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OLIY TA'LIM, FAN VA INNOVATSIYALAR  
VAZIRLIGI

NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

FAKULTETLARARO CHET TILLAR KAFEDRASI  
CHET TILLARNI EGALLASHNING  
UMUMYEVROPA KOMPETENSIYALARI (CEFR)  
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2024 yil 1 - sonli majlis bayoni.

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Ishchi o'quv - dastur NamDU o'quv uslubiy kengashida ko'rib chiqilgan va tasdiqqa tavsiya qilingan.

## MUNDARIJA

	<b>MAVZULAR NOMI</b>	<b>SAHIFA</b>
	<b>O'QUV MATERIALLAR</b>  Asosiy matn; Topshiriqlar variantlari; Masala va misollar; Keyslar to'plami;	
	<b>MUSTAQIL TA'LIM MASHG'ULOTLARI</b>	
	<b>GLOSSARIY</b>	
	<b>ILOVALAR:</b>	
	Fan dasturi;	
	Testlar;	
	Tarqatma materiallar;	
	Baholash mezonlarini qo'llash bo'yicha uslubiy ko'rsatmalar;	

Lesson plan – 1 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** Introduction to the subject, aim and theoretical issue of foreign language teaching

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
<b>Teacher</b>	A'zamjon SOBITOV
<b>Group</b>	IV-course
<b>Method</b>	Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)
<b>Durations / Meetings</b>	80 Minutes / 2 Meetings
<b>Objectives</b>	Students will be able to; <ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Develop student's speaking skills</li><li>2. Encourage asking and giving directions in English</li><li>3. Develop student's speaking micro skills</li><li>4. Raise students' communicative skills</li><li>5. Achieve skills integration</li><li>6. Enhance students' collaboration</li></ol>
<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

This article considers the debate in Uzbekistan into the learning of foreign languages. This article raises and discusses issues that arise in language learning. It is noted that in many countries it is necessary to learn at least three languages, namely the mother tongue, national language and appropriate foreign language that make heavy demands on the time available in the curriculum of the schools if adequate levels of

competence in language usage are to be attained. 1. The state of foreign language teaching in Uzbekistan Currently, in Uzbekistan great attention is given to the radical reorganization of the educational system that will give an opportunity to improve it to the level of modern standards. In order to realize the aims and tasks put forward by the Law of the Republic of Uzbekistan "On Education" and the "National Program of Personnel Training" the complex system of reorganizing the structure and the content of personnel training, proceeding from perspectives of the social, economic development of the society, contemporary achievements of science, culture, technique and technology are being created in the country. The Presidential Decree "On measures to further improve of foreign language learning system" a lot of projects have been done as an implementation of this important document. We can mention that from 2013/2014 academic year teaching of foreign languages, mainly English, started from the first grade of the primary school in the format of games and informal conversation lessons and since the second class schoolchildren learned the alphabet, studied grammar and developed speech skills. And regular training programs shown in the mass media are giving positive results not only in acquisition of knowledge and skills, but also in motivating Uzbek children to foreign language learning. One of the most important elements of professional skill is knowledge of a foreign language. For a successful career in modern society, one should master several languages for further intellectual development of the person. In the past half century, many developing countries have increased primary school enrollment rates to near universal coverage, so that potentially the number of children who are seeking secondary education has greatly increased. At the same time, these countries are concerned about whether those who proceed to secondary education are learning skills that are useful to them and are in demand in the economy.

In this technological age countries compete in part on the basis of the access to and creation of knowledge. To succeed in an increasingly knowledge-based global economy, workers must have the skills and training necessary to use and generate new technologies. To achieve those ends, a high percentage of the population must master higher-order mathematics and communication skills that cannot be learned in primary school alone. Well-paying jobs in the manufacturing and service sectors increasingly require secondary education. Students who never complete secondary school cannot compete for such jobs and are unable to continue their studies at the tertiary level. The spread of English in Uzbekistan greatly differs from that of Russian, back at the beginning of 20 th century, being marked mostly as a desirable rather than suppressive process [5.p.276-290]. Uzbek people realize that English is significant in all regards when it comes to pursuing international education, attaining a good career and keeping up with the rapid pace of world changes. They greatly favor the English language, seeing it as the key to successful and prosperous life. Language specialist Rod Bolitho marks such strong interest in the language by two factors: the intention of studying and working abroad and idealization of The UK and US. These two reasons are considered the strongest Philosophical Readings XIII.4 (2021), pp. 1225-1235. 1226 Info@philosophicalreadings.org 10.5281/zenodo.5764163 motivations for the Uzbek to learn it. Hasanova [5.p.25] attributes the continuously increasing interest in the country in learning English to the international significance of the language. Even though Hasanova mentioned the scarcity of sources informing the language situation in the country, there are language specialists who have discussed this topic, sharing their empiric observations and experiences. West characterizes English in Uzbekistan as a subject language, mostly acquired through educational training. Bolitho predicts that English can

totally supplant Russian in several decades. Duff and Dickens [6.p. 46] in their work drew attention to English teaching and the language level in rural areas in opposition to urban parts of the country. Snow looked into teacher preparation experiences in the country, illustrating a unique English medium program preparing English language teachers IELTE (Institute of English Language Teacher Education). The English language owns the status of foreign language in Uzbekistan. However, the government wants to see the language become a second language, fluently used by society, especially the younger generation. This intention of the government can easily be observed in the decree of the president, where the role of English is highly emphasized and both education and media are called for reformation and upgrading to serve the pervasiveness of English in the country. A number of languages highlight the importance of the presidential decree in the increase of attention to the English language in educational establishments, which is occurring in all stages of education. In the last two years several changes in the field of higher education have occurred in the line with other sectors of the country. One of the considerable reforms in 2016 is the full modernization of bachelor and master curricula, in consideration of the best practices of successful universities of the world. The modernization considers new requirements for teaching staff; e.g. they should present good knowledge in foreign languages and IT skills apart from their professional subjects. Study programs are revised and updated taking into account changing labor market requirements. Moreover, new study materials (mainly books) have been introduced with translation into.

Lesson plan – 2 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** CEFR: learning, teaching, assessment in the conditions of Uzbekistan

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
<b>Teacher</b>	A'zamjon SOBITOV
<b>Group</b>	IV-course
<b>Method</b>	Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)
<b>Durations / Meetings</b>	80 Minutes / 2 Meetings
<b>Objectives</b>	Students will be able to; <ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Develop student's speaking skills</li><li>2. Encourage asking and giving directions in English</li><li>3. Develop student's speaking micro skills</li><li>4. Raise students' communicative skills</li><li>5. Achieve skills integration</li><li>6. Enhance students' collaboration</li></ol>
<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

The English for Academics programme is developed in partnership between the Ministry of higher and secondary specialised education of



the republic of Uzbekistan and the British Council to support the process of educational reform in Uzbekistan and to contribute to the implementation of the Decree of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan On further Development of the Education System dated April 20, 2017.

The overall aim of the programme is to equip academics in higher education with skills to enable them to collaborate with their peers internationally around education and research agendas and benefit from further professional development opportunities including short term courses, Master's and PhD programmes overseas.

The programme is referenced to the CEFR and Uzbekistan National Standards for Foreign Language teaching and is based on the needs analyses conducted among 300 potential participants of the Programme and focus groups with selected participants.

The programme consists of three modules:

1. the initial three-week face-to-face module
2. twenty-week supported open learning module
3. final week of face to face module to consolidate the experience.

The new programme offers a wide range of cutting edge print and online resources for language learning and professional development, training in strategies for language learning and examinations and promoted development of learner autonomy. Drawing on advances of education technology and e-learning and to support the Programme a dedicated platform was developed by the Ministry of higher and secondary education of the Republic of Uzbekistan. The Programme's blended learning approach is ideally suited to busy education professionals who

need to develop both professionally and personally in order to meet 21st century challenges in their field.

The following stages were undertaken while implementing the project:

- the trainer training event was conducted in June 2017
- the participants were selected based on the British Council's diagnostic test results (APTIS)
- the first module for the two cohorts of participants for two levels - A2+ and B1+ was launched in August 2017. The courses were coordinated by the project partner - Head scientific and methodological center for professional development of academic and executive staff in Higher education in 22 universities (hubs) in Uzbekistan
- the second online module was run between September and December 2017. Learning was facilitated and supported by national expert professionals who offered professional advice and direct training to ensure that members derived maximum benefit from their period of study
- the third module of the programme was conducted in December 2017. All participants who successfully completed the course were awarded with the certificates.

As a continuous process, assessment establishes measurable student learning outcomes, provides a sufficient amount of learning opportunities to achieve these outcomes, implements a systematic way of gathering, analyzing and interpreting evidence to determine how well student learning matches expectations, and uses the collected information to give feedback on the improvement of students' learning.[6] Assessment is an

important aspect of educational process which determines the level of accomplishments of students.[7]

The final purpose of assessment practices in education depends on the theoretical framework of the practitioners and researchers, their assumptions and beliefs about the nature of human mind, the origin of knowledge, and the process of learning.

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Types

[edit]

The term assessment is generally used to refer to all activities teachers use to help students learn and to gauge student progress.[8] Assessment can be divided for the sake of convenience using the following categorizations:

1. Placement, formative, summative and diagnostic assessment
2. Objective and subjective
3. Referencing (criterion-referenced, norm-referenced, and ipsative (forced-choice))
4. Informal and formal
5. Internal and external

Placement, formative, summative and diagnostic

[edit]

Assessment is often divided into initial, formative, and summative categories for the purpose of considering different objectives for assessment practices.

Lesson plan – 3 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** The common European Framework in its political and educational

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
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<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

context

The Common European Framework provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe. It describes in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively. The description also covers the cultural context in which language is set. The Framework also defines levels of proficiency which allow learners' progress to be measured at each stage of learning and on a life-long basis. The Common European Framework is intended to overcome the barriers to communication among professionals working in the field of modern languages arising from the different educational systems in Europe. It provides the means for educational administrators, course designers, teachers, teacher trainers, examining bodies, etc., to reflect on their current practice, with a view to situating and co-ordinating their efforts and to ensuring that they meet the real needs of the learners for whom they are responsible. By providing a common basis for the explicit description of objectives, content and methods, the Framework will enhance the transparency of courses, syllabuses and qualifications, thus promoting international co-operation in the field of modern languages. The provision of objective criteria for describing language proficiency will facilitate the mutual recognition of qualifications gained in different learning contexts, and accordingly will aid European mobility. The taxonomic nature of the Framework inevitably means trying to handle the great complexity of human language by breaking language competence down into separate components. This confronts us with psychological and pedagogical problems of some depth. Communication calls upon the whole human being. The competences

separated and classified below interact in complex ways in the development of each unique human personality. As a social agent, each individual forms relationships with a widening cluster of overlapping social groups, which together define identity. In an intercultural approach, it is a central objective of language education to promote the favourable development of the learner's whole personality and sense of identity in response to the enriching experience of otherness in language and culture. It must be left to teachers and the learners themselves to reintegrate the many parts into a healthily developing whole. The Framework includes the description of 'partial' qualifications, appropriate when only a more restricted knowledge of a language is required (e.g. for understanding rather than speaking), or when a limited amount of time is available for the learning of a third or fourth language and more useful results can perhaps be attained by aiming at, say, recognition rather than recall skills. Giving formal recognition to such abilities will help to promote plurilingualism through the learning of a wider variety of European languages.

### 1.2 The aims and objectives of Council of Europe language policy

CEF serves the overall aim of the Council of Europe as defined in Recommendations R (82) 18 and R (98) 6 of the Committee of Ministers: 'to achieve greater unity among its members' and to pursue this aim 'by the adoption of common action in the cultural field'. The work of the Council for Cultural Co-operation of the Council of Europe with regard to modern languages, organised since its foundation in a series of medium-term projects, has derived its coherence and continuity from adherence to three basic principles set down in the preamble to Recommendation R (82) 18 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe:

- that the rich heritage of diverse languages and cultures in Europe is a valuable common resource to be protected and developed, and that a major educational effort is needed to convert that diversity from a barrier to

communication into a source of mutual enrichment and understanding; • that it is only through a better knowledge of European modern languages that it will be possible to facilitate communication and interaction among Europeans of different mother tongues in order to promote European mobility, mutual understanding and co-operation, and overcome prejudice and discrimination; • that member states, when adopting or developing national policies in the field of modern language learning and teaching, may achieve greater convergence at the European level by means of appropriate arrangements for ongoing co-operation and co-ordination of policies. In the pursuit of these principles, the Committee of Ministers called upon member governments (F14) To promote the national and international collaboration of governmental and non-governmental institutions engaged in the development of methods of teaching and evaluation in the field of modern language learning and in the production and use of materials, including institutions engaged in the production and use of multi-media materials. (F17) To take such steps as are necessary to complete the establishment of an effective European system of information exchange covering all aspects of language learning, teaching and research, and making full use of information technology. Consequently, the activities of the CDCC (Council for Cultural Co-operation), its Committee for Education and its Modern Languages Section, have been concerned to encourage, support and co-ordinate the efforts of member governments and nongovernmental institutions to improve language learning in accordance with these fundaCommon European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment 2 mental principles and in particular the steps which they take to implement the general measures set out in the Appendix to R(82)18: A. General measures 1. To ensure, as far as possible, that all sections of their populations have access to effective means of acquiring a knowledge of

the languages of other member states (or of other communities within their own country) as well as the skills in the use of those languages that will enable them to satisfy their communicative needs and in particular:

- . 1.1 to deal with the business of everyday life in another country, and to help foreigners staying in their own country to do so;
- . 1.2 to exchange information and ideas with young people and adults who speak a different language and to communicate their thoughts and feelings to them;
- . 1.3 to achieve a wider and deeper understanding of the way of life and forms of thought of other peoples and of their cultural heritage.

2. To promote, encourage and support the efforts of teachers and learners at all levels to apply in their own situation the principles of the construction of language-learning systems (as these are progressively developed within the Council of Europe 'Modern languages' programme):

- . 2.1 by basing language teaching and learning on the needs, motivations, characteristics and resources of learners;
- . 2.2 by defining worthwhile and realistic objectives as explicitly as possible;
- . 2.3 by developing appropriate methods and materials;
- . 2.4 by developing suitable forms and instruments for the evaluating of learning programmes.

3. To promote research and development programmes leading to the introduction, at all educational levels, of methods and materials best suited to enabling different classes and types of student to acquire a communicative proficiency appropriate to their specific needs.



Lesson plan – 4 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** Common Reference levels

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
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<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

C2

Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information

from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.

Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text

C1

on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.

**INDEPENDENT USER**

B2

Can understand the main ideas of complex abstract topics, including technical discussions and specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and makes regular interaction with native speakers without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed written texts on subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue, giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.

B1

Can understand the main points of clear standard texts regularly encountered in work, school, leisure and social situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language spoken. Can produce simple connected text on subjects of personal interest. Can describe experiences, express hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and plans.

**BASIC USER**

A2

Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic conversational information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can interact in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and areas of immediate need.

A1

Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions aimed at the satisfaction of needs

introduce him/herself and others and can ask a personal details such as where he/she lives, things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help

Lesson plan – 5 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** Language use and the language learner

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
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<b>Group</b>	IV-course
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	5. Achieve skills integration 6. Enhance students' collaboration
<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

## 1. Introduction

Natural languages do not differ arbitrarily, but are constrained so that certain properties recur across languages. These linguistic universals range from fundamental design features shared by all human languages to probabilistic typological tendencies. Why do we see these commonalities? One widespread intuition (see e.g. [1]) is that linguistic features which are easier to learn or which offer advantages in processing and/or communicative utility should spread at the expense of less learnable or functional alternatives. They should therefore be over-represented cross-linguistically, suggesting that linguistic universals arise from the interaction between the processes of language learning and language use.

In this paper, we take linguistic variation as a test case for exploring this relationship between language universals and language learning and use. Variation is ubiquitous in languages: phonetic, morphological, syntactic, semantic and lexical variation are all common. However, this variation tends to be predictable: usage of alternate forms is conditioned (deterministically or probabilistically) in accordance with phonological, semantic, pragmatic or sociolinguistic criteria. For instance, in many varieties of English, the last sound in words like 'cat', 'bat' and 'hat' has two possible realizations: either [t], an alveolar stop, or [□□], a glottal stop. However, whether [t] or [□□] is used is not random, but conditioned on linguistic and social factors. For instance, Stuart-Smith [2] showed that T-glottaling in Glaswegian varies according to linguistic context, style, social class of the speaker and age of the speaker ([□□] is most frequent before a pause, and less frequent at a pauseless word boundary; glottaling is more common in more informal speech, working-class speakers T-glottal more than middle-class speakers, with pre-pausal glottaling being essentially obligatory for working-class speakers, and younger speakers T-glottal more frequently than older speakers, with the glottal being obligatory in a wider range of contexts). Similar patterns of conditioned variation are found in morphology and syntax. Truly free variation, where there are no conditioning factors

governing which variant is deployed in which context, is rare or entirely absent from natural language [3].

How can we explain the conditioned nature of variation in natural language? Does this property of natural language reflect biases in language learning, or are there other factors at play? In this paper, we review three strands of experimental work exploring these questions, and introduce new modelling and experimental data. We find that while the biases of language learners can potentially play a role in shaping this feature of linguistic systems, the relationship between biases of learners and the structure of languages is not straightforward.

The structure of the paper is as follows. Section 2 reviews the literature showing that language learners (children in particular) are biased against learning linguistic systems exhibiting unpredictable variation, and tend to reduce or eliminate that variation during learning. This suggests a straightforward link between their learning biases and the absence of unpredictable variation in language. However, in §3 we present computational modelling and empirical results showing that weak biases in learning can be amplified as language is passed from person to person. This means that we can expect to see strong effects in language (e.g. the absence of unconditioned variation) even when learners do not have strong biases. Transmission of language in populations can also produce the opposite effect, masking the biases of learners: a population's language might retain variability even though every learner is biased against acquiring such variation. In the final section (§4), we show that pressures acting during language use (the way people adjust their language output in order to be understood, or the tendency to reuse recently heard forms) may also shape linguistic systems. This means that caution should be exercised when trying to infer linguistic universals from the biases of learners, or vice versa, because the dynamics of transmission and use, which mediate between learner biases and language design, are complex.

## 2. Learning

In a pioneering series of experiments, Hudson Kam & Newport [4,5] used statistical learning paradigms with artificial languages to explore how children (age 6 years) and adults respond to linguistic input containing unpredictably variable elements. After a multi-day training procedure, participants were asked to produce descriptions in the artificial language, the measure of interest being whether they veridically reproduced the ‘unnatural’ unpredictable variation in their input (a phenomenon known

as ‘probability matching’), or reduced/eliminated that variability. Their primary finding was that children tend to regularize, eliminating all but one of the variants during learning, whereas adults were more likely to reproduce the unconditioned variation in their input. This difference between the learning biases of adults and children suggests that the absence of unpredictable variation in human languages may be a consequence of biases in child language acquisition.

It remains an open question why children might have stronger biases against unpredictable variation than adults. A common hypothesis is that children's bias toward regularization might be due to their limited memory [4–6]. However, these accounts are hard to reconcile with other research indicating that limitations of this type do not necessarily lead to more regularization [7,8]; while it is possible that memory limitations may play a role, it seems unlikely that they are the main driving force behind this behaviour. Consistent with this, there is evidence that learners bring domain-specific biases to the language learning task: experimental paradigms which compare this tendency to regularize in closely matched linguistic and non-linguistic tasks indicate stronger biases for regularity in language [9,10], suggesting that learners may expect language or communicative conventions more generally not to exhibit unpredictable variation (a point we return to in §4).

The biases of learners also interact with features of the linguistic input. For instance, adults tend to regularize more when the input is both unpredictable and complex (e.g. when there are multiple unpredictably varying synonymous forms) but can acquire quite complex systems of conditioned variation (e.g. where there are multiple synonymous forms whose use is lexically or syntactically conditioned: [5,11]). There is also suggestive evidence that conditioning facilitates the learning of variability by children, although they are less adept at acquiring conditioned variation than adults [11,12]. Similarly, if the learning task is simplified by mixing novel function words and grammatical structures with familiar English vocabulary, children's tendency to regularize is reduced [13].

Some types of linguistic variability are also more prone to regularization than others. Culbertson et al. [14] show that adult learners given input exhibiting variable word order will favour orders where modifiers appear consistently before or after the head of a phrase; children show a similar pattern of effects, with a stronger bias [15]. Finally, the assumptions learners make about their input also affect regularization: adults are far more likely to regularize when unconditioned input is ‘explained away’ as errors by the speaker generating that data [16].

Taken together, these various factors suggest that regularization of inconsistent input cannot be explained solely as a result of learner biases. The nature of those biases, the complexity of the input learners receive, and the pragmatic assumptions the learner brings to the task all shape how learners respond to linguistic variation. Importantly, regularization is not an all-or-nothing phenomenon—the strength of learners' tendency to regularize away unpredictable variation can be modulated by domain, task difficulty and task framing. Furthermore, rather than being categorically different in their response to variation, adults and children appear to have biases that differ quantitatively rather than qualitatively. Adults might regularize more given the right input or task framing, and children will regularize less given the right kind of input. This suggests that, while rapid regularization driven by strong biases in child learning may play a role in explaining the constrained nature of variation in natural language, there is a need for a mechanistic account explaining how weaker biases at the individual level could have strong effects at the level of languages.

Lesson plan – 6 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** The learner's competences

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
<b>Teacher</b>	A'zamjon SOBITOV
<b>Group</b>	IV-course
<b>Method</b>	Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)



<b>Durations / Meetings</b>	80 Minutes / 2 Meetings
<b>Objectives</b>	Students will be able to;
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Develop student's speaking skills</li> <li>2. Encourage asking and giving directions in English</li> <li>3. Develop student's speaking micro skills</li> <li>4. Raise students' communicative skills</li> <li>5. Achieve skills integration</li> <li>6. Enhance students' collaboration</li> </ol>
<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

### Changing curricula require new assessment practices

EU countries are introducing new competence-based curricula. With its emphasis on the application of knowledge in real life situations, competence-based teaching and learning represents a significant departure from content-only based education. It requires new approaches to assessment.

Multiple types of assessment are essential over time to get a full picture of learner performance and progress. In addition to standardised tests, new assessment methods are needed that capture a broader range of learning aims. This means not only assessing knowledge, but also the ability to use knowledge in various contexts – as well as learners' personal and social development and well-being.

### Integrating key competences

During the first semester 2023, the working group on schools explored the question of how effective alignment of formative and summative assessments (sometimes described, respectively, as “assessment for learning” and “assessment of learning”) of learners' key competences can be ensured, supported and more effectively integrated into teaching and learning.

Their report captures the main findings and sets out key messages to guide national and regional policy makers.

## Report's key messages

Ensure a balanced and coherent approach to assessing student competences

For example, by developing a clear and shared vision on education, in cooperation with all relevant stakeholders, ensuring consistency between curriculum, learning standards and assessment; fully embedding the principles of inclusion, equity and participation in the design and implementation of effective assessment of competences.

Ensure that student assessment approaches are 'fit for purpose'

For example, by supporting teachers to use a combination of assessment approaches, starting with initial teacher education and throughout opportunities for continuous professional development, networking and learning communities and by promoting and disseminating high-quality research and proven good practices of classroom-based assessments.

Develop a long-term strategy to integrate new approaches to assessment across systems

For example, by piloting and refining new assessment approaches in selected schools prior to introducing system-wide change, supporting school leaders and ensuring that teacher certification examinations, professional standards, teacher appraisal and school evaluations require to demonstrate competences related to classroom-based summative and formative assessment.

The original wording of the key competence:

‘Personal, social and learning to learn competence is the ability to reflect upon oneself, effectively manage time and information, work with others in a constructive way, remain resilient and manage one’s own learning and career. It includes the ability to cope with uncertainty and complexity, learn to learn, support one’s physical and emotional well-being, to maintain physical and mental health, and to be able to lead a health-conscious, future-oriented life, empathize and manage conflict in an inclusive and supportive context.’

Suggestions for use in European youth programmes:

Taking part in a European Project might have a big impact on -especially younger- participants’ life. Being together with other people

form (a) different countr(y)ies is an intensive new situation where they are confronted with their own attitudes and behaviour. Reflecting on oneself, relations to others and the role in a group is an essential part of those kind of projects. Working together with others in a meaningful and constructive way supports personal development.

Learning to learn competence is about how the participants are aware of and how they take responsibility for their own learning. European projects offer various possibilities for young people to choose their own learning paths and to decide what they want to get out of those experiences.

It's about setting learning aims and objectives, reflecting upon own learning strengths and weaknesses and the ways to learn best, organizing own learning, self-motivation, being aware of being a learner, taking responsibility for own development, assessing and monitoring the progress, collecting outcomes and reporting changes.

Questions that can help participants to reflect:

- What are things you are really good in?
- What do you like when you work together with other people?
- What do you find challenging when working with other people?
- What do you want to find out about yourself while working with others?
- What was your personal motivation to participate in this project?
- What were the most important things you got out of this project?
- What are the things you learnt in your life you are most proud of?
- How do you learn best? What motivates you?
- How did you plan your learning aims and objectives? To what extent have you reached them?
- Did you learn things that you did not plan or expect to learn? Which?
- Who and what were supportive for your learning? What kind of assistance did you need to improve yourself?
- What did you discover about yourself?
- What else would you like to improve?

Lesson plan – 7 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** Language learning and teaching

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
<b>Teacher</b>	A'zamjon SOBITOV
<b>Group</b>	IV-course
<b>Method</b>	Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)
<b>Durations / Meetings</b>	80 Minutes / 2 Meetings
<b>Objectives</b>	Students will be able to; <ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Develop student's speaking skills</li><li>2. Encourage asking and giving directions in English</li><li>3. Develop student's speaking micro skills</li><li>4. Raise students' communicative skills</li><li>5. Achieve skills integration</li><li>6. Enhance students' collaboration</li></ol>
<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching is an international refereed journal devoted to research into all aspects of innovation in language learning and teaching. It publishes research articles, innovative practice articles, and book reviews. It draws on a range of disciplines that

share a focus on exploring new approaches to language learning and teaching.

Changes in learners' work, life, and study patterns and the use of new technologies for learning strongly impact on every aspect of language learning and teaching, from how we perceive the roles of teachers and learners, to how we adapt to new roles, from the materials and methods we develop to support learners in more flexible ways, to the research methodologies we use to investigate learning and teaching. The impact of globalisation, increased international mobility, and a need for more flexible ways of learning make a critical reflection on the changing needs of the learner necessary. The journal offers a forum for this kind of reflection and encourages researchers to explore the theoretical underpinnings of new pedagogies which focus on the development of and support for innovation in language learning.

The journal will appeal to anyone interested in research into the development of or practical application of new methodologies in language teaching and learning. Its aims are:

- To publish research into the theoretical and methodological bases of innovative approaches in language education;
- To encourage dissemination and cross-fertilisation of policies and practice relating to innovation in pedagogies for language learning in different learning contexts.

In the journal, the concept of innovation is broadly interpreted, and may be related to innovation in practice, innovation in policy, innovation in research methodologies, or any other form of innovation. It is important to consider the context in which the research is located, as clearly what is viewed as innovation in a well-resourced environment with, for example, access to the latest technologies, is different from the innovation that may occur in other contexts. For this reason, we require authors to be explicit in their articles about the ways in which their work constitutes innovation.

The scope of the journal is intentionally broad, as it is intended to offer an interdisciplinary platform for all those interested in innovative pedagogies and methodologies. Articles may draw on fields as diverse as educational psychology, artificial intelligence, neurolinguistics, human-machine interaction, educational technologies, philosophy, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, multi-/plurilingual education, and others.

Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching accepts two types of articles, in addition to book reviews:

1) Full length research articles (no more than 7,000 words, and up to 9,000 words for research syntheses), which report on research whether it relates to pedagogy, policy, theoretical concepts or other relevant fields;

2) 'Innovative practice' articles (4,000-5,000 words), which report on an innovation in teaching, materials development, or another practical element of learning and teaching, preferably with the inclusion of some sort of evidence from evaluation. Examples of Innovative Practice articles are [here](#) and [here](#).

Both need to be of a high standard and be grounded in theory.

### Book Reviews

The journal welcomes book reviews (800-1200 words) that critically engage with publications in the field of innovative language learning and/or teaching. Book reviews should offer insight and evaluation of the scholarly contributions, methodologies or arguments presented. The ways in which the work represents innovation must be made explicit.

All book reviews should be submitted through the online portal. Unsolicited emails to editors will not be accepted.

### Peer Review Policy

All papers are anonymously peer reviewed by a minimum of two experts.

Lesson plan – 8 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** Tasks and their role in language teaching

### Lesson plan (with teaching material)

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by

	creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
<b>Teacher</b>	A'zamjon SOBITOV
<b>Group</b>	IV-course
<b>Method</b>	Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)
<b>Durations / Meetings</b>	80 Minutes / 2 Meetings
<b>Objectives</b>	Students will be able to;
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<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

Task-based language teaching (TBLT), also known as task-based instruction (TBI), focuses on the use of authentic language to complete meaningful tasks in the target language. Such tasks can include visiting a doctor, conducting an interview, or calling customer service for help. Assessment is primarily based on task outcomes (the appropriate completion of real-world tasks) rather than on accuracy of prescribed language forms. This makes TBLT especially popular for developing target language fluency and student confidence. As such, TBLT can be considered a branch of communicative language teaching (CLT).

## Background

[edit]

Task-based language learning has its origins in communicative language teaching, and is a subcategory of it. Educators adopted task-based language learning for a variety of reasons. Some moved to a task-based syllabus in an attempt to develop learner capacity to express meaning,[1] while others wanted to make language in the classroom truly communicative, rather than the pseudo-communication that results from classroom activities with no direct connection to real-life situations. Others, like Prabhu in the Bangalore Project, thought that tasks were a

way of tapping into learners' natural mechanisms for second-language acquisition, and weren't concerned with real-life communication per se.[2]

TBLT was popularized by N. S. Prabhu while working in Bangalore, India, according to Jeremy Harmer.[3] Prabhu noticed that his students could learn language just as easily with a non-linguistic problem as when they were concentrating on linguistic questions. Major scholars who have done research in this area include Teresa P. Pica, Martin East, and Michael Long.

Definition of a task

[edit]

A concept, earlier known as the "communicative activity" in 1970s and 1980s[1] was later replaced by the term task has since been defined differently by different scholars. Willis (1996)[4] has defined a task as a goal based activity involving the use of the learners' existing language resources, that leads to the outcome. Examples include playing games, and solving problems and puzzles etc. Ellis (2003)[5] defines a task as a work plan that involves a pragmatic processing of language, using the learners' existing language resources and attention to meaning, and resulting in the completion of an outcome which can be assessed for its communicative function. David Nunan (2004) draws upon the definitions given by other experts, of two types of tasks: target tasks and pedagogical tasks. Targets tasks refer to doing something outside the classroom and in the real world; whereas pedagogical tasks refer to the tasks students perform inside the classroom and in response to target language input or processing. Nunan concludes that target tasks may be non-linguistic. He defines pedagogical task as a classroom activity that involves a student to understand and produce the target language while focusing on conveying the meaning and not being too concerned with form.[6] On the other hand, Long (1985) defines a task as things people do in everyday life.[7]

According to Rod Ellis, a task has four main characteristics:[5]

1. A task involves a primary focus on (pragmatic) meaning.
2. A task has some kind of 'gap'. (Prabhu identified the three main types as information gap, reasoning gap, and opinion gap.)
3. The participants choose the linguistic resources needed to complete the task.
4. A task has a clearly defined, non-linguistic outcome.

In practice

[edit]

The core of the lesson or project is, as the name suggests, the task. Teachers and curriculum developers should bear in mind that any



attention to form, i.e., grammar or vocabulary, increases the likelihood that learners may be distracted from the task itself and become preoccupied with detecting and correcting errors and/or looking up language in dictionaries and grammar references. Although there may be several effective frameworks for creating a task-based learning lesson, here is a basic outline:

#### Pre-task

[edit]

In the pre-task, the teacher will present what will be expected from the students in the task phase. Additionally, in the "weak" form of TBLT, the teacher may prime the students with key vocabulary or grammatical constructs, although this can mean that the activity is, in effect, more similar to the more traditional present-practice-produce (PPP) paradigm. In "strong" task-based learning lessons, learners are responsible for selecting the appropriate language for any given context themselves. The instructors may also present a model of the task by either doing it themselves or by presenting picture, audio, or video demonstrating the task.[8]

#### Task

[edit]

During the task phase, the students perform the task, typically in small groups, although this depends on the type of activity. Unless the teacher plays a particular role in the task, the teacher's role is typically limited to one of an observer or counselor—thereby making it a more student-centered methodology.[9]

#### Review

[edit]

If learners have created tangible linguistic products, e.g. text, montage, presentation, audio or video recording, learners can review each other's work and offer constructive feedback. If a task is set to extend over longer periods of time, e.g. weeks, and includes iterative cycles of constructive activity followed by review, TBLT can be seen as analogous to Project-based learning.[10]

#### Types of task

[edit]

According to N. S. Prabhu, there are three main categories of task: information-gap, reasoning-gap, and opinion-gap.[11]

Information-gap activity, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another – or from one form to another, or from one place to another – generally calling for the decoding or encoding of

information from or into language. One example is pair work in which each member of the pair has a part of the total information (for example an incomplete picture) and attempts to convey it verbally to the other. Another example is completing a tabular representation with information available in a given piece of text. The activity often involves selection of relevant information as well, and learners may have to meet criteria of completeness and correctness in making the transfer.

Reasoning-gap activity, which involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns. One example is working out a teacher's timetable on the basis of given class timetables. Another is deciding what course of action is best (for example cheapest or quickest) for a given purpose and within given constraints. The activity necessarily involves comprehending and conveying information, as in an information-gap activity, but the information to be conveyed is not identical with that initially comprehended. There is a piece of reasoning which connects the two.

Opinion-gap activity, which involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation. One example is story completion; another is taking part in the discussion of a social issue. The activity may involve using factual information and formulating arguments to justify one's opinion, but there is no objective procedure for demonstrating outcomes as right or wrong, and no reason to expect the same outcome from different individuals or on different occasions.[11]

## Reception

[edit]

According to Jon Larsson, in considering problem-based learning for language learning, i.e., task-based language learning:[10]

...one of the main virtues of PBL is that it displays a significant advantage over traditional methods in how the communicative skills of the students are improved. The general ability of social interaction is also positively affected. These are, most will agree, two central factors in language learning. By building a language course around assignments that require students to act, interact and communicate it is hopefully possible to mimic some of the aspects of learning a language "on site", i.e. in a country where it is actually spoken. Seeing how learning a language in such an environment is generally much more effective than teaching the language exclusively as a foreign language, this is something that would hopefully be beneficial.

Larsson goes on to say:

Another large advantage of PBL is that it encourages students to gain a deeper sense of understanding. Superficial learning is often a problem in language education, for example when students, instead of acquiring a sense of when and how to use which vocabulary, learn all the words they will need for the exam next week and then promptly forget them.

In a PBL classroom this is combatted by always introducing the vocabulary in a real-world situation, rather than as words on a list, and by activating the student; students are not passive receivers of knowledge, but are instead required to actively acquire the knowledge. The feeling of being an integral part of their group also motivates students to learn in a way that the prospect of a final examination rarely manages to do.

Task-based learning benefits students because it is more student-centered, allows for more meaningful communication, and often provides for practical extra-linguistic skill building. As the tasks are likely to be familiar to the students (e.g.: visiting the doctor), students are more likely to be engaged, which may further motivate them in their language learning.[according to whom?]

According to Jeremy Harmer, tasks promote language acquisition through the types of language and interaction they require. Harmer says that although the teacher may present language in the pre-task, the students are ultimately free to use what grammar constructs and vocabulary they want. This allows them, he says, to use all the language they know and are learning, rather than just the 'target language' of the lesson.[12] On the other hand, according to Loschky and Bley-Vroman, tasks can also be designed to make certain target forms 'task-essential,' thus making it communicatively necessary for students to practice using them.[13] In terms of interaction, information gap tasks in particular have been shown to promote negotiation of meaning and output modification.[14][15]

According to Plews and Zhao, task-based language learning can suffer in practice from poorly informed implementation and adaptations that alter its fundamental nature. They say that lessons are frequently changed to be more like traditional teacher-led presentation-practice-production lessons than task-based lessons.[16]

Professional conferences and organizations

[edit]

As an outgrowth of the widespread interest in task-based teaching, the Biennial International Conference on Task-Based Language Teaching has occurred every other year since 2005. Past conferences have been held in

Belgium,[17] the United States,[18] England,[19] New Zealand,[20] Canada,[21] with the 2017 conference scheduled to take place in Barcelona, Spain.[22] These events promote theoretical and practical research on TBLT. In addition, the Japan Association for Language Teaching has a special interest group devoted to task-based learning,[23] which has also hosted its own conference in Japan.

Lesson plan – 9 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** Assessment

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
<b>Teacher</b>	A'zamjon SOBITOV
<b>Group</b>	IV-course
<b>Method</b>	Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)
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	5. Achieve skills integration 6. Enhance students' collaboration
<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

Educational assessment or educational evaluation[1] is the systematic process of documenting and using empirical data on the knowledge, skill, attitudes, aptitude and beliefs to refine programs and improve student learning.[2] Assessment data can be obtained by examining student work directly to assess the achievement of learning outcomes or it is based on data from which one can make inferences about learning.[3] Assessment is often used interchangeably with test but is not limited to tests.[4] Assessment can focus on the individual learner, the learning community (class, workshop, or other organized group of learners), a course, an academic program, the institution, or the educational system as a whole (also known as granularity). The word "assessment" came into use in an educational context after the Second World War.[5]

As a continuous process, assessment establishes measurable student learning outcomes, provides a sufficient amount of learning opportunities to achieve these outcomes, implements a systematic way of gathering, analyzing and interpreting evidence to determine how well student learning matches expectations, and uses the collected information to give feedback on the improvement of students' learning.[6] Assessment is an important aspect of educational process which determines the level of accomplishments of students.[7]

The final purpose of assessment practices in education depends on the theoretical framework of the practitioners and researchers, their

assumptions and beliefs about the nature of human mind, the origin of knowledge, and the process of learning.

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Types

[edit]

The term assessment is generally used to refer to all activities teachers use to help students learn and to gauge student progress.[8] Assessment can be divided for the sake of convenience using the following categorizations:

6. Placement, formative, summative and diagnostic assessment
7. Objective and subjective
8. Referencing (criterion-referenced, norm-referenced, and ipsative (forced-choice))
9. Informal and formal
10. Internal and external

Placement, formative, summative and diagnostic

[edit]

Assessment is often divided into initial, formative, and summative categories for the purpose of considering different objectives for assessment practices.

(1) Placement assessment – Placement evaluation may be used to place students according to prior achievement or level of knowledge, or personal characteristics, at the most appropriate point in an instructional sequence, in a unique instructional strategy, or with a suitable teacher[9] conducted through placement testing, i.e. the tests that colleges and universities use to assess college readiness and place students into their initial classes. Placement evaluation, also referred to as pre-assessment, initial assessment, or threshold knowledge test (TKT), is conducted before instruction or intervention to establish a baseline from which individual student growth can be measured. This type of assessment is used to know what the student's skill level is about the subject, it can also help the teacher to explain the material more efficiently. These assessments are generally not graded.[10]

(2) Formative assessment – This is generally carried out throughout a course or project. It is also referred to as "educative assessment," which is used to help learning. In an educational setting, a formative assessment might be a teacher (or peer) or the learner (e.g., through a self-assessment[11][12]), providing feedback on a student's work and would not necessarily be used for grading purposes. Formative assessments can take the form of diagnostic, standardized tests, quizzes, oral questions, or draft work. Formative assessments are carried out concurrently with instructions and the results may count. The formative assessments aim is to see if the students understand the instruction before doing a summative assessment.[10]

(3) Summative assessment – This is generally carried out at the end of a course or project. In an educational setting, summative assessments are typically used to assign students a course grade, and are evaluative. Summative assessments are made to summarize what the students have

learned in order to know whether they understand the subject matter well. This type of assessment is typically graded (e.g. pass/fail, 0–100) and can take the form of tests, exams or projects. Summative assessments are basically used to determine whether a student has passed or failed a class. A criticism of summative assessments is that they are reductive, and learners discover how well they have acquired knowledge too late for it to be of use.[10]

(4) Diagnostic assessment – At the end, diagnostic assessment focuses on the whole difficulties that occurred during the learning process.

Jay McTighe and Ken O'Connor proposed seven practices to effective learning.[10] One of them is about showing the criteria of the evaluation before the test and another the importance of pre-assessment to know what the skill levels of a student are before giving instructions. Giving a lot of feedback and encouragements are other practices.

Educational researcher Robert Stake[13] explains the difference between formative and summative assessment with the following analogy:

When the cook tastes the soup, that's formative. When the guests taste the soup, that's summative.[14]

Summative and formative assessment are often referred to in a learning context as assessment of learning and assessment for learning respectively. Assessment of learning is generally summative in nature and intended to measure learning outcomes and report those outcomes to students, parents and administrators. Assessment of learning mostly occurs at the conclusion of a class, course, semester or academic year while assessment for learning is generally formative in nature and is used by teachers to consider approaches to teaching and next steps for individual learners and the class.[15]



A common form of formative assessment is diagnostic assessment. Diagnostic assessment measures a student's current knowledge and skills for the purpose of identifying a suitable program of learning. Self-assessment is a form of diagnostic assessment which involves students assessing themselves.

Forward-looking assessment asks those being assessed to consider themselves in hypothetical future situations.[16]

Performance-based assessment is similar to summative assessment, as it focuses on achievement. It is often aligned with the standards-based education reform and outcomes-based education movement. Though ideally, they are significantly different from a traditional multiple choice test, they are most commonly associated with standards-based assessment which use free-form responses to standard questions scored by human scorers on a standards-based scale, meeting, falling below or exceeding a performance standard rather than being ranked on a curve. A well-defined task is identified and students are asked to create, produce or do something often in settings that involve real-world application of knowledge and skills. Proficiency is demonstrated by providing an extended response. Performance formats are further classified into products and performances. The performance may result in a product, such as a painting, portfolio, paper or exhibition, or it may consist of a performance, such as a speech, athletic skill, musical recital or reading.

Objective and subjective

[edit]

Assessment (either summative or formative) is often categorized as either objective or subjective. Objective assessment is a form of questioning which has a single correct answer. Subjective assessment is a form of

questioning which may have more than one correct answer (or more than one way of expressing the correct answer). There are various types of objective and subjective questions. Objective question types include true/false answers, multiple choice, multiple-response and matching questions while Subjective questions include extended-response questions and essays. Objective assessment is well suited to the increasingly popular computerized or online assessment format.

Some have argued that the distinction between objective and subjective assessments is neither useful nor accurate because, in reality, there is no such thing as "objective" assessment. In fact, all assessments are created with inherent biases built into decisions about relevant subject matter and content, as well as cultural (class, ethnic, and gender) biases.[17]

Basis of comparison

[edit]

Test results can be compared against an established criterion, or against the performance of other students, or against previous performance:

(5)Criterion-referenced assessment, typically using a criterion-referenced test, as the name implies, occurs when candidates are measured against defined (and objective) criteria. Criterion-referenced assessment is often but not always used to establish a person's competence (whether he/she can do something). The best-known example of criterion-referenced assessment is the driving test when learner drivers are measured against a range of explicit criteria (such as "Not endangering other road users").

(6)Norm-referenced assessment (colloquially known as "grading on the curve"), typically using a norm-referenced test, is not measured against defined criteria. This type of assessment is relative to the student body undertaking the assessment, It is effectively a way of comparing students.

The IQ test is the best-known example of norm-referenced assessment. Many entrance tests (to prestigious schools or universities) are norm-referenced, permitting a fixed proportion of students to pass ("passing" in this context means being accepted into the school or university rather than an explicit level of ability). This means that standards may vary from year to year depending on the quality of the cohort; criterion-referenced assessment does not vary from year to year (unless the criteria change).[18]

(7) Ipsative assessment is self-comparison either in the same domain over time, or comparative to other domains within the same student.

Informal and formal

[edit]

Assessment can be either formal or informal. Formal assessment usually implies a written document, such as a test, quiz, or paper. A formal assessment is given a numerical score or grade based on student performance, whereas an informal assessment does not contribute to a student's final grade. An informal assessment usually occurs in a more casual manner and may include observation, inventories, checklists, rating scales, rubrics, performance and portfolio assessments, participation, peer and self-evaluation, and discussion.[19]

Internal and external

[edit]

Internal assessment is set and marked by the school (i.e. teachers), students get the mark and feedback regarding the assessment. External assessment is set by the governing body, and is marked by non-biased personnel, some external assessments give much more limited feedback in their marking. However, in tests such as Australia's NAPLAN, the

criterion addressed by students is given detailed feedback in order for their teachers to address and compare the student's learning achievements and also to plan for the future.

Lesson plan – 10 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** Course evolution

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
<b>Teacher</b>	A'zamjon SOBITOV
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	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Develop student's speaking skills</li> <li>2. Encourage asking and giving directions in English</li> <li>3. Develop student's speaking micro skills</li> <li>4. Raise students' communicative skills</li> <li>5. Achieve skills integration</li> </ol>

	6. Enhance students' collaboration
<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

The difficulty of teaching evolution both complicates and invigorates research on evolution education. To present what is known and not known about the teaching and learning of evolution—which is a standard feature of convening events organized by the Academies—Ross Nehm, associate professor of science education at Ohio State University, gave an overview of the research literature on evolution education and then talked in more detail about his own research.

Go to:

#### THE EVIDENCE BASE

The literature on teaching and learning about evolution is extensive. In 2006 Nehm reviewed 200 of more than 750 papers published thus far about evolution education, identifying both strengths and limitations of the approaches taken in those studies (Nehm, 2006). This literature demonstrates that the general public, high school students, undergraduates, biology majors, science teachers, and medical students all have low levels of knowledge and many misconceptions about evolution (Nehm and Schonfeld, 2007). Furthermore, as with other areas of science, many of the same misconceptions persist in all of these populations. “They don’t go away,” said Nehm. “Whatever instruction is happening at early levels, it’s not ameliorating the problems that we have.”

In education, the only way to make robust causal claims is through a randomized controlled trial (RCT), but no such trials have been

conducted for evolution education. “If you want to make causal claims, there is no causal literature to refer to.”

Fortunately, other research tools can be used with educational interventions to draw conclusions that can guide policy. A group receiving an intervention can be compared with a group not receiving the intervention. Interventions can be done without a comparison group—for example, by looking at a group before and after an intervention. Survey research can yield associations, although survey research cannot determine whether these associations are causal. Finally, case studies, interviews, and other forms of qualitative research can reveal new variables and possible associations.

Nehm’s 2006 review of the literature found no intervention studies with randomized control groups, 6 intervention studies with comparison groups, and 24 other studies that employed various intervention techniques. Also, some of the interventions were quite brief—just one to three weeks—a period during which substantial changes are unlikely to occur, given the difficulties of teaching evolution. One conclusion is obvious, Nehm said: “We need to do some randomized controlled trials to see what works causally in terms of evolution education.”

Nehm also pointed out that documenting learning outcomes is critically important in education research. According to the report *Knowing What Students Know: The Science and Design of Educational Assessment* (National Research Council, 2001), “assessments need to examine how well students engage in communicative practices appropriate to a domain of knowledge and skill, what they understand about those practices, and how well they use the tools appropriate to that domain.” Yet most tests today, including those that dominate biology curricula, assess isolated knowledge fragments using multiple choice tests. Students may be learning about evolution, “but if we can’t measure that

progress, we can't show that what we're doing has any positive effect. So we need assessments that can measure the way people actually think.”

The problems caused by inadequate metrics are particularly obvious in the literature on teacher knowledge of evolution, Nehm said. Only five intervention studies exist, and three of them assess teacher's knowledge of evolution using a multiple choice or Likert scale test (Baldwin et al., 2012). This lack of careful metrics “is really concerning,” said Nehm. Evolution assessments must be developed that meet quality control standards established by the educational measurement community, or robust claims, causal or otherwise, cannot be made.

In summary, research has established key variables that should be investigated and many possible beneficial interventions. But the research literature on evolution education lacks robust, causal, generalizable claims relating to particular pedagogical strategies and interventions. It also lacks measurement instruments that meet basic quality control standards and capture authentic disciplinary practices. Finally, the research lacks consistent application of measurement instruments across different populations. “This is a call to action,” said Nehm. “We need to gather and do a national randomized controlled trial of some of the most likely and agreed upon variables and test their causal impact on students' learning of evolution.”

Go to:

## NOVICE TO EXPERT REASONING

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In his own research, Nehm and his colleagues have been studying how different groups, from novice to expert, think about problems.<sup>1</sup> Using performance-based measures in which research participants are asked to solve evolutionary problems, they have looked at 400 people—including non-majors who have completed an introductory biology course, students

who have completed a course in evolution, students who have completed an evolution course as well as more advanced coursework, and a group of biology Ph.D. students, assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors (Nehm and Ha, in preparation).

The study measured people's ability to explain evolutionary change across a variety of contexts, not through multiple choice questions. In general, this technique revealed many more gaps in evolutionary understanding than would simpler assessments. For example, students have a harder time explaining evolutionary change (in writing or orally) than recognizing accurate scientific elements of an explanation when presented in a multiple choice test (Nehm and Schonfeld, 2008). Or, as Nehm put it, knowing the parts and tools needed to assemble furniture does not mean that you can build it. Students may have a lot of knowledge about evolution but not be able to use that knowledge to create a functional explanation. "This is a tough competency," explained Nehm. "If you asked any of your students, and I encourage you to do this, 'Can you explain how evolutionary change occurs?' you will be startled at their inability to articulate their understanding because they are never asked to do that."

In addition, people have a tendency to mix naïve and scientific information together in their explanations. Naïve ideas include, for example, the notions that the needs of an organism drive evolutionary change or that putting pressure on animals will cause them to evolve. The mixing of naïve and scientific ideas is difficult to measure with multiple choice tests, but open response explanations can reveal the relative contributions of each category of information.



Lesson plan – 11 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** Language use and the learner

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
<b>Teacher</b>	A'zamjon SOBITOV
<b>Group</b>	IV-course
<b>Method</b>	Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)
<b>Durations / Meetings</b>	80 Minutes / 2 Meetings
<b>Objectives</b>	Students will be able to; <ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Develop student's speaking skills</li><li>2. Encourage asking and giving directions in English</li><li>3. Develop student's speaking micro skills</li><li>4. Raise students' communicative skills</li><li>5. Achieve skills integration</li><li>6. Enhance students' collaboration</li></ol>
<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

Any one of these parts (learning, learning about and learning through) does not exist in isolation, and the connections between learning, learning

about and learning through are endless. At the centre of the model lies the importance of learning to be grounded in meaningful, real-world contexts so that students understand, use and apply language in different ways with different audiences. In a PYP school, the six transdisciplinary themes (represented at the heart of the visual) can be unpacked to consider such opportunities for learning.

For me, the model advocates for language learners to be inspired and confident communicators, proficient in a range of skills and strategies and adept in explaining and applying a multitude of concepts. Students learn and apply language in relevant contexts, appreciate the inextricable links between language and culture, and ultimately use language flexibly with various people and for a range of purposes. Let's investigate learning, learning about and learning through language.

### Learning language

Learning language is about having extended periods of time to engage as speakers, listeners, readers, writers, viewers and presenters. Learners have first-hand opportunities to converse with their peers, revel in the magic of a read-aloud, develop characters in a dramatic performance, be in awe and wonder in response to a set of beautiful photographs, read about their favourite animals, write exciting narratives and more. The basic premise is that we learn to speak by speaking, learn to read by reading etc. The behaviours and mindset of readers, writers, viewers, presenters, speakers and listeners are paramount to learning language. We seek to model, engage in and reflect on a genuine passion and curiosity for language, to play and have fun with words, to be inspired by the way others use language and to be immersed in a wealth of literature, media and dialogue. Time and space are needed so that these opportunities aren't squeezed out of a child's day to "cover" a set of learning outcomes

from a curriculum. Imagine the outcomes if learning language (as described here) was a key feature of all classrooms!

In my Grade 2 classroom this year, students are developing new relationships by connecting with their peers. Part of the morning routine includes individual conversations with me. I am often told about significant events in the children's lives and asked how I am feeling, what I did at the weekend and, more recently, why I have less hair than other people! In "Personal Reading" time, students choose what to read, where to read and who to read with. There is often a buzz of excitement as a new edition of the children's newspaper First News arrives or a page is turned in the Guinness World Book of Records to discover a new statistic. In "Personal Writing" time, students choose what to write about. In recent weeks, students have written a range of adventure stories, recounts of exciting playdates and fact files about things that have captured their interest. I might provoke students' curiosity by showcasing a new text or inviting students to consider writing a different genre to keep language learning alive and vibrant. Home languages are encouraged in the classroom. As well as students of the same home language communicating, more recently, students have taken a more active interest in each other's languages and have started to teach one another vocabulary and phrases. Read alouds are used most days to model fluency, expression and think-alouds, but also to invite students to escape to a different world – a world created, with intention and mastery, by inspiring authors. Strategically stopping at pivotal moments to create suspense and wonder is a regular feature of the classroom!

Learning about language

Learning about language makes explicit the systems and conventions within a language to learn about. These may be nuggets of knowledge,

skills or strategies, from which big ideas and conceptual understandings are drawn and investigated over a period of time. These understandings engage students' thinking about viewing, presenting, speaking, listening, reading and writing. The "stuff" students learn about language is intentional. Meaning might be co-constructed through shared dialogue, or a genre, for example, might be deconstructed to identify its organization and language features. Learning about language occurs at the word, sentence and text level. Regardless of the level, it is important that students make personal connections between this language and their own lives through the use of literature, conversation, environmental print and building on students' interests.

At the word level, students might find patterns with verb endings and test their theories, explore the different letters that can make a particular sound or experiment with the prefixes and suffixes that can be added to change base words. At the sentence level, students might read and write metaphors, explore saying the same sentence with different voices or investigate how and why capital letters are used. At the text level, students might critique a cartoon, go through the writing process to craft a persuasive letter, participate in a debate or go on a concept walk in the local area to find examples of procedural texts.

Although much of this can be approached conceptually in a quest to deepen students' understanding about how language works, it is also important to remember that this alone is not inquiry. Inquiry thrives in a culture of wonder, questions, theories and the unknown. To engage students as inquirers, following on from initial engagements and provocations, specific language, questions, prompts and routines are used. Examples include wonder walls, the use of "What if...?", questions such as "What confuses you?" and "What are you interested in exploring

more?” and sentence starters such as “My theory is...” and “I am wondering...”

In my Grade 2 classroom, we have been learning about character. Students have been learning about physical descriptions, personality, actions and dialogue and how these can be used to describe themselves, others and characters in stories. There has been a focus on the reading strategies of making connections and predictions that the students have used to respond to characters and events in read-aloud time and in Book Club, when students work in interest groups dialogue about literature they have read at home. Connecting to characters has also been the focus of Readers’ Workshop allowing us to explore word choice beyond ‘nice’ and ‘good’ and how punctuation and capitalization are used to show dialogue. Chapter books such as Roald Dahl’s “The Twits” have provided a context to model these conventions and a springboard to inspire students to brainstorm and draft their own character descriptions. Inquiry as a mindset permeates the curriculum, so students are comfortable sharing their reactions, what surprised them, what they are wondering, and what their theories are about what will happen next and why. To provoke even more interest, character descriptions and read alouds are chosen with intent to capture students’ imaginations and thinking to broaden their repertoire of language conventions to achieve a purpose.

Lesson plan – 12 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** Language use and the learner

### Lesson plan (with teaching material)

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<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
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reading and writing. The “stuff” students learn about language is intentional. Meaning might be co-constructed through shared dialogue, or a genre, for example, might be deconstructed to identify its organization and language features. Learning about language occurs at the word, sentence and text level. Regardless of the level, it is important that students make personal connections between this language and their own lives through the use of literature, conversation, environmental print and building on students’ interests.

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Although much of this can be approached conceptually in a quest to deepen students’ understanding about how language works, it is also important to remember that this alone is not inquiry. Inquiry thrives in a culture of wonder, questions, theories and the unknown. To engage students as inquirers, following on from initial engagements and provocations, specific language, questions, prompts and routines are used. Examples include wonder walls, the use of “What if...?”, questions such as “What confuses you?” and “What are you interested in exploring more?” and sentence starters such as “My theory is...” and “I am wondering...”

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### Learning through language

Learning through language is when language is used as a tool to learn about something beyond the realms of language. Its purpose is learning in a different domain, yet recognizing the inherent role language plays to make this learning optimal. Students are readers, writers, viewers, presenters, speakers and listeners as they inquire into big ideas embedded in culture, history, geography, arts, politics, current affairs, the local area, science and beyond! Their inquiries might involve navigating features of non-fiction to learn about ecosystems, writing a set of questions to



interview other students for the school's news channel, viewing a video on Fair Trade, presenting a slideshow of their learning journey leading up to an exhibition, explaining (orally) strategies used in a maths investigation and listening to a guest athlete talk about fitness.

In my Grade 2 classroom, students are excitedly engaged in experimenting with different materials in the classroom and at the nearby nature trail. They are using language to verbalise their inquiries: "What is this?", "How does this work?", "I think that..." and "What if...?" As we unpack the concept of experimentation, our thinking becomes deeper and our language more specific and articulate. One student explained experimenting as "letting your mind wander"! In the morning routine, there is always a message for students to read and reflect on. The message today included: "Who is it that experiments?" This open-ended question led students to discuss ideas and conclude that nearly all people experiment – including teachers "who try ideas out to see what happens". In the previous unit about relationships, some students developed performances to convey the importance of trust in relationships. In the process, they used language to make decisions as a group, and to act in role. Other students were fascinated by relationships within animal families and accessed various media to learn more, differentiating between relevant and irrelevant information. They then chose the mode of presentation to share what they had learned to both Grade 2 classes. Performances ranged from Green Screen videos, models and oral presentations.

Lesson plan – 13 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** Same planet, different worlds

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
<b>Teacher</b>	A'zamjon SOBITOV
<b>Group</b>	IV-course
<b>Method</b>	Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)
<b>Durations / Meetings</b>	80 Minutes / 2 Meetings
<b>Objectives</b>	Students will be able to; <ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Develop student's speaking skills</li><li>2. Encourage asking and giving directions in English</li><li>3. Develop student's speaking micro skills</li><li>4. Raise students' communicative skills</li><li>5. Achieve skills integration</li><li>6. Enhance students' collaboration</li></ol>
<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

Becoming bilingual is a way of life. Your whole person is affected as you struggle to reach beyond the confines of your first language and into a new language, a new culture, a new way of thinking, feeling, and acting.

Second language learning is not a set of easy steps that can be programmed in a quick do-it-yourself kit.

The teaching process is the facilitation of learning, in which you can "teach" a foreign language successfully if, among other things, you know something about why learners learn or fail to learn a second language. Where does a teacher begin the quest for an understanding of the principles of foreign language learning and teaching? By asking some questions.

- Who? Who does the learning and teaching?
- What? No simpler question is one that probes the nature of the subject matter itself. What is communication? What is language?
- How? How does learning take place? How can a person ensure success in language learning?
- When? When does second language learning take place?
- Where? Are the learners attempting to acquire the second language within the cultural and linguistic milieu of the second language - that is, in a "second" language situation in the technical sense of the term?
- Why? Finally, the most encompassing of all questions: Why are learners attempting to acquire the second language?

These questions have been asked, in very global terms, to give you an inkling of the diversity of issues involved in the quest for understanding the principles of language learning and teaching. And while you cannot hope to find final answers to all the questions, you can begin to achieve some tentative answers as you move through the chapters of this book and additional information which we added to these pages. Thomas Kuhn(1970) referred to "normal science" as a process of puzzle solving in which part of the task of the scientist, in this case the teacher, is to discover the pieces, and then to fit the pieces together. Many of the pieces

of the language learning puzzle are not yet discovered, and the careful defining of the questions will lead to finding those pieces.

## Language

To presume to define language adequately would be folly. A definition is really a condensed version of a theory, and a theory is simply - or not so simply - an extended definition. Consider the following definitions of language found in dictionaries and introductory textbooks:

- Language is a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols which permit all people in a given culture, or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or interact (Finocchiaro 1964:8)
- Language is a system of communication by sound, operating through the organs of speech and hearing, among members of a given community, and using vocal symbols possessing arbitrary conventional meanings (Pei 1966:141)
- Language is any set or symbols of linguistic symbols as used in a more or less uniform fashion by a number of people who are thus enabled to communicate intelligibly with one another (Random House Dictionary of the English Language 1966:806).
- Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication (Wardhaugh 1972:3).
- [Language is] any means, vocal or other, of expressing or communicating feeling or thought ... a system of conventionalized signs, especially words or gestures having fixed meanings. (Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language 1934:1390).

- [Language is] a systematic means of communicating ideas or feelings by the use of conventionalized signs, sounds, gestures, or marks having understood meanings (Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language 1961:1270)

Still other common definitions found in introductory textbooks on linguistics include the concepts of :

1. the generativity or creativity of language
2. the presumed primacy of speech over writing
3. the universality of language among human beings

Many of the significant characteristics of language are capsulized in these definitions. Some of the controversies about the nature of language are also illustrated through the limitations that are implied in certain definitions.

A consolidation of the definitions of language yields the following composite definition:

1. Language is systematic and generative.
2. Language is a set of arbitrary symbols.
3. Those symbols are primarily vocal, but may also be visual.
4. The symbols have conventionalized meanings to which they refer.
5. Language is used for communication.
6. Language operates in a speech community or culture.
7. Language is essentially human, although possibly not limited to humans.
8. Language is acquired by all people in much the same way - language and language learning both have universal characteristics.

Enormous fields and subfields, year-long university courses, are suggested in each of the eight categories. Consider some of these possible areas:

1. Explicit and formal accounts of the system of language on several possible levels (most commonly syntactic, semantic, and phonological).
2. The symbolic nature of language; the relationship between language and reality; the philosophy of language; the history of language.
3. Phonetics; phonology; writing systems; kinesics; proxemics; and other "paralinguistic" features of language.
4. Semantic; language and cognition; psycholinguistics.
5. Communication systems; speaker-hearer interaction; sentence processing.
6. Dialectology; sociolinguistics; language and culture; bilingualism and second language acquisition.
7. Human language and nonhuman communication; the physiology of language.
8. Language universals; first language acquisition.

Can foreign language teachers effectively teach a language if they do not know, even generally, something about the relationship between language and cognition, writing systems, nonverbal communication, sociolinguistics, and first language acquisition, just to name a few items at random?

The TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) organization, in its Guidelines for the Certification and Preparation of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages in the United States (1975), cited the necessity for the teacher to "understand the nature

of language, the fact of language varieties - social, regional, and functional, the structure and development of the English language system".

### Learning and Teaching

What is learning and what is teaching and how do they interact?

A search in contemporary dictionaries reveals that learning is "acquiring or getting of knowledge of a subject or a skill by study, experience, or instruction." A more specialized definition might read as follows: "Learning, is relatively permanent change in behavioral tendency and is the result of reinforced practice"(Kimble and Garnezy 1963:133). Teaching may be defined as "showing or helping someone to learn how to do something, giving instructions, guiding in the study of something, providing with knowledge, causing to know or understand."

Breaking down the components of the definition of learning, we can extract, as we did with language, domains of research and inquiry:

1. Learning is acquiring or "getting."
2. Learning is retention of information or skill.
3. Retention implies storage systems, memory, cognitive organization.
4. Learning involves active, conscious focus on and acting upon events outside or inside the organism.
5. Learning is relatively permanent but subject to forgetting.
6. Learning involves some form of practice, perhaps reinforced practice.
7. Learning is a change in behavior.

Teaching cannot be defined apart from learning. Nathan Gage (1964:269) noted that "to satisfy the practical demands of education, theories of learning must be 'stood on their head' so as to yield theories of teaching." Teaching is guiding and facilitating learning, enabling the learner to learn, setting the conditions for learning. If, like B.F. Skinner, you look at learning as a process of operant conditioning through a carefully paced program of reinforcement, you will teach accordingly. If you view second language learning basically as a deductive rather than an inductive process, you will probably to choose present copious rules and paradigms to your students rather than let them "discover" those rules inductively. Jerome Bruner (1966b:40-41) noted that a theory of instruction should specify the following features:

1. The experiences which most effectively implant in the individual a predisposition toward learning,
2. The ways in which a body of knowledge should be structured so that it can be most readily grasped by learner
3. The most effective sequences in which to present the materials to be learned
4. The nature and pacing rewards and punishments in the process of learning and teaching.

Trends in Linguistics and Psychology



Lesson plan – 14 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** The learner's competences

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
<b>Objective (Aim)</b>	To foster students' speaking skills and in the primary EFL classroom by creating a 'real-life' communicative setting
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<b>Durations / Meetings</b>	80 Minutes / 2 Meetings
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<b>Materials</b>	Laptop, projector, some actions from movies

The search for better teaching strategies will never end. As a school leader, you probably spend too much of your time thinking about how to

improve the learning experience of the students that pass through your school throughout the years.

After all, what they learn (and how they learn it) will become a part of these students as they grow, hopefully helping them become successful adults.

This is the main goal of competency based education: giving each student equal opportunity to master necessary skills and become successful adults.

If you're looking for the answers, keep reading. By the end of this article, you'll be ready to start using a competency based education system in your school.

What is competency based education?

In basic terms, competency based education means that, instead of focusing on grades and yearly curriculum schedules, the main focus is placed on how competent each student is in the subject.

This means that students can only move forward when they can demonstrate mastery.

Competency based education and personalized learning really go hand-in-hand. By personalizing the learning experience for each individual student, teachers ensure that each student has full mastery before they can move forward.

This way, the goal of equity is achieved: students move forward at their own pace, but everyone in the class achieves mastery.

Competency based education gives a clear focus on preparing students for the next stage of their life, whether it be college or a career.

What's the difference between competency based education and traditional education?

Let's discuss three main differences:

### Structure

In traditional education, the year is set out in advance for every student. Thus, at the end of each unit, every student must move forward, whether or not they fully understand the material or have mastered the necessary skills. All students in a classroom must be the same age.

On the other hand, competency based education is flexible to the students and where they are in the learning process. That means students are given the support they need individually to move forward and master the subject and inherent skills. Instead of moving forward based on age, students move forward based on where they are and what they are capable of.

### Learning outcomes

Traditionally, learning outcomes are focused on memorization and comprehension with the goal of passing tests.

In competency based learning, the focus is placed on deep understanding that is demonstrated through application. This means that learning outcomes are proven by action, and focus on building the skills students need to become better learners into adulthood.

## Grading

Traditional grades are made up of test scores, assignments, and behavior.

Competency based education scores are based on the performance levels of each student, without bias.

Lesson plan – 15 (80 min)

(Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari (CEFR))

**THEME:** The learner's competences

**Lesson plan (with teaching material)**

<b>Target Audience</b>	University Students
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Chet tillarini egallashni umumyevropa kompetensiyalari</b>
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In basic terms, competency based education means that, instead of focusing on grades and yearly curriculum schedules, the main focus is placed on how competent each student is in the subject.

This means that students can only move forward when they can demonstrate mastery.

Competency based education and personalized learning really go hand-in-hand. By personalizing the learning experience for each individual student, teachers ensure that each student has full mastery before they can move forward.

This way, the goal of equity is achieved: students move forward at their own pace, but everyone in the class achieves mastery.

Competency based education gives a clear focus on preparing students for the next stage of their life, whether it be college or a career.

What's the difference between competency based education and traditional education?

Let's discuss three main differences:

Structure

In traditional education, the year is set out in advance for every student. Thus, at the end of each unit, every student must move forward, whether

or not they fully understand the material or have mastered the necessary skills. All students in a classroom must be the same age.

On the other hand, competency based education is flexible to the students and where they are in the learning process. That means students are given the support they need individually to move forward and master the subject and inherent skills. Instead of moving forward based on age, students move forward based on where they are and what they are capable of.

### Learning outcomes

Traditionally, learning outcomes are focused on memorization and comprehension with the goal of passing tests.

In competency based learning, the focus is placed on deep understanding that is demonstrated through application. This means that learning outcomes are proven by action, and focus on building the skills students need to become better learners into adulthood.

### Grading

Traditional grades are made up of test scores, assignments, and behavior.

Competency based education scores are based on the performance levels of each student, without bias.

### Competency based education pros and cons

There are both benefits and disadvantages to using a competency based education system in your school.

#### Pros

- Flexibility for all types of students, no matter their knowledge backgrounds or literacy levels
- Bias is removed, and equity is achieved
- Students are better prepared with the skills necessary to succeed as adults
- Students learn how to be better learners, and take responsibility for their education

#### Cons

- Key competencies must be determined and defined for each class, which is difficult
- Assessments must be more meaningful and creative
- Teachers must be constantly aware of student progress, and thus be ready to jump in and help a student who doesn't understand or isn't on track to graduate at 18

All this being said, the disadvantages mentioned above can be overcome. By building a well-informed, research-based system, competency based education can succeed.

This will present challenges for school leadership. But the end result will be students who are better prepared for life as adults.



## ILOVALAR:

### GLOSSARY

1004. Underestimate - (anderestimeyt)) - chamalamoq, yetarli baho bermaslik:

(Under istima) Stol tagida bir ayol istima olib yotibdi, lekin hech kim unga yetarli baho bermayapti;

1005. Victorious (viktories) - e'olib bo'lgan. g'olibona: (Viktoriya) erolicha viktoriya hamisha g' olib bo'lgan;

1006. Numerous (nytmeres) - ko'plab, juda ko'p: (Nomer) Juda ko'p nomerlar bor, lekin ularning negadur ismi yo'q;

1007. Flexible (lleksibl) - egiluvchan, moslashuvchan: (Flash, iblis) Flash ichganingizdar so'ng egiluvcltan-bukuluvchm bo' lib qolasiz, shunda iblism kelib, atrofingizda raqsga tushib, qo'shiq aytishadi;

1008. Evidence - (evidens) - dalil: (Eva, dance) Eva firmasini turli xil qo'pol dalillar bilan qo'lga tushurishdi, ular ishdm tashqari vaqtda raqsga tushishayotgan ekan:

1009. Solitary - (soleteri) - yolg'iz, yakka: (Salyut) Bltta o'zngiz yangi yilda Saiyur orib o'riribsiz. Yoig'iz holatda;

1010. Vision - (vijn) - ko'rish qobiliyati, ko'rinish, o'y-xayol: (Vino) Vino ichgach ko' rish qobiliyatini yo' qotyapsiz;

1011. Frequent - (l'rekuent) - tez-tez takrorlanib turadigan: (Frenk) Frenk tez- tez takrorlanib turadigan gaplarni ishlatishni yomon ko'rmaydi;

1012. Glimpse - (glimps) - odamning sharpasi, ko'zi tushmoq, ko'rib qolmoq: (Grim) grim qilingan odamning shaqnasiga ko'zing;rz, tushih opldi;

1013. Recent - (risent) - yaqinda sodir bo'lgan, yaqinda, yaqindan beri: Telegramda ko'rgansiz bu so'zni;

1014. Decade - (riekeyri) - o'n yillik (Dekabr) Dekabr oyi endi har i0 yiida bir mrtakeladi;

1015. Hesitate - (hesiteyt) - ikkilanmoq: (Hasis) Xasis inson qaror qilishga nuqul ikkilanadi;

1016. Absurd - (ebsod)) - bema'ni(lik): (Olib sot) Olib sotis[ olib sotmlik qilish chinakan bema'ni ish ekanini tushunishgach, bucha biznes bilan shug ullana boshladi;

1017. Conflict - (kenllikt) - nizo: Ruscha konflikt so'ziga o'xshaydr;

1018. Minority - (maynoriti) - kamchilik (Minor metro) Minor metrosa kamchilik odamlar tushishadi;

1019. Fiction - (tikshn) - uydirma, lantastik asar: (Fish, action) Ekshn iilmlada qandaydir uydirma fantastik asarlarni qo'yib berishmoqd4 tushunarsiz oltin baliqlar va h.k. asarlar ancha urfclan qolgan;

1020. Ignite (ignayt) - alangalatmoq: (Igna) Tasawur qiling igna bilan olov yoqyapsz;

1021. Abolish - (ebolish) - bekor qilmoq: (Bolish) Butun dunyoda bolishda yotish ta'qiqlandi. Sababi yo'q;

1022. Urban (oben) - shaharga xos: (Urbanizasiya) Bilasiz; Ir':t" rcn. Frank (frenk) - samimiy: (Frenk) Frenk ismli ytgltlar bo'lishadi;

1023. Prohibit - (prohibit) - ta'qiqlamoq: (Professor) professor darsda kulishni ta'qiqlab qo'ydi;

1024. Urgent (ojeni) - shoshiiinch: (o'jar) o'ta o'jar qizni shoshiiinch erga berish kerak bo'lib qoldi.

1025. Adequate - (edikuet) - talabga javob beradigan: (Advokat) Barcha talablarga javob beradigan advokatni topish iuda qiyin;

1026. Decrease (dikris) - kamaymoq: (Krizis) Krizis vaqtida yomon odamlar kamrayib ketadi;

1027. Audible (odebi) - eshitiladigan; (Audis debit) Audio ftyflami eshitiladigan qilib baland qo'yadigan insonlarni rus qo'shnilari debil, deb chaqirishadi;

## **TEST TOPSHIRIQLARI**

1. Is there a public call box near here? I have to \_\_\_\_\_ a phone call.

A) do B) make C) get D) hear

2. First she said "Yes", then she said "No", but in the end she \_\_\_\_\_ up her mind to marry him.

A) did B) made C) got D) said

3. When you're not sure what to do, the best thing is to \_\_\_\_\_ nothing,  
A) do B) make C) get D) hear
4. Ssh! You mustn't \_\_\_\_\_ a noise. The baby's asleep.  
A) do B) make C) get D) hear
5. My teacher says I must work harder, but I can't work any harder. I'm \_\_\_\_\_ my best.  
A) doing B) trying C) making D) showing
6. We asked to see the manager and we \_\_\_\_\_ a complaint about the terrible service in the restaurant.  
A) did B) made C) had D) heard
7. At first I found learning English very easy, but now I don't think I'm \_\_\_\_\_ any progress at all.  
A) doing B) making C) showing D) getting
8. Could you \_\_\_\_\_ me a favor please? Could you give me a lift to the airport?  
A) make B) do C) give D) want
9. My uncle died without \_\_\_\_\_ a will, and it was very difficult for our family to sort out his money and possessions.  
A) doing B) make C) get D) making
10. We have some lovely new neighbors; we've already \_\_\_\_\_ friends with them.  
A) did B) made C) done D) make
11. I like to keep fit, so I \_\_\_\_\_ exercises every day.  
A) do B) make C) get D) hear
12. Before you go on holiday, you should \_\_\_\_\_ sure that the doors and windows are shut and locked.  
A) do B) make C) get D) hear
13. \_\_\_\_\_ money, not war!  
A) Do B) Make C) Study D) Get

14. It is time . . . . here.  
A) *leaving* B) *leave* C) *to leave* D) *left*
15. It is high time Tom . . . .  
A) *arrived* B) *arrive* C) *arriving* D) *to arrive*
16. What time is it? It is 9. Oh, it is time . . . me . . . home.  
A) *for/went* B) *to/go to* C) *for/going* D) *for/to go*
17. My dear, isn't it time . . . . a student of university?  
A) *was* B) *to be* C) *be* D) *being*
18. It is . . . time you . . . my car.  
A) *on/washed* B) *about/washed* C) *in/washed* D) *about/to wash*
19. I . . . really hungry and it is time . . . lunch.  
A) *'s have* B) *'d/having* C) *-/to have* D) *'m/ to have*
20. It is time for Ann . . . . her father.  
A) *to call* B) *called* C) *call* D) *calling*
21. Is it time for . . . to . . . the market?  
A) *we/close* B) *us/closed* C) *our/close* D) *us/close*
22. Sarah hasn't arrived yet, but it is time . . . . the lesson.  
A) *beginned* B) *to begin* C) *began* D) *begin*
23. I believe, it is time . . . all of you . . . . university.  
A) *for/to enter* B) *about/entered* C) *for/enter* D) *-/entering*
24. If I \_\_\_ my entrance exams I \_\_\_ the happiest man in the world.  
A) shall pass / would be B) passed / am C) will pass / be D) pass / shall  
be
25. We \_\_\_ to see you next Sunday, if I \_\_\_ well.  
A) shall come / shall get B) come / get C) comes / will get D) will come /  
get

**TARQATMA MATERIALLAR**

## Reading Tests

### Reading Test 1

#### SECTION 1

You should spend about 20 minutes on Questions 1-13, which are based on Shading Passage 1 below.

#### Ants Could Teach Ants

**A** The ants are tiny and usually nest between rocks in the south coast of England. Transformed into research subjects at the University of Bristol, they raced along a tabletop foraging for food - and then, remarkably, returned to guide others. Time and again, followers trailed behind leaders, darting this way and that along the route, presumably to memorise landmarks. Once a follower got its bearings, it tapped the leader with its antennae, prompting the lesson to literally proceed to the next step. The ants were only looking for food, but the researchers said the careful way the leaders led followers, thereby turning them into leaders in their own right, marked the *Temnothorax albipennis* ant as the very first example of a non-human animal exhibiting teaching behaviour.

**B** "Tandem running is an example of teaching, to our knowledge the first in a non-human animal, that involves bidirectional feedback between teacher and pupil" remarks Nigel Franks, professor of animal behaviour and ecology, whose paper on the ant educators was published last week in the journal *Nature*.

**C** No sooner was the paper published, of course, than another educator questioned it. Marc Hauser, a psychologist and biologist and one of the scientists who came up with the definition of teaching, said it was unclear whether the ants had learned a new skill or merely acquired new information.

**D** Later, Franks took a further study and found that there were even races between leaders. With the guidance of leaders, ants could find food faster. But the help comes at

a cost for the leader, who normally would have reached the food about four times faster if not hampered by a follower. This means the hypothesis that the leaders deliberately slowed down in order to pass the skills on to the followers seems potentially valid. His ideas were advocated by the students who carried out the video project with him.

**E** Opposing views still arose, however. Hauser noted that mere communication of information is commonplace in the animal world. Consider a species, for example, that uses alarm calls to warn fellow members about the presence of a predator. Sounding the alarm can be costly, because the animal may draw the attention of the predator to itself. But it allows others to flee to safety. "Would you call this teaching?" wrote Hauser. "The caller incurs a cost. The naive animals gain a benefit and new knowledge that better enables them to learn about the predator's location than if the caller had not called. This happens throughout the animal kingdom, but we don't call it teaching, even though it is clearly a transfer of information."

**F** Tim Caro, a zoologist, presented two cases of animal communication. He found that cheetah mothers that take their cubs along on hunts gradually allow their cubs to do more of the hunting — going, for example, from killing a gazelle and allowing young cubs to eat merely tripping the gazelle and letting the cubs finish it off. At one level, such behaviour might be called teaching — except the mother was not really teaching the cubs to hunt but merely facilitating various stages of learning. In another instance, birds watching other birds using a stick to locate food such as insects and so on, are observed to do the same thing themselves while finding food later.

**G** Psychologists study animal behaviour in part to understand the evolutionary roots of human behaviour, Hauser said. The challenge in understanding whether other animals truly teach one another, he added, is that human teaching involves a "theory of mind" — teachers are aware that students don't know something. He questioned whether Franks' leader ants really knew that the follower ants were ignorant. Could they simply have been following an instinctive rule to proceed when the followers tapped them on the legs or abdomen? And did leaders that led the way to food — only to find that it had been removed by the experimenter — incur the wrath of followers? That, Hauser said, would

suggest that the follower ant actually knew the leader was more knowledgeable and not merely following an instinctive routine itself.

H The controversy went on, and for a good reason. The occurrence of teaching in ants, if proven to be true, indicates that teaching can evolve in animals with tiny brains. It is probably the value of information in social animals that determines when teaching will evolve, rather than the constraints of brain size.

I Bennett Galef Jr., a psychologist who studies animal behaviour and social learning at McMaster University in Canada, maintained that ants were unlikely to have a "theory of mind" — meaning that leaders and followers may well have been following instinctive routines that were not based on an understanding of what was happening in another ant's brain. He warned that scientists may be barking up the wrong tree when they look not only for examples of humanlike behaviour among other animals but humanlike thinking that underlies such behaviour. Animals may behave in ways similar to humans without a similar cognitive system, he said, so the behaviour is not necessarily a good guide into how humans came to think the way they do.

### Questions 1-5

Look at the following statements (Questions 1-5) and the list of people in the box below. Match each statement with the correct person, A, B, C or D.

Write the correct letter, A, B, C or D, in boxes 1-5 on your answer sheet

NB You may use any letter more than once.

1. Animals could use objects to locate food.
2. Ants show two-way, interactive teaching behaviours.
3. It is risky to say ants can teach other ants like human beings do,
4. Ant leadership makes finding food faster.



5. Communication between ants is not entirely teaching.

**List of people**

A Nigel Granks

B Marc Hauser

C Tim Caro

D Bennet Galef Jr

**Questions 6-9**

Choose FOUR letters, A-H.

Write your answers in boxes 6-9 on your answer sheet.

Which FOUR of the following behaviours of animals are mentioned in the passage?

A touch each other with antenna

B alert others when there is danger

C escape from predators

D protect the young

E hunt food for the young

F fight with each other

G use tools like twigs

H feed on a variety of foods

**Questions 10-12**