tied to the picture of something in your mind that you think of and have such a clear memory or notion of that you appear to be able to see it. (Larsen-Freeman, 2000.)

Rivers demonstrate that children always learn how to convey language through hearing and speaking in a way that is dependent on the best action. Because the teacher-student relationship is intimately associated with the skill development process, they rely on learner-learner contact. On the other hand, the student role is less passive in that they do not take action in comparison to the

Grammar-Translation Method. The learning-teaching process includes the teacher's involvement as well as that of the students. (Rivers, 1968.)

The Direct Method aids learners in comprehending language and aids in language ease. The language is based on the use of sentences to communicate with one another rather than words that aid children in learning the previous speech. The direct method has an impact on the target language by providing the finest instruction for teaching skills, specific information, and classroom dialogue. Through the activities of the Direct Method, which are usually lively and fascinating, the students' interest in learning a foreign language is piqued. Students can quickly grasp if teachers adopt a direct manner because this strategy improves students' communication skills. (Viator, 1882.)

The Direct Method criticises teachers who communicate in a native-like manner. According to Duchakova, the students who have no opportunities for language skills unless that native like ability is effected by teachers through the achievement of Direct method that influences the teachers' ability to do something well. A good and successful Direct Method instructor must have language skills, physical mental energy, strength, imagination (the ability to develop mental pictures or ideas of things that excite you), and good health. That must be inventive in the way of body gestures and expression in the method of teaching language by the proof that are against linguistic feelings of physical or mental exhaustion. (Duchakova, 2006.)

1.3 Audiolingual Approach

American linguists in the 1950s, proposed a theory, known as structural linguistics, which became the basis for audiolingualism. In the 1950s, linguistics had blossomed as a thriving academic discipline, with the structural theory of language serving as its foundation. Traditional grammar was a source of inspiration for structural linguistics. Traditional methods to language education had linked language studies to philosophy and a mentalist approach to grammar. Grammar was regarded to be a part of logic, and Indo-European languages' grammatical categories were assumed to represent ideal categories in languages. By the 1930s, it was assumed that the scientific method of language study consisted of gathering instances of what speakers said and studying them according to several levels of a structural organisation rather than Latin grammar categories. A sophisticated methodology for collecting and analysing data emerged, which involved phonetically transcribing spoken utterances in a language and then figuring out the phonemic, morphological (stems, prefixes, suffixes, etc.) and syntactic (clauses, sentence types) systems that underpin the grammar of the language. Phonemes, morphemes, words, structures, and sentence kinds were all considered as structurally connected factors for the encoding of meaning

in language. These features were referred to as structural: (a) In the past, elements in a language were assumed to be formed in a rule-governed (organised) manner. (b) At any structural level of description, language samples could be exhaustively described (phonetic, phonemic, morphological, etc.). (c) Linguistic levels were viewed as systems within systems or pyramidally constructed; phonemic systems led to morphemic systems, which led to higher-level systems such as phrases, clauses, and sentences. (Darian, 1972.)

It was considered that learning a language entailed mastering the language's parts or building blocks and learning the principles by which these elements are joined, from phoneme to morpheme to word to phrase to sentence. The phonological system defines phonemes (sound parts that contrast meaningfully in language), allophones (phonetic realisations in specific situations), and permitted sequences (phonetic realisations in specific environments) (phonotactics). The language's phonological and grammatical systems organise the language and, by extension, the units of production and comprehension. The grammatical system is made up of a set of grammatical elements and rules for combining them into words, phrases, and sentences in a linear order. The addition, deletion, and transposition of elements are all part of rule-ordered processes. (Moulton, 1961.)

The primary medium of language is oral, according to structural linguistics: speech is language. It was suggested that language is "mainly what is spoken and only secondarily what is written" because many languages do not have a written form, and we learn to talk before we learn to read or write. As a result, it was anticipated that speech would take precedence in language instruction. This ran counter to prevalent perceptions of the relationship between spoken and written forms of language, as it had long been considered that language existed primarily as symbols recorded on paper and that spoken language was merely a poor embodiment of the pure written version. This scientific method of language analysis looked to lay the groundwork for a scientific method of language instruction. (Richard, Rogers, 1986.)

1.4 Communicative Language Teaching

It is better to think of Communicative Language Teaching as an approach rather than a method. Although there is a considerable degree of theoretical consistency at language and learning theory levels, there is far more space for individual interpretation and variation at the levels of design and process than most methods allow. It is possible that one version of the different recommendations for syllabus models, exercise kinds, and classroom activities could achieve widespread acceptance in the future, elevating Communicative Language Teaching to the level of

other teaching approaches. Divergent interpretations, on the other hand, may result in homogeneous subgroups.

When British language teaching was in desperate need of a paradigm shift, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged. Situational Language Teaching was no longer considered an appropriate methodology for the 1970s and beyond. CLT appealed to people who desired a more humanistic approach to education, one that prioritised interactive communication processes. According to Chomsky, the communicative approach's rapid adoption and implementation was aided by the fact that it quickly gained orthodoxy in British language teaching circles, receiving the approval and support of leading British applied linguists, language specialists, publishers, and institutions such as the British Council. (Chomsky, 1957.)

However, now that the initial buzz has died down, some of CLT's assertions are being scrutinised more closely. The use of a communicative approach poses fundamental questions about teacher preparation, materials development, and assessment and evaluation. Questions have been raised about whether a communicative approach can be used at all levels of a language program, whether it is equally suited to ESL and EFL situations, whether it requires existing grammar-based syllabi to be abandoned or simply revised, how such an approach can be evaluated, how suitable it is for non-native teachers, and how it can be implemented in situations where students must continue to take grammar-based tests. If the communicative movement in language teaching continues to gain traction in the future, these kinds of questions will undoubtedly require addressing. (Richard, Rogers, 1986.)

1.5 Silent Way

Caleb Gattegno came up with the Silent Way technique of language instruction. It is predicated on the idea that the teacher should be as silent as possible in the classroom while the learner is encouraged to produce as many words as feasible. Gattegno's past expertise as an educational designer of reading and mathematics programs inspired elements of the Silent Way, particularly the use of colour charts and coloured Cuisenaire rods. Other learning theories and educational philosophies have a lot in common with The Silent Way. The learning hypotheses that underpin Gattegno's work might be summarised as follows: learning is aided when the student discovers or creates rather than memorises and repeats what has been taught.

The Silent Way is part of a tradition that sees learning as a problem-solving, creative, and finding activity in which the learner plays a central role rather than being a passive listener. Bruner divides the advantages of "discovery learning" into four categories: (a) increased intellectual potency, (b) the shift from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards, (c) the discovery of heuristics, and (d) the

aid to memory conservation. Learners taught in the Silent Way, according to Gattegno, reap similar benefits. (Brunner, 1966.)

Despite the philosophical and nearly metaphysical nature of most of Gattegno's writings, the Silent Way's real practices are far less revolutionary than one might imagine. Working from a rather traditional structural and lexical syllabus, the method exemplifies many of the characteristics that distinguish more traditional methods, such as Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingualism, with a strong focus on accurate repetition of sentences modelled initially by the teacher and a movement to freer communication through guided elicitation exercises. The way classroom activities are organised, the indirect role the teacher is required to assume in directing and monitoring learner performance, the responsibility placed on learners to figure out and test their hypotheses about how the language works, and the materials used to elicit and practice language are all examples of Gattegno's method's innovations. (Richard, Rogers, 1986.)

1.6 Community Language Learning

In terms of sensitivity to learner communicative purpose, Community Language Learning is the most responsive of the strategies. It should be recognised, however, that the number and knowledge of fellow students limit this communication aim. The CLL class is unlikely to respond adequately to a learner's need to understand or communicate technical vocabulary used in aeronautical engineering. The obligations placed on language teachers by Community Language Learning are unusual. They must understand and sympathise with counsellors' function in psychological counselling. They must fight the pressure to "teach" in the traditional sense of the word.

The teacher must also be somewhat nondirective, accepting and even encouraging the learner's "adolescent" hostility as he or she fights for independence. To shape and motivate the class, the instructor must work without traditional materials and rely on student topics. Furthermore, the teacher must be ready to cope with potentially hostile student reactions to the method. The teacher must also be culturally aware and willing to reorganise the language lesson in more culturally appropriate ways. And the teacher will have to try to master these new duties and skills without much help from the CLL texts that are now available. In most cases, additional training in community language learning strategies is required.

Critics of Community Language Learning dispute whether the counselling metaphor on which it is based is acceptable, and they want proof that language learning in classrooms is comparable to the processes that characterise psychiatric counselling. Teachers are also debating whether or not they should undertake counselling without specialised training. Procedures for CLL

mainly were developed and evaluated with college-aged Americans. The difficulties and triumphs encountered by one or two diverse client groups may not always represent universals in language learning. Other issues have been raised about the lack of a syllabus, which makes objectives unclear and evaluation impossible, as well as the emphasis on fluency rather than accuracy, which could lead to poor control of the target language's grammatical system. CLL proponents, on the other hand, underline the advantages of a technique that focuses on the learner and emphasises the humanistic aspects of language learning rather than just the linguistic ones. (Curran, 1976.)

1.7 Functional Notional Approach

Any language teaching strategy that draws the content of learning from an initial study of the learner's desire to articulate three different forms of meaning is referred to as a "functional-notional approach." Functional (i.e., the utterance's social purpose); Modal (probability); Conceptual – meaning relations indicated by forms inside the sentence (categories of communicative function). These language education methods, along with others, are classified as communicative approaches. The method emphasises a way of organising a language curriculum. The focus is on breaking down the global idea of language into units of analysis in terms of communicative contexts.

D.A. Wilkins, a British linguist, issued a document in 1972 proposing a radical change away from traditional conceptions of grammar and vocabulary to a study of the communicative meanings that learners would require in order to properly express themselves and understand. This was followed by his 1976 work *Notional Syllabuses*, which demonstrated how language might be classified using concepts like quantity, location, time, and tasks like making requests, offering offers, and apologising. The Council of Europe used Wilkins' work to create a communicative language syllabus, which defined the communicative functions that a learner would require to communicate effectively at a certain level of competence. The first coursebooks based on functional syllabuses began to appear at the end of the 1970s. They'd usually be organised by particular functions and the exponents required to express these functions. These would frequently be practised through communicative activities such as pair work, group work, and role-plays. Comparing this technique to a grammatical curriculum is instructive. Structures containing the word 'would' tend to appear later in a typical grammatical syllabus because they are considered to be relatively complex, whereas in a functional syllabus, 'would' often appears very early due to its communicative significance in exponents, which is extremely common and of great communicative value even to beginners. Within the scope of a purely functional syllabus, the necessity to assign a grammatical term or category to the structure is not regarded as important.

Functional-notional is a language education style that falls within the communicative approach, along with others. The method emphasises a way of organising a language curriculum. This viewpoint suggests that skill levels should be classified based on what people want to perform with the language (functions) or the meanings they wish to transmit (notions). The communicative purposes of speech or speaking skills are emphasised heavily in a Functional Notional Approach to language learning. That is what people aim to achieve or do using communication. In language instruction, the Functional Notional Approach to Language assists the teacher in identifying and analysing the needs of the student in order to create a syllabus that also teaches the purposes of speech. (Finocchiaro, Brumfit, 1983.)

1.8 Total Physical Response Approach

Dr. James J Asher developed TPR, which stands for Total Physical Response. It is based on how youngsters learn their native language. Parents and their children engage in ‘language-body conversations,’ in which the parent directs, and the youngster physically reacts. “Look at mummy,” or “Give me the ball,” the parent says, and the youngster does. These dialogues last for months before the infant begins to speak for himself. Even though it is unable to talk at this time, the child absorbs everything in the language, including sounds and patterns. When the kid has decoded enough, it will spontaneously recreate the language. In the language classroom, TPR tries to replicate this impact.

The instructor serves as a parent in the classroom. She begins by showing an activity and saying a word (‘jump’) or a phrase (‘look at the board’). The teacher then issues the command, which is carried out by all students. It is feasible to extend this after a few repetitions by asking the kids to repeat the term as they perform the action. You can then ask the pupils to guide each other or the entire class after they feel comfortable with the word or phrase. Standing in a circle around the teacher is more effective, and you can even urge them to walk about while performing the action.

Richard Frost:

<https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/total-physical-response-tpr>

1.9 Natural Approach

As communication is the basic purpose of language, Krashen and Terrell refer to the Natural Approach as an example of a communicative approach because their approach concentrates on developing communicative abilities. “The Natural Approach” is similar to other

contemporary communicative techniques. They criticise past language teaching approaches, such as the Audiolingual Method, which emphasised grammar as the most important aspect of language. The primary flaw in these methods, according to Krashen and Terrell, was that they were based on “not true theories of language learning, but theories of something else, such as the structure of language.” However, unlike proponents of Communicative Language Teaching, Krashen and Terrell pay little attention to a language theory. Krashen, according to a recent critic, has no theory of language at all. What Krashen and Terrell say about language’s nature stresses the importance of meaning. The importance of vocabulary is emphasised, for example, implying that a language is simply its lexicon, with grammar determining how the lexicon is used to form messages as a by-product.

Language is regarded as a means of conveying meanings and messages. As a result, according to Krashen and Terrell, “acquisition can only take place when people interpret messages in the target language.” Despite their professed communicative approach to language, they, like audiolingualists, see language learning as a staged mastery of structures. The input hypothesis holds that acquirers must grasp input language that includes a structure that is part of the next stage in order to progress to the next stage in the acquisition of the target language. (Krashen, Terrell, 1983.)

As a result, we have a picture of language that is made up of lexical elements, structures, and messages. Obviously, there is nothing really unusual about this viewpoint, except that communications are prioritised in the Natural Approach. In the development and interpretation of messages, the lexicon for both perception and production is considered crucial. Message lexical units must be grammatically constructed, and more complex messages require more complicated grammatical structure. Despite the fact that they recognise grammatical structuring, Krashen and Terrell believe that grammatical structure does not necessitate explicit analysis or attention from the language instructor, the language learner, or in language teaching materials.

The Natural Approach is part of a long legacy of language teaching methods based on observation and interpretation of how non-formal learners acquire first and foreign languages. As a prerequisite to teaching, such methods reject the formal (grammatical) organisation of language. They agree with Newmark and Reibel that grammatically unordered materials may effectively teach an adult, and that this is the only learning strategy that we know for sure will result in native-level mastery of the language. An emphasis on comprehension and meaningful communication, as well as the supply of the appropriate types of intelligible material, are essential and sufficient criteria for successful classroom foreign language learning in the Natural Approach. (Krashen, Terrell, 1983).

1.10 Reading Approach

One of the strategies that a teacher can utilise is the reading approach. It is one of the methods that will assist kids in resolving their reading difficulties. Students will increase their knowledge and learn something new if they are required to read more in the reading strategy. Reading is crucial because reading is an active skill that requires inferencing, guessing, and forecasting, among other things. It also has a communication function in most cases. Students will learn about the tenses, the different types of tenses, and how to apply them by reading. They will also gain an awareness of different cultures through reading cross-cultural understanding and learning how to pronounce words appropriately. Many things will be accomplished by pupils in the reading technique, and they will be able to master English well.

The reading technique or method was developed for English learners in India and French or German learners in the United States of America who did not have enough time to master the “active” or oral usage of the language. It has also been proposed in England for students who have difficulty learning a foreign language. Reading is similar to GTM (Grammar Translation Method) in that it emphasises written skills. The only grammar taught is that which is required for reading comprehension and fluency. However, in terms of teaching, it was a flexible approach.

The success of teaching English is influenced by a number of things. Approach is one of them. The teacher’s approach is the method by which he or she transfers knowledge to students while also encouraging their desire to study. When it comes to selecting and implementing an effective method, teachers should be imaginative and astute. Teachers can utilise the reading technique to instruct.

Students focus on identifying meaning, swiftly comprehending the text, and actively reading in this technique. Reading has several drawbacks as well as some advantages. It is true that no technique or method is flawless, but one thing that cannot be overlooked is the importance of reading. Students will gain various benefits from reading and will be able to comprehend anything linked to language study, particularly English. As a result, knowing how to read efficiently using the reading strategy is critical. (West, 1937).

The main concepts and methodologies of FLT have been addressed as models or paradigms of theory, research, and school practice in this thesis. Some of them may be scientifically outmoded, while others appear to be more contemporary, but all of them have introduced advancements at some point in the past, superimposing on the older ones in an eclectic manner. All techniques, however, have at least two things in common: 1) an opinion that they are the best, and 2) a set of prescriptions that teachers must follow.

PART 2

TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Teachers may find it challenging to draw students' attention and bring them into the world of English if they are busy or exhausted or if they are sleepy or hungry. Teachers strive to improve pupils' reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills while also expanding their vocabulary. Teachers aim to inspire, motivate, and create a positive environment in the classroom for learning, growth, and communication; therefore, they are always looking for activities that will keep their students engaged and creative during class. Warm-up activities in the classroom can assist teachers in dealing with such challenges.

Teachers must conduct a difficult balancing act of two vital but seemingly opposing tasks in order to enable successful language learning. First, they must cultivate good effect in kids while still providing naturally aggressive corrective feedback on errors (Magilow, 2005). A number of instructor behaviours, including humour, encouragement, personal engagement, and natural use of language, contribute to the good effect. In many ways, corrective criticism sends the exact opposite message: confrontation, potential discouragement, and an emphasis on forms rather than content.

Building a positive bond with the pupils' aids in the learning process. According to Krishnan and Hoon (2002), a pleasant or engaging class is mostly determined by the teachers' personalities and teaching methods, which encourage students to develop a positive attitude toward learning. In the English classroom, warm-up activities are critical. Students may be weary or distracted, and jumping right into a textbook or grammar lesson can be somewhat disorienting. We can put our students into English mode with a nice warm-up; alert, interested, and eager to participate. A warmer can also be used to review vocabulary from a previous session or to prepare students for a new topic.

When teaching a foreign language, one of the many methods to demonstrate the teacher's attention to the pupils is to respond to their speech creation. In English Communicative Teaching Learning Activities, feedback is very crucial. During the activities, the students are participating in some way in an interaction that provides possibilities, desires, and reasons that enable the students to connect with the language they are learning. Students will be motivated to complete their work due to this English classroom interaction. (Krishnan, Hoon, 2002).

2.1. Lesson warm up

Warm-up activities are recommended for learners of English as a foreign language to retain all abilities. Getting students' attention and having them participate in such activities can be

difficult for English instructors. Warm-up activities, on the other hand, are mostly used by me to engage my pupils in the topic and pique their curiosity in learning more about the issue in my classroom. Interaction, communication, and engagement are hallmarks of modern education. It is thought that in order to ensure learner-centered instruction and greater results, an interactive class must include participation.

A warm-up exercise is a quick and enjoyable game that a teacher or trainer can play with students. The goal of a warm-up is to: • motivate pupils; • wake them up (people are typically drowsy first thing in the morning and after lunch); and • ready them to study by activating their thoughts and/or bodies.

Warm-ups should last no more than five minutes. Warm-ups are particularly effective for: • assisting new students or trainees in getting to know one another; and • indicating when students have finished learning about one topic and are ready to move on to the next.

Warm-up exercises, according to Rushidi (2013), are crucial teaching practices for competent teachers and trainers since they assist students get to know one another.

Warm-up activities are beneficial and recommended at the start of the course. The activities at the beginning of the class should be given more attention than they generally are. Indeed, the first activities that begin the session are crucial for the following reasons:

1: Warm-ups set the tone for the rest of the class. An exercise that pupils find excessively difficult or ambiguous, for example, can be discouraging.

2: Warm-ups encourage pupils to think about and focus on English. They may not have used English in a few days, a week, or even longer. Spending a little time now will help you be more receptive later.

4: Warm-ups provide valuable opportunity for the teacher to examine character and competence. After all, some pupils get along with one another while others don't. Some pupils are having a wonderful day, while others are having a horrible day. The teacher can choose who will create the best groups for subsequent activities during the first activity. (Rushidi, 2013).

“Warm up” is a short activity for the beginning of the session, according to Robertson & Acklam (2000). Warm-up exercises, according to Kay (1995), are a variety of activities that help students begin to think in English, review previously introduced information, and become engaged in the class (as cited in Velandia, 2008, p. 11). According to Lassche (2005), the “first orientation” for a language learning course is the warm-up stage. As a result, a warm-up activity is utilised to begin a class with engaging work in order to make students feel at ease in the classroom and begin thinking in English.

Students' achievement levels will be high if they have a concept of what knowledge and skills they will acquire from the beginning of the class (Joshi, 2006). “Perceived purpose and

unambiguous outcome was pleasant to learners since there was a clear criterion of success and a sense of satisfaction from success,” according to Prabhu (1987). (Lassche, 2005, p.86). Learning is a goal-oriented activity in which a teacher’s role is to involve pupils in discovering the value of learning materials and making the trip enjoyable (Cheung, 2001). A quick warm-up activity might help pupils form a bond with their learning materials (Hasan & Akhand, 2013). If a task is relevant to a learner’s learning needs, the activity will be completed with greater effort. However, when the task is unrelated to their demands, their performance will be at a minimum. (Murphy, 2002).

Velandia (2008) offers some guidelines for developing a warm-up activity. He believes that a warm-up activity should be done at the start of class. It will assist teachers in capturing the attention of their students. It must be engaging in order for pupils to be motivated from the start. It’s usually a quick activity because it’s a warm-up for the rest of the class. Warm-up activities should be relevant to the class topic so that students may readily participate in various activities to improve their language skills in subsequent stages.

The basic characteristics of a warm-up activity were also defined by Robertson and Acklam (2000). They state that a warm-up exercise must be engaging in order for pupils to be motivated to practice their English. Because a warm-up activity is a short activity, it will not be the focus of the class. Warming up allows pupils to review previously learned material. Warm-up exercises must meet the following criteria:

- be brief,
- be relevant to the topic,
- be interactive.
- Focus students’ attention
- Help students begin to work
- Be an interesting and enjoyable activity
- Prepare students for a period of concentration

2.2. Error correction and feedback

According to Jack C. Richards and Charles Lockhart (1997), there are two sorts of feedback on spoken language: content feedback and form feedback. Vocabulary problems, grammar errors, and pronunciation errors are all examples of content feedback. Hendrickson (1978), on the other hand, states that form feedback should address the following:

- Whether learners’ errors should be fixed
- Which types of learners’ errors should be corrected
- How learners’ errors should be corrected (Jack C. Richards and Charles Lockhart, 1997)

Richards (1971) addresses many forms of errors:

- Overgeneralisation: when a student creates a deviant structure based on his prior knowledge of other structures in the target language, this is known as overgeneralisation.
- Ignorance of rule limits: failure to adhere to current structural restrictions.
- Incomplete rule application: the appearance of structures whose deviancy corresponds to the degree of rule development necessary to produce acceptable utterances.
- Hypothesised false concepts: a lack of understanding of distinctions in the target language.

Keith Johnson. (Keith Johnson, 2001.)

When an error is repeated over and over, it becomes permanent in the learner's speech. This is characterised by fossilisation, or the employment of visibly erroneous forms on a frequent basis (Brown, 2000). According to Peter James (2001), "the learners know they make mistakes, but, of course, they don't know where the mistakes are, they don't know the importance of their mistakes and even when this is explained, they repeat them."

When it comes to error correction and feedback, learners and teachers have distinct preferences. According to Nunan (1988), "adult learners in Australia regarded error correction as very important, although their teachers did not." Similar observations have been discovered in other places (Jack C. Richards and Charles Lockhart, 1997). It's also crucial for teachers to understand when and how to correct faults. Teachers frequently correct a learner's statement merely because it was not what they anticipated to hear, according to Allwright and Bailey (1991). This is referred to as "mistake of classroom discourse."

They also state that the teachers attempt to assist children in progressing in their interlanguage development. If the correction is aimed at structures that are beyond the learner's stage in interlanguage development, "mistimed" error treatment may not benefit and may even be harmful (Jack C. Richards and Charles Lockhart, 1997). Furthermore, Gower, Phillips, and Walters state that the correction is dependent on the activity's goal. The teacher's direct control and correction will be tighter if the focus is on accuracy, and less if the focus is on fluency. (Gower, Phillips, and Walters, 1995.)

According to Harmer (1998), correcting aids pupils in clarifying their knowledge of the language's meaning and construction. Teachers should be careful about how to discipline students because one method may be appropriate for one student but not for another. Students may be able to remedy themselves if the inaccuracy is merely a blunder. Students, once again, may require the assistance of the teacher. He also mentions that during this time, teachers can request that another student be corrected. Harmer (1998) also believes that it is critical to congratulate pupils on their accomplishments while simultaneously correcting them when they fail. In this approach, a

teacher's good mood can have a significant impact on students' performance, regardless of their level or type of errors. (Akhter, 2007.)

2.3. Recast

Researchers use a broad definition of recasts, with a few exceptions, and make no attempt to categorise recasts based on their distinguishing qualities (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). Lyster and Ranta (1997) merely counted recasts, whereas Lyster (1998) defined four categories of recasts in a separate analysis of the same data. Even when researchers accept that recasts come in a variety of forms, they tend to generalise their involvement in L2 acquisition as if they have a single identity. Several researchers have offered the following definitions of recasts:

- Recasts are utterances that recast a child's utterance by modifying one or more components (subject, verb, object) while still referring to its basic meaning, according to Long (1996, p. 434).

- Recasts are when a teacher reformulates all or part of a student's speech sans the error, according to Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 46).

- A response was categorised as a recast if it contained the content words of the immediately previous wrong NNS utterance and also modified and corrected the utterance in some way (e.g. phonological, syntactic, morphological, or lexical), according to Braidí (2002, p. 20).

- Long (2006) defines a corrective recast as a reformulation of all or part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance in which one or more nontarget-like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items are replaced by the corresponding target language form(s), and where the interlocutors' focus is on meaning rather than language as an object throughout the exchange.

- A recast, according to Sheen (2006), is when a teacher reformulates all or part of a student's utterance that contains at least one inaccuracy in the context of a communication in the classroom.

These definitions differ just slightly yet dramatically. Neither Lyster and Ranta's (1997) nor Braidí's (2002) definitions mentioned the teachers' and students' orientation to the discourse—that is, whether the major focus of attention is on language as an object or message transmission. Given the setting in which their research was conducted (immersion classrooms and task-based engagement), it's reasonable to infer that the major attention was on the message, yet it's also reasonable to assume that some repair sequences were motivated by form rather than content. Indeed, their definitions of recasts would allow reformed utterances from interactions that emerge in traditional, form-focused teaching to be included. Long's (1996, 2006) definitions aim to keep form-focused reformulations out. Reformulation must take place in the context of message-centered communication to be considered recast. However, there is a significant discrepancy between the two definitions supplied by Long. A recast, according to Long (1996), recasts an

incorrect learner speech while still alluding to its central meaning. Long's (2006) formulation, in a more contemporary work, mandates that interlocutors focus on meaning rather than language as an object throughout the conversation. Long's desire to exclude reformulations that focus on the meaning of a learner utterance but are clearly didactic (from the perspective of the person doing the recasting) rather than communicative (i.e., they do not constitute an attempt to solve a communication problem) is reflected in this distinction. (Ellis & Sheen, 2006.)

Hauser (2005) objected to the way recasts have been defined and programmed in a different way. He pointed out that definitions like Long's (1996) talk about recasts that keep the sense of the learner's original utterance. He suggested that this is problematic since meaning, whether understood as propositional content or action, is "open to negotiation" and "emerges via the encounter" (p. 310); he also demonstrated how this occurs. He came to the conclusion that coding approaches centered on the premise of keeping meaning "obscure what is going on in the interaction" (p. 310). Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Braidí (2002), on the other hand, make no reference of meaning in their definitions; they are based solely on formal criteria, namely that a recast (a) reformulates and (b) corrects a previous learner utterance. As a result, Hauser's criticism of the studies' coding procedures appears to be misguided.

Baleghizade Sasan:

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/49593237_Recast_and_Its_Impact_on_Second_Language_Acquisition

2.4. Role of the instructional content

Functional education is the foundation for gainful work, personal growth, economic prosperity, moral development, and constructive interpersonal interactions in today's world; its absence means ignorance, underdevelopment, maladjustment, crime, poverty, and frustration, among other things. Without functional instructional tools to increase innovative production in modern disciplines such as science and technology, effective teaching may be unavoidable. Education is the cornerstone of a country's genuine development and growth for every child, regardless of moral, mental, emotional, psychological, or physical health. Teachers who will be implementing the curriculum are also expected to employ a variety of high-quality instructional tools to facilitate successful and efficient teaching and learning in the classroom.

Every subject in the school curriculum requires the use of instructional resources. They allow students to interact with words, symbols, and ideas in ways that improve their reading, listening, problem-solving, viewing, thinking, speaking, and writing skills, as well as their ability to use media and technology.

Instructional materials, according to Faize and Dahan (2011), are print and non-print things that are used to impart information to students during the educational process. Prints, textbooks, magazines, newspapers, slides, photos, workbooks, and electronic media are examples of instructional resources.

According to Raw (2010), the textbook is the earliest teaching material. Various textbook definitions emphasise the textbook's importance as a learning tool. A textbook serves as the foundation for all of a curriculum's learning activities. In third-world countries, textbooks serve a critical role in transmitting knowledge to students.

According to Raw (2003), a teaching guide is a booklet given to teachers as assistance or material. It provides comprehensive assistance to teachers in all aspects of the teaching-learning process. According to Raw (2003), audio-visual aids are instructional aids that are used in the teaching-learning process.

Audio-visual aids can be used to motivate students to participate in teaching and learning activities. It can also aid in the reduction of forgetting rates. Examples include maps, graphs, and diagrams, among others.

The computer is also employed as a learning tool and as a source of educational resources. According to Faize and Dahan (2011), maps and charts are commonly utilised during lectures and conversations concerning the links between items.

The overhead projector is another option. It is a mechanism that enlarges the view of small transparencies on the board. Students can read, look at, react to, and understand the text, graph, picture, or anything else written or drawn on the transparencies using an overhead projector. According to Usman (2011), overhead projectors are becoming more prevalent and popular, and they are increasingly used in traditional teaching-learning activities, such as seminars and workshops. In keeping with the teacher's level of imagination and ingenuity, the list of educational resources is endless.

Instructional Materials' Functions in Teaching—Learning Activities:

Instructional materials played a critical part in the teaching-learning process, which included:

- i. improving students' memory levels.
- ii. To make the teaching-learning process easier.
- iii. To improve the accumulation rate of students.
- iv. Act as instruments for teachers to correct misconceptions and illustrate concepts that students will not readily forget.
- v. Assist in making the body of knowledge under debate more real.
- vi. It personalises instruction and fosters teachers' inventiveness.

vii. Allow students and teachers to engage in hands-on learning activities that foster the concept of self-evaluation. (Bukoye, 2018).

2.5. Teacher-student interactive patterns

The scientific reasoning literature suggests that improvements in students' reasoning abilities can be examined by focusing on the predictions and explanations they give (Henrichs & Leseman 2014; Treagust & Tsui 2014). Furthermore, students' observations are a crucial beginning point for going on to predictions and explanations (Fischer 1980). As a result, it is critical for professors to encourage active engagement from students, as well as to pique their interest and elicit their thought processes (Engel 2011). Teachers can utilise a variety of instructional strategies to make their classroom interactions more thought-provoking in order to help students gain a deeper knowledge. Although no one-size-fits-all strategy to educational practice exists (van de Pol et al. 2010), certain patterns of interaction (i.e., self-sustaining attractor states) may obstruct active deep understanding, while others support it. (Ge & Land 2003; Granott, 2005.)

Students' actual activities and vocal utterances while working on science activities directed by a teacher reveal scientific reasoning. It has been suggested that the formation of scientific reasoning might be seen of as a co-construction process (Sorsana 2008; Fischer & Bidell, 2006), in which the teacher and the student work together to produce meaning. Co-construction can refer to one of two things. First, it might refer to a "consensual frame," a generic process of mutual adaptation that produces any outcome or pattern (Fogel, 1993). Teachers and students constantly adapt to each other's contributions during real-time interactions, which is a key element of such procedures. The term "co-construction" refers to the process of reciprocal influence, which in the instance of classroom activities mostly refers to a teacher's actions influencing a student's reaction and also vice versa. (van Geert, 1994). For example, the co-construction method can lead to the intended learning results in terms of real-time sophisticated reasoning skills, but it can also lead to less desirable declarative knowledge surface learning. The nature of the self-organising interaction patterns often determines the outcome. A less desirable and self-sustaining pattern of superficial teacher inquiries and instructions and superficial student answers on the declarative level is an example of an encounter in which no co-construction of understanding happens. Students sharing their thoughts and opinions and teachers giving open-ended questions could be examples of a co-construction engagement. (Oliveira, 2010.)

Existing research shows that there are large differences in the quality of teacher-student interactions between groups of teachers with different teaching experience (e.g., Geveke et al. 2017) and between groups of teachers with different teaching experience (e.g., Geveke et al. 2017).

Experienced teachers appear to have the most stable, effective, and adaptable teaching skills. In contrast, beginner teachers appear to have less stable and effective teaching abilities, and as a result, they are far more capable of improving these skills (Clothfelter et al. 2007; Hattie 2003; Harris & Sass 2009; Heritage & Heritage 2013; Kaneetal, 2008; Ladd, 2008). When comparing teachers with fewer than 5 years of experience to those with more than 5 years of experience, the discrepancies are most pronounced (Clothfelter et al. 2007; Ladd, 2008). One of the most noticeable distinctions between experienced and beginner teachers is that novices struggle with classroom management abilities, including maintaining discipline and behavioural norms (Wolff et al., 2015). Flexible co-construction procedures necessitate a significant deal of expertise and knowledge of a wide range of classroom scenarios (Randi & Corno, 2005). Co-construction processes, in other words, take the form of classic attractor patterns (e.g., Geveke et al. 2017). The occurrence of self-sustaining sequences of open-ended questions by the teacher followed by open, exploratory, and divergent answers by the pupils, inspiring other open-ended inquiries, and so on, is an unusual aspect of such attractor patterns. Inexperienced teachers (novice teachers or pre-service teachers) have more limited frameworks for classroom management and engagement than experienced instructors, making it more difficult for them to adjust to their pupils' abilities. This frequently results in teaching that is more rigid and reliant on procedural frameworks (Sternberg & Horvath, 1995), as well as a lack of flexibility in bringing about effective co-construction.

In conclusion, numerous research has emphasised the importance of real-time teacher-student interactions, which may be modelled and evaluated as a complex dynamic system. This is also true in science education, where it is suggested that professors and students can collaborate to construct scientific reasoning. However, our understanding of the actual teaching-learning interactions in both seasoned and beginner teachers is relatively restricted. We also know very little about how these processes differ in the long run between experienced teachers and novices—and the likely distinctions between the two groups.

A. Meninga, P. van Geert, S. van Vondel, H. Steenbeek:

[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/350364263_Teacher-](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/350364263_Teacher-Student_Interaction_Patterns_Change_During_an_Early_Science_Teaching_Intervention)

[Student_Interaction_Patterns_Change_During_an_Early_Science_Teaching_Intervention](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/350364263_Teacher-Student_Interaction_Patterns_Change_During_an_Early_Science_Teaching_Intervention)

2.6. Inductive vs Deductive presentation

The importance of teaching grammar cannot be overstated, and it plays a crucial role in every English foreign language school. And the teacher hopes that by teaching grammar, his students would be able to improve their verbal skills. Learners employ grammar as a tool or resource for comprehension and the efficient, effective, and acceptable construction of oral and written

discourse, depending on the situation. (Huang, 2005.) The deductive technique and the inductive method are the two basic strategies for teaching grammar. Both deductive and inductive teaching have advantages and disadvantages, and which approach language teachers employ depends on a variety of circumstances, including the teacher's and learners' preferences, the features of the language to be learned, and the age of the learners. However, it is widely believed that a combination of these two methodologies is most suited for EFL classrooms.

According to Trochim (2006), inductive grammar instruction moves from the specific to the general, whereas deductive grammar teaching moves from the general to the specific. It is best to explain grammar inductively if your arguments are based on personal experience or observation. It is recommended to teach grammar deductively when arguments are founded on laws, rules, or other commonly accepted principles. Deductive researchers, according to Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), work from the 'top down,' from a theory through hypotheses to facts to support or refute the theory. On the other hand, inductive researchers are defined as those that work from the bottom-up, using the participants' perspectives to create bigger themes and generate a theory that connects the themes. These two methodologies are also known as quantitative (deductive) and qualitative (inductive) in some research studies, and they have been competing for years, according to Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005). Teachers in the quantitative approach are taught to remove themselves from their students, but qualitative teachers recognise that the interaction between them and their students is critical to the class's learning.

Abdukarimova N.A.: <https://media.neliti.com/media/publications/343275-deductive-and-inductive-approaches-to-te-f0998821.pdf>

2.7. Wait time

Mary Budd Rowe was the first to use "wait-time" as an educational variable (1972). In ordinary classes, the "wait-time" periods she discovered—periods of silence following teacher queries and students' completed responses—rarely lasted more than 1.5 seconds. However, she noticed that when these moments of stillness lasted at least 3 seconds, significant favourable changes in student and teacher behaviour and attitudes occurred. Teachers were encouraged to "wait" in quiet for 3 or more seconds after their inquiries and after pupils concluded their responses in order to reap these benefits. (Casteel and Stahl, 1973; Rowe 1972; Stahl 1990; Tobin 1987.)

When students are given 3 or more seconds of uninterrupted "wait-time," for example, they experience the following benefits:

- * Their responses get longer and more accurate.
- * Their "I don't know" and "no answer" responses are decreasing.

* As a larger number of students provide appropriate responses, the number of appropriate answers increases.

* On academic achievement assessments, students' scores tend to rise.

Teachers' own teacher behaviours improve when they wait patiently in quiet for 3 or more seconds at appropriate locations:

* They use a more diversified and flexible questioning strategy, reducing the number of questions while increasing the quality and diversity.

* They ask additional questions that require more complicated information processing and higher-level thinking on the part of students.

Stahl (1985) coined the term “think-time,” which he defines as a period of uninterrupted silence during which the teacher and all students can perform appropriate information processing tasks, feelings, speech replies, and actions. Because of three reasons (Stahl 1990), the term “think-time” is favoured over “wait-time.”

* It specifies the major academic goal and activity of this moment of quiet, which is to allow students and teachers to do on-task thinking. Periods of silence are just as important as those “wait-time periods” reported in the research literature in a variety of situations. There is at least one exemption, known as “impact pause-time,” which permits for periods of silence of less than 3 seconds.

The standard is to choose 3 seconds as the minimum time period since this marks a substantial break-through (or threshold) point: after at least 3 seconds, students and teachers experience a considerable number of highly positive outcomes. The issue here is not that 2.9 seconds is awful, 3 seconds is fantastic, and 5.3 seconds is much better. The goal is to provide the amount of time that will allow almost every student to perform the cognitive activities required in the given situation. The teacher's responsibility is to control and guide what happens before and after each time of stillness so that the necessary processing can take place.

Stahl, Robert J.: <http://ocw.umb.edu/early-education-development/echd-440-640-ec-ec-language-and-literacy-course/learning-module-1/module-5/Wait%20Time.pdf>

2.8. Use of visuals

Visual aids in ELT materials are instructional aids that graphically show information for the purpose of English teaching or classroom use. Language learners of all ages can use visual aids to help them understand the target language—English. In practice, visual aids are everything a teacher wishes to demonstrate and interact with the pupils in order to achieve successful subject understanding. Any object used to facilitate understanding and motivate language acquisition is

considered a visual aid. There are many different types of visual aids: photos, stick figures, color or black-and-white photographs, and graphs because they are frequently utilised in ELT materials, either manually or electronically.

For starters, solo or composite photos are widely utilised in ELT materials. A single image (for example, a beach, a downtown area, a river, a school, etc.) can be an effective tool for teaching vocabulary, listening, and speaking skills (e.g., identifying or describing things, objects, and places). Composite photos are suitable media for displaying a sequence of events, such as narrating, reading a history, describing a habit, describing a technique, describing an activity, and so on. Depending on the intended usage of the images, they can be in colour or black and white. The most crucial factor is that the images are printed or drawn clearly.

Second, stick figures are an engaging sort of visual media to use in the classroom because of their design and implementation flexibility. Objects, actions, emotions, and personalities can all be visualised with this type of media. Stick figures are also simple to produce because teachers may probably make them using simple lines and circles on their own (Rodriguez 2009). Stick figures can be used to help students understand basic ideas or word meanings. To teach a comparative sentence, for example, a teacher can simply draw stick figures of two people of various heights on a paper/handout, poster, or black/whiteboard to show the learners a comparable pattern and how to construct comparative sentences. As a result, teachers should be aware of whether or not stick figures can be utilised to clarify specific grammatical patterns.

Using attractive images in ELT materials can draw learners' attention and encourage them to participate in interactive warm-up activities, acquire ELT materials through genuine sights (people, locations, and objects), and provide specific language schematic knowledge (e.g., contextual and cultural inputs which are authentic). A series of images can be utilised in ELT materials to give students with pictorial storytelling in which they can describe a specific story. A collection of images can also be used to assist pupils in completing visual essay writing assignments. Students are asked to write down and develop ideas based on the photos provided in this exercise.

Graphs and other related graphics like charts and tables are appropriate for illustrating a comparison of frequency, value, or percentage, a process, and a hierarchical relationship. These products are suitable for older students since understanding information provided in graphs, charts, and tables necessitate some level of visual literacy in interpreting the data. Simple graphs, charts, and tables, on the other hand, may be used to teach young learners, provided they are made precisely to meet the learners' needs and suit their level of understanding.

It is also worth noting that the above-mentioned visual aids, as well as additional visuals, can be generated both commercially and locally. Commercial visual aids are created for business

purposes and disseminated under the authors' and publishers' copyrights. Teachers frequently construct locally-made or teacher-made visual aids to meet specific English learning demands. Visual aids are not designed to standardise media among English teachers; rather, they are designed to allow teachers to find the flexibility and possibility of specific visual aids for their teaching materials. As a result, visual aids in ELT materials are designed and implemented with more creativity and innovation.

Adriadi

Novawan:

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/344206772_The_Use_of_Visual_Aids_in_ELT_Materials

Each method brought something new to the table and aimed to address various challenges in language learning. They, on the other hand, emerged from various historical contexts, emphasized different social and educational requirements, and have different theoretical considerations. In order to apply these methods effectively and efficiently in teaching practice, practitioners should consider the following questions: who the learners are, their current level of language proficiency, their communicative needs, and the circumstances in which they will use English in the future, among other things. In a nutshell, no single strategy can ensure success.

PART 3

STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF EFFECTIVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

3.1 Introduction and Research Question

Studies to date have primarily focused on investigating the characteristics of effective foreign language teaching to understand better the role of teacher effectiveness in the language learning process. Although few studies are focusing on the perceptions of the characteristics of effective foreign language teaching among students of English Language and Literature (i.e. pre-service teachers), they are the primary candidates for the profession of English language teaching. As a result, the purpose of this study is to investigate potential English teachers' impressions connected to effective foreign language teaching. Students were surveyed using the Effective Teacher Questionnaire (Brown, 2009). The given thesis seeks answers to the following research question:

- What are the perceptions of pre-service English language teachers regarding effective foreign language teaching?

3.2 Research Instruments and Participants

A quantitative research method was chosen to answer the research question. The instrument selected for the research is a questionnaire. A questionnaire is an instrument for collecting data that involves asking a given subject to answer the questions in written form. It is a quick and easy way to collect information, and it allows gathering information from a large audience. However, this tool has some disadvantages: the possibility of low response rates, the inability to probe responses, dishonest, not truthful or conscientious answers and ignored questions.

The Effective Teacher Questionnaire (Brown, 2009) was applied to carry out the research. The given questionnaire contains 24 items, all of which can be found in the form of the Likert - scale. The responses range on a four-point scale, with 1 (strongly disagree) the minimum and 4 (strongly agree) the maximum. The questionnaire has already been used by several researchers, as it is a valid and trusted survey. It was compiled by Brown, to assess the students' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching among the students.

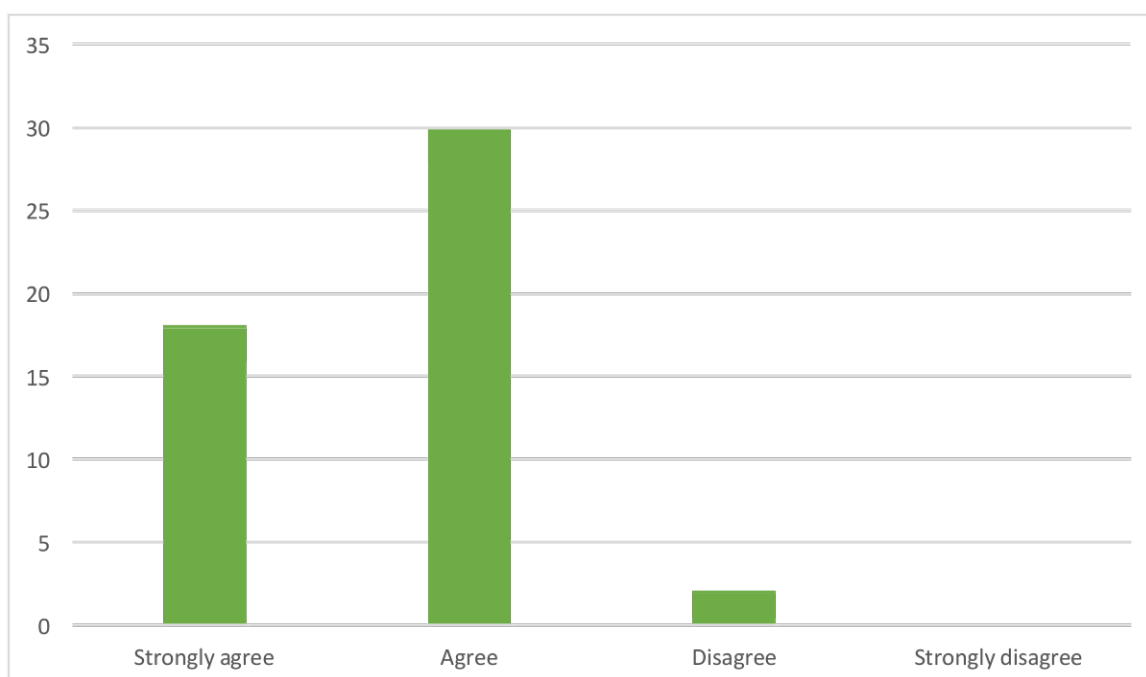
The participants of the study were selected by convenience sampling. Convenience sampling is a type of nonprobability sampling in which people are sampled because they are "convenient" sources of data for researchers. The questionnaire was filled in by the English major students

(N=50) of the Philology Department, Ferenc Rákóczi II. Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education.

3.3 Findings

The 1st statement is intended to determine if effective foreign language teachers should frequently use computer-based technologies (Internet, CD-ROM, email) to teach the language. Eighteen people answered that they strongly agree, 30 people responded that they agree, and 2 people disagreed with this statement.

Diagram 3.3.1 Foreign language teachers should frequently use computer-based technologies



The 2nd statement is intended to determine if effective foreign language teachers should base at least some part of students' grades on the completion of assigned group tasks. Fifteen people answered that they strongly agreed, 30 people said they agreed, and 6 of the answerers said they disagreed with this statement.

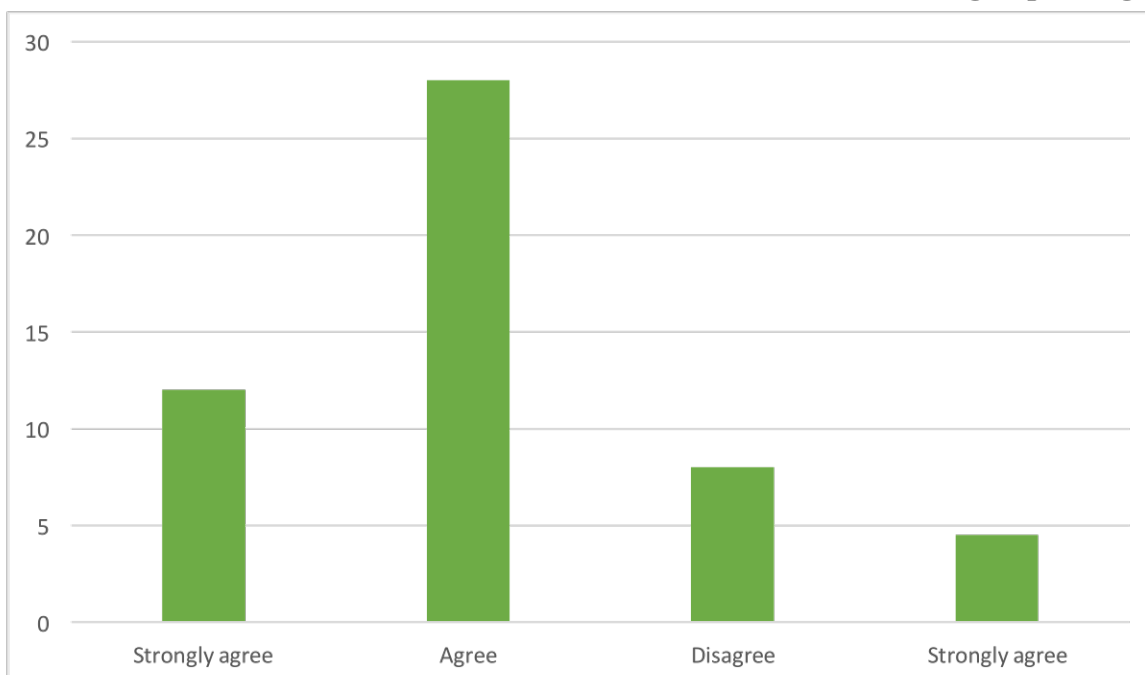
The 3rd statement referred that effective foreign language teachers should devote as much time to teaching culture as to learning language. Again, 8 people answered that they strongly agreed, 36 people said they agreed, and 6 of the answerers said they disagreed with this statement.

The 4th statement is intended to reveal that effective foreign language teachers should require students to use the language outside of class with other speakers of the language (e.g., Internet,

email, clubs, community events, etc.). Twelve people answered that they strongly agreed, 29 people said they agreed, and 9 of the answerers said they disagreed with this statement.

According to the 5th statement, effective foreign language teachers should not correct students immediately after making a speaking mistake. Again, 12 people answered that they strongly agreed, 28 people said they agreed, 8 of the answerers said they disagreed, and 2 of them strongly disagreed with this statement.

Diagram 3.3.2 Foreign language teachers should not correct students immediately after making a speaking mistake

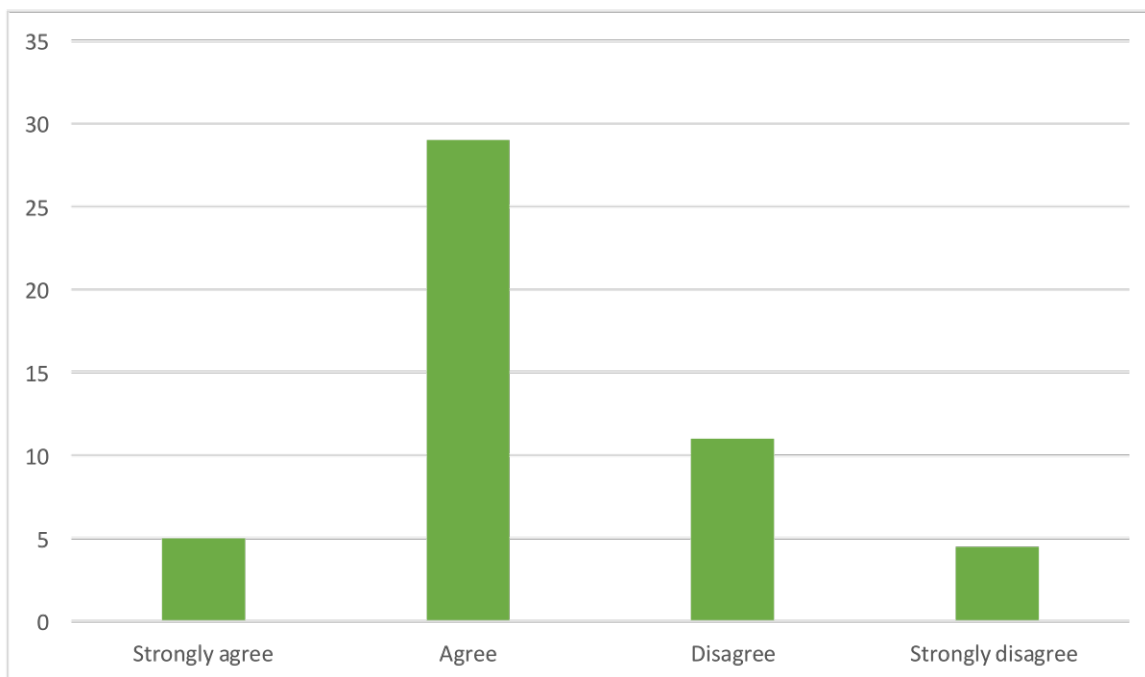


The 6th statement states that effective foreign language teachers should allow students to respond to test questions by listening and reading via English rather than the foreign language. 11 people answered that they strongly agreed, and 39 answerers agreed with this statement.

The 7th statement suggests that effective foreign language teachers should not use English in the foreign language classroom. 31 people answered that they strongly agreed, and 19 answerers said they agreed with this statement.

The 8th statement intended to find out if effective foreign language teachers should only correct students indirectly when they produce oral errors instead of directly (e.g., correctly repeating back to them rather than directly stating that they are incorrect). Fifteen people answered that they strongly agreed, 25 responded that they agreed, and ten students said they agreed with this statement.

The next statement says that effective foreign language teachers should be as knowledgeable about the culture(s) of those who speak the language as the language itself. 5 people answered that they strongly agreed, 29 responded that they agreed, 11 disagreed, and 5 people strongly disagreed with this statement.

Diagram 3.3.3 Foreign language teachers should be as knowledgeable about the culture

The 10th statement suggests that effective foreign language teachers should not grade language production (i.e., speaking and writing) primarily for grammatical. 10 people answered that they strongly agreed, 27 responded that they agreed, and 13 said they disagreed with this statement.

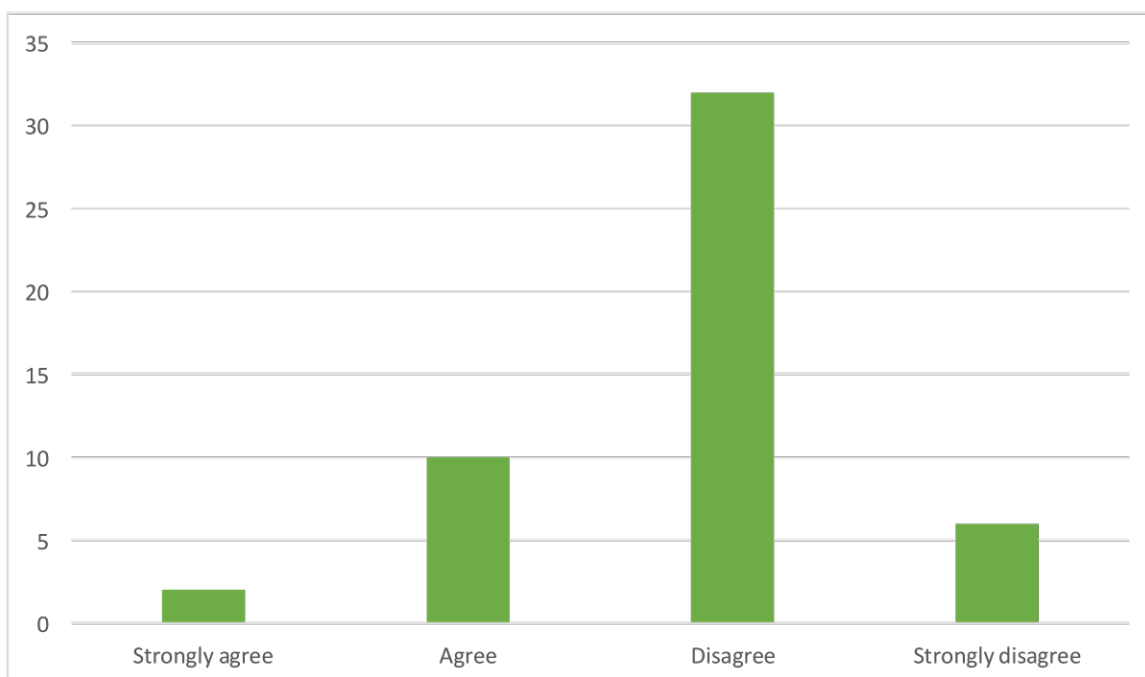
The 11th statement states that effective foreign language teachers should teach the language primarily by having students complete specific tasks (e.g., finding out prices of rooms and rates at a hotel) rather than grammar-focused exercises. 10 people answered that they strongly agreed, and 40 people responded that they agreed with this statement.

The 12th statement referred that effective foreign language teachers should have students respond to commands physically in the foreign language (e.g., “stand up,” “pick up your book, etc.). With this statement, all respondents agreed.

The 13th statement suggests that effective foreign language teachers should address errors by immediately explaining why students’ responses are incorrect. 12 people answered that they strongly agreed, 33 responded that they agreed and 5 disagreed with this statement.

The following statement suggested that effective foreign language teachers should require students to speak in the foreign language beginning the first day of class. 2 people answered that they strongly agreed, 10 agreed, 32 said they did not agree, and 6 respondents strongly disagreed with this statement.

Diagram 3.3.4 Foreign language teachers should require students to speak in the foreign language beginning the first day of class

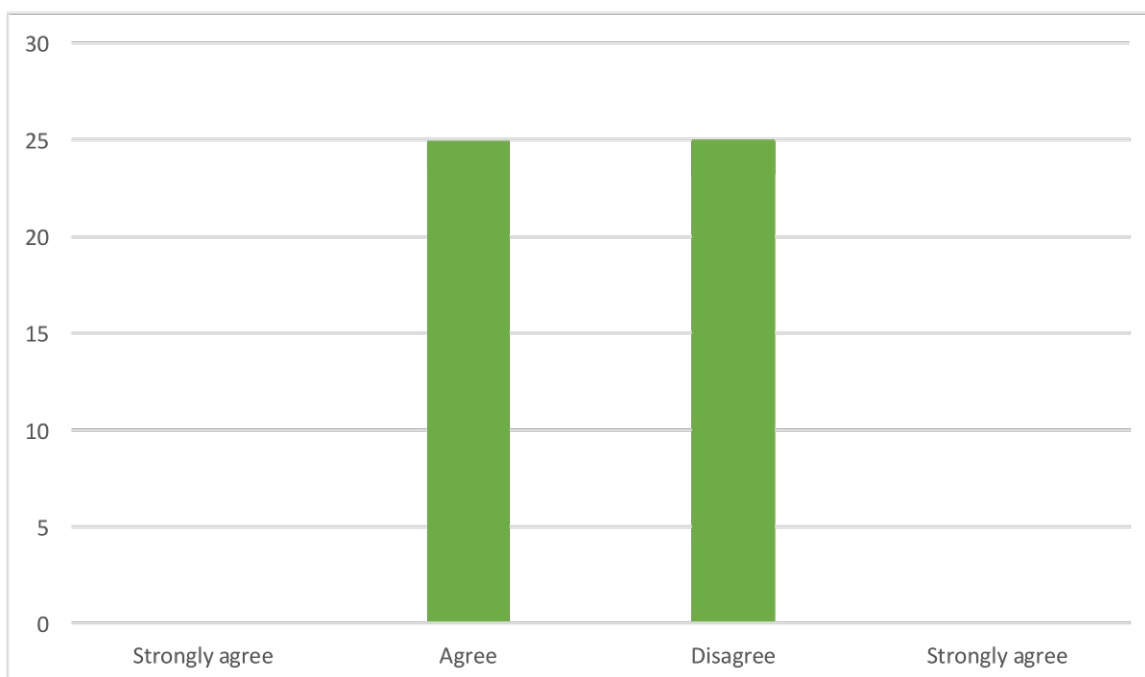


The 15th statement states that effective foreign language teachers should not use predominantly small groups or pair work to complete activities in class. 9 people answered that they strongly agreed, 19 agreed, 21 said they disagreed, and only 1 respondent totally did not agree with this statement.

The 16th statement stated that effective foreign language teachers should mostly use activities that practice specific grammar points rather than activities whose goal is merely to exchange information. 2 people answered that they strongly agreed, 43 agreed and 5 said they disagreed with this statement.

The 17th statement suggested that effective foreign language teachers should ask students to begin speaking the foreign language only when they feel they are ready to. 25 respondents agreed and 25 respondents disagreed with this statement.

Diagram 3.3.5 Foreign language teachers should ask students to begin speaking the foreign language only when they feel they are ready to



The 18th statement said that effective foreign language teachers should not present a particular grammar point without illustrating how the structure is used in a specific, real-world context. 25 respondents strongly agreed, and 25 respondents agreed with this statement. So, with this statement, all respondents agreed.

The 19th statement states that effective foreign language teachers should speak the foreign language with native-like control of both grammar and accent. 15 people answered that they strongly agreed, 25 agreed, and 10 disagreed with this statement.

The 20th statement says that the effective foreign language teachers should teach grammar by giving examples of grammatical structures before explaining the grammar rules. 12 people answered that they strongly agreed, 35 answered that they agreed and 3 said they disagreed with this statement.

The following statement suggested that effective foreign language teachers should use predominantly real-life materials (e.g., music, pictures, foods, clothing) in teaching both the language and the culture rather than the textbook. 20 people answered that they strongly agreed, 7 they agreed, 20 said they disagreed, and 3 respondents strongly disagreed with this statement.

According to the 22nd statement, effective foreign language teachers should not simplify or alter how they speak so that students can understand every word being said. 4 people

answered that they strongly agreed, 27 agreed and 19 said they disagreed with this statement.

The 23rd statement referred that effective foreign language teachers should base at least some part of students' grades on their ability to interact with classmates successfully in the foreign language. 6 people answered that they strongly agreed, 36 responded that they agreed, 6 said they disagreed and 2 respondents strongly disagreed with this statement.

The last statement deals with the idea that effective foreign language teachers should use activities where students have to find out unknown information from classmates using the foreign language. 13 people answered that they strongly agreed, 32 responded that they agreed and 5 said they disagreed with this statement.

3.4 Results

The study's main goal was to obtain thorough and direct student perceptions on the challenges in foreign language instruction that were addressed in the questionnaires.

The findings reveal that college students believe that while teaching a foreign language, more technological instruments should be employed. As a result, the state should assist in ensuring that every school has the necessary technical equipment. Furthermore, the research found that extra time would be required in English classrooms to impart culture.

Students should utilize the foreign language not only in class, but also on the Internet, at different language camps, and by spending a lot of time watching movies to improve their own skills, according to the study. Such programs must be developed by both the teacher and the state.

An effective foreign language teacher, according to college students, speaks only foreign languages in class. This would also get students used to pronouncing the foreign language, and the teacher would encourage them to use it.

According to research, an effective foreign language teacher corrects a language error after the student has spoken. Students also believe that an effective foreign language instructor should be well-versed in the culture of the language.

Writing and speaking are not valued by competent foreign language teachers, according to college students. Furthermore, a good foreign language teacher puts students in real-life scenarios to practice. This should also be prepared for any unexpected situation.

The teacher, according to college students, should teach pupils how to respond to various commands. As a result, the student will be able to understand and respond to various directions. According to research, a foreign language teacher should not speak to students in the target language on the first day of class.

According to the findings, a good foreign language instructor explains every grammar point or part that the student is unfamiliar with and cannot force the student to speak in a foreign language unless the student is ready. Also, instead of books, use mostly practical resources to be an efficient foreign language instructor.

Finally, I discovered through my research that a good foreign teacher must have, motivate, and educate youngsters about their passion of a foreign language. There would need to be a lot of space and programs constructed where solely foreign language programs are performed in order for foreign language education to be effective and successful. Both the state and the school should help foreign language teachers in this regard.

CONCLUSION

Linguists and psychologists like Chomsky, Skinner, Krashen, Vygotsky, and others have studied and developed theories that provide answers for this intellectual process in response to the growing interest in understanding how languages are learned. These theories have become the cornerstone of language teaching techniques that aim to provide a framework for teaching languages like English in foreign and second language environments.

The discipline of language learning quickly grew in popularity. However, linguists critiqued the methodology and questioned the efficacy of existing alternatives at the time. As a result, they developed new teaching strategies that focused on language understanding. During this period, James Asher, Stephen Krashen, and Tracy Terrell introduced two teaching methods that focused on language comprehension: the Total Physical Response and the Natural Approach. Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrell proposed the latter in the late 1970s. Language acquisition, according to Krashen, necessitated meaningful and natural engagement in the target language (Krashen, 1981).

Each language teaching technique has arisen to meet societal needs based on social, economic, and academic criteria and pedagogical approaches prevalent at various times. Each method has been developed with distinct and shared qualities based on such requirements and viewpoints and an analysis of the gaps in earlier ideas.

The goal of this thesis was to demonstrate the characteristics of Grammatical, Audiolingual, Natural, and Communicative Approaches, including the theories that underpin each approach, the reasons for their creation, the teaching resources and techniques, and the role played by teachers, students, and the students' L1 in the language teaching-learning process.

The assessment of students' perceptions of foreign language teaching is difficult, but researchers should deal with it because FLT teaching practices will change over time. Practitioners and teachers must assess not only their own perspectives on current approaches and ideas in FLT, but also their students' feelings and how they develop over time as they gain more learning experience. Teachers could create their own unique surveys to deliver to their students after identifying their preferred pedagogical techniques and utilise them as a springboard for brief talks regarding FL acquisition and pedagogy. Given the ever-changing nature of students' and instructors' perspectives of good FL teaching, enquiries in this field should continue to be a constant in the overall research landscape in order to inform teachers better.

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РЕЗЮМЕ

Лінгвісти та психологи, такі як Хомський, Скіннер, Крашен, Виготський та інші, вивчали та розробляли теорії, які дають відповіді на цей інтелектуальний процес у відповідь на зростаючий інтерес до розуміння, як вивчаються мови. Тепер ці теорії стали основним фундаментом методів навчання мови, які мають на меті створити основу для викладання таких мов, як англійська, як в іноземних, так і в інших мовах.

Дисципліна вивчення мови швидко набула популярності. Лінгвісти критикували методологію та поставили під сумнів ефективність існуючих на той час альтернатив. У результаті вони розробили нові стратегії навчання, які зосереджені на розумінні мови. Саме в цей період Джеймс Ашер, Стівен Крашен і Трейсі Террелл представили два методи навчання, які були зосереджені на розумінні мови: повна фізична реакція і природний підхід. Стівен Крашен і Трейсі Террелл запропонували останнє наприкінці 1970-х років. Опанування мови, за словами Крашена, вимагало змістовного та природного залучення до цільової мови (Крашен, 1981).

Кожна методика навчання мови, виникла для задоволення суспільних потреб на основі соціальних, економічних та академічних критеріїв, а також педагогічних підходів, поширених у різний час. Кожен метод був розроблений з різними і спільними якостями на основі таких вимог і точок зору, а також на основі аналізу прогалин у попередніх ідеях. Метою цього проекту було, продемонструвати характеристики граматичного, аудіолінгвального, природного та комунікативного підходу, включаючи теорії, які лежать в основі кожного підходу, причини їх створення, ресурси та методи навчання, а також роль, яку відіграють вчителі, студенти, та L1 студентів у процесі викладання та вивчення мови. Згідно зі зібраними інформаціями, характеристики кожної стратегії визначалися тим, як мова мала бути використана, і теоретичними проблемами, які визначали ці підходи. Деякі аспекти чотирьох досліджених тут систем, як і використання книг, перетиналися. Інші характеристики були унікальними для кожного підходу, наприклад, основна теорія граматичного та аудіомовного підходів та ціль, для якої вони були створені. Певні риси поділяють граматичний та аудіолінгвальний підходи, а також підходи NA та CLT. Як зазначалося раніше, на такі характеристики вплинули теоретичні основи методів, а також час та історичне середовище, в якому вони були створені.

APPANDICES

Questionnaire

The Effective Foreign Language Teacher

Instructions: Please reflect on your personal beliefs regarding what characterizes effective foreign language teaching. Carefully read each statement and indicate to what extent you agree or disagree by circling the statement that best describes your opinion. There are no right or wrong answers, just those that are right for you. Your sincere, personal responses will guarantee the success of the study. Thank you.

Effective foreign language teachers should:

1. frequently use computer-based technologies (Internet, CD-ROM, email) in teaching the language.

Strongly Agree* Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree

2. base at least some part of students' grades on completion of assigned group tasks.

3. devote as much time to the teaching of culture as to the teaching of language.

4. require students to use the language outside of class with other speakers of the language (e.g., Internet, email, clubs, community events, etc.).

5. not correct students immediately after they make a mistake in speaking.

6. allow students to respond to test questions in listening and reading via English rather than the foreign language.

7. not use English in the foreign language classroom.

8. only correct students indirectly when they produce oral errors instead of directly (e.g., correctly repeating back to them rather than directly stating that they are incorrect).

9. be as knowledgeable about the culture(s) of those who speak the language as the language itself.

10. not grade language production (i.e., speaking and writing) primarily for grammatical accuracy.

11. teach the language primarily by having students complete specific tasks (e.g., finding out prices of rooms and rates at a hotel) rather than grammar-focused exercises.

12. have students respond to commands physically in the foreign language (e.g., "stand up," "pick up your book," etc.).

13. address errors by immediately providing explanations as to why students' responses are incorrect.
14. require students to speak in the foreign language beginning the first day of class.
15. not use predominantly small groups or pair work to complete activities in class.
16. mostly use activities that practice specific grammar points rather than activities whose goal is merely to exchange information.
17. ask students to begin speaking the foreign language only when they feel they are ready to.
18. not present a particular grammar point without illustrating how the structure is used in a specific, real-world context.
19. speak the foreign language with native-like control of both grammar and accent.
20. teach grammar by giving examples of grammatical structures before explaining the grammar rules.
21. use predominantly real-life materials (e.g., music, pictures, foods, clothing) in teaching both the language and the culture rather than the textbook.
22. not simplify or alter how they speak so that students can understand every word being said.
23. base at least some part of students' grades on their ability to interact with classmates successfully in the foreign language.
24. use activities where students have to find out unknown information from classmates using the foreign language

* On the original questionnaire four columns containing bubbles representing each response option appeared to the right of the items but have been removed to save space. (Brown, 2009.)

NYILATKOZAT

Alulírott, Ancsa Dominika angol szakos hallgató, kijelentem, hogy a dolgozatomat a II. Rákóczi Ferenc Kárpátaljai Magyar Főiskolán, a Filológia tanszéken készítettem, angol nyelv és irodalom tanári diploma megszerzése végett.

Kijelentem, hogy a dolgozatot más szakon korábban nem védtem meg, saját munkám eredménye, és csak a hivatkozott forrásokat (szakirodalom, eszközök stb.) használtam fel.

Tudomásul veszem, hogy dolgozatomat a II. Rákóczi Ferenc Kárpátaljai Magyar Főiskola könyvtárának Kézirattárában helyezik el.

Beregszász, 2022. június 1.

Ancsa Dominika