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A COMPETENCY-BASED FRAMEWORK FOR TEACHING ENGLISH TO FUTURE ESL TEACHERS

Monograph

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A10 **A Competency-Based** Framework for Teaching English to Future ESL Teachers = Компетентнісна модель викладання англійської мови майбутнім вчителям англійської мови : monograph / [O. P. Bevz, A. S. Gembaruk, A. I. Kolisnichenko [et. al.] ; MES Ukraine, Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University, Faculty of Foreign Languages – Uman : Publisher «Sochinskyi M. M.», 2025. – 260 p.

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The monograph contains a theoretical generalization and provides methodological recommendations for developing the content and pedagogical technologies for teaching English in institutions of higher education, with an emphasis on the integrated development of the linguistic, communicative, and digital competencies of future teachers (lecturers). The research results presented here are based on modern pedagogical theory, the methodology of foreign language teaching, and the principles of the competency-based approach to education.

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PREFACE

The contemporary stage of educational development is characterised by the intensification of globalisation processes, the expansion of international cooperation, and the digital transformation of all spheres of human activity. These factors have led to a re-evaluation of the aims, content, and technologies of professional teacher education. In this context, the preparation of future ESL teachers acquires particular importance, as it directly concerns the formation of linguistic, communicative, and intercultural competences essential for effective participation in the global educational and professional environment.

The adoption of a competency-based approach in Ukrainian higher education, aligned with European standards and recommendations, necessitates the development of new conceptual and methodological frameworks for the professional training of future ESL teachers. This monograph, *A Competency-Based Framework for Teaching English to Future ESL Teachers*, addresses these needs by presenting a scientifically substantiated system of methodological and didactic principles for implementing the competency-based paradigm in English language teaching. The work represents the outcome of research conducted by the academic staff of English and Methodology Department, Faculty of Foreign Languages, Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University, within the framework of the research project *"Designing the Content of Foreign Language Teaching at the Faculty of Languages"* (state registration number: 0111U007527).

The purpose of the monograph is to provide theoretical generalisations and methodological recommendations concerning the design of content and pedagogical technologies for teaching English in higher education institutions, with an emphasis on the integrated development of linguistic, communicative, and digital competences of pre-service teachers. The research findings presented herein are grounded in contemporary pedagogical theory, foreign language teaching methodology, and the principles of competence-based education.

The scientific novelty of the monograph lies in the conceptualisation of an integrated model of English language teacher education that combines the development of linguistic skills, professional methodological competence, and digital literacy. The proposed framework ensures continuity between theoretical knowledge and practical application, thereby contributing to the professional readiness of future ESL teachers to organise effective, learner-centred, and technologically enhanced English language instruction.

The monograph consists of four interrelated chapters, the structure of which reflects the internal logic of the progressive formation of the components of foreign language communicative competence.

Chapter 1, *"Basic Aspects of Teaching Receptive Skills"* (developed by Alla Gembaruk), provides a comprehensive analysis of the theoretical and methodological foundations of teaching listening and reading as receptive types of speech activity. The chapter examines the psychological, linguistic, and pedagogical characteristics of comprehension processes and emphasizes the interplay between top-down and bottom-up processing in developing effective listening and reading skills. Considerable attention is devoted to the classification of listening and reading types, the structure of a receptive skills lesson, and corresponding classroom activities that promote comprehension of oral and written texts. The chapter also addresses common challenges encountered in teaching receptive skills and proposes practical solutions for overcoming them. A separate section focuses on the methodological preparation of pre-service teachers for teaching these skills, highlighting task design, lesson staging, and assessment techniques.

Chapter 2, *"Fundamentals of Developing Productive Skills in the EFL Methodology Course"* (developed by Olena Bevz), examines the conceptual and methodological foundations of developing speaking and writing skills. It analyses the communicative nature of productive skills, their interrelationship with receptive ones, and their role in fostering communicative competence. The chapter presents models of speaking and writing lessons, typologies of communicative and semi-communicative tasks, and a variety of techniques aimed at enhancing accuracy,

fluency, and coherence. Special emphasis is placed on the methodological competences required of pre-service teachers, including classroom management, feedback provision, and learner motivation.

Chapter 3, *"Conceptual Foundations for Developing Future Foreign Language Teachers' Digital Competence in the Context of Updating the Professional Training Content"* (developed by Anhelina Kolisnichenko), explores the impact of digitalisation on modern education and the evolving role of the ESL teacher in the digital era. The chapter provides a theoretical overview of the pedagogical dimensions of digital technologies and defines digital competence as an integral component of professional readiness. It analyses contemporary models of digital competence and their relevance to ESL teacher education. Particular attention is given to the integration of digital technologies into English teaching methodology courses, the design of blended and online learning environments, and the incorporation of media literacy into professional training. The chapter also proposes ways to update the content of foreign language teacher education curricula through the inclusion of innovative subjects such as *Digital Technologies in Foreign Language Teaching* and *English Media Literacy*, aligning national educational standards with global trends.

Chapter 4, *"Didactic Models of Content for the Development of Foreign Language Communicative Competence of Higher Education Students in Teaching and Methodological Manuals of the Department"* (developed by Iryna Postolenko), presents the applied dimension of the research. It analyses the teaching aids and methodological materials developed by the academic staff of English and Methodology Department. The chapter offers a system of didactic models aimed at developing phonetic, lexical, grammatical, and productive skills in accordance with the principles of the competency-based approach. Each subsection includes examples of exercises and techniques that have been tested in the educational process at the Faculty of Foreign Languages. The materials illustrate the integration of linguistic and methodological preparation, ensuring coherence between theoretical instruction and classroom practice. The chapter also substantiates the role of teaching manuals

as effective instruments for developing and assessing students' communicative and methodological competences.

The materials and conclusions presented in this monograph are of both theoretical and practical significance. They contribute to the development of the scientific and methodological foundations of ESL teacher education and may serve as a basis for designing curricula, syllabi, and teaching materials in the field of foreign language teaching. The monograph is intended for researchers, university lecturers, postgraduate students, and anyone interested in improving the quality of English language teacher education within a competency-based framework.

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CHAPTER 1. BASIC ASPECTS OF TEACHING RECEPTIVE SKILLS

Section 1.1. Introduction

In the contemporary landscape of language education, the development of communicative competence is a central objective, and receptive skills – listening and reading – play a foundational role in this process. Receptive skills in language learning refer to the ability to understand and interpret language input, typically through reading and listening. Harmer (2001, 199) defines receptive skills as "the ways in which people extract meaning from the discourse they see or hear". Therefore, receptive skills enable learners to access, interpret, and process information in the target language, thereby forming the basis for successful interaction and further language acquisition. According to Abdushukurova (2024), these skills are fundamental components of language acquisition, as they serve as the foundation for effective communication and language production. That is why mastering receptive skills is crucial in the language learning process. The importance of receptive skills is highlighted by many researchers. Grabe (2009) considers reading and listening comprehension to be essential for accessing a wide range of information and knowledge across various domains, including academic, professional, and social contexts. In Nation's opinion (2001), receptive skills play a significant role in vocabulary acquisition and language development. Through exposure to written and spoken language, learners encounter new words, expressions, and grammatical structures, which they internalize through context and repetition. Field (2008) mentions that reading and listening provide models of fluent language use, helping learners improve their pronunciation, intonation, and overall language fluency. Moreover, studies indicate that mastery of receptive skills is strongly associated with general language competence. Research by Urquhart & Weir (1998) demonstrates a significant connection between learners' reading and listening comprehension and their performance in speaking and writing. Therefore, focusing

on the improvement of receptive skills can substantially strengthen learners' communicative abilities in both spoken and written modes. So, without strong receptive abilities, learners are unlikely to become confident and autonomous users of a foreign language. This is especially true in academic and professional contexts, where effective comprehension of oral and written texts is essential for studying, teaching, conducting research, or engaging in international collaboration. Hence, receptive skills serve both as learning goals and as vehicles for further linguistic and academic development. Through listening and reading, students are exposed to new vocabulary, grammatical patterns, discourse structures, and cultural information – all crucial for becoming proficient users and teachers of English.

The importance of receptive skills has been further underscored by the increasing emphasis on **student-centered, competence-based education** as part of educational reforms, including those introduced under the **New Ukrainian School (NUS)** and broader European trends aligned with the **Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)**. Therefore, at the language faculty level, where future teachers are trained, there is a growing need to ensure that the content of instruction is carefully designed to develop learners' ability to interpret language input critically, efficiently, and flexibly.

Despite their significance, receptive skills have historically received uneven attention in the language classroom. Listening, in particular, has often been marginalized, treated as a passive skill or simply as a means to test comprehension rather than a target of explicit instruction. Reading, while more frequently taught, is sometimes reduced to literal understanding of texts, with limited focus on developing strategic and inferential reading skills. Such imbalances can hinder learners' full linguistic and academic development.

In order to address these challenges, it is essential to reconsider how the **content for teaching receptive skills is designed and implemented.** This includes the selection of authentic and level-appropriate texts, the integration of meaningful tasks that promote active engagement with input, and the adoption of a principled methodological approach that fosters both accuracy and fluency. Moreover, the

increasing availability of digital resources and multimedia tools opens up new possibilities for enhancing the teaching of receptive skills, allowing for greater flexibility, personalization, and learner autonomy.

Though, both reading and listening are fundamental ways the information is processed and understood, they differ significantly in their cognitive processes and how information is presented and retained. The differences between listening and reading are presented in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1

The differences between listening and reading

Aspect	**Listening**	**Reading**
Sensory Input	Listening relies on auditory input (hearing sounds).	Reading relies on visual input (seeing words).
Pacing and Control	Listening is often linear and dictated by the speaker.	Reading allows for control over pace, pausing, and rereading.
Memory and Retention	Listeners may rely more on their short-term memory and the narrator's tone for emotional understanding.	Readers can revisit text, highlight, and make notes, potentially aiding in better memory retention and recall.
Engagement and Focus	Listening can sometimes be done while multitasking (though this may impact comprehension).	Reading often requires focused attention.
Vocabulary and Complexity	Spoken language is less complex in vocabulary.	Written language can often be more complex and contain a wider vocabulary than spoken language.

Table 1.1 (Continued)

Multitasking	Listening can be done while engaged in other tasks.	Reading generally requires more focused attention.
Emotional Connection	Listening, particularly to a skilled narrator, can evoke stronger emotional responses and empathy.	Reading, particularly to a skilled narrator, cannot evoke stronger emotional responses and empathy.
Retention	Listeners may find it more challenging to revisit specific points.	Readers may find it easier to remember details through visual cues and rereading.
Reading vs. Listening Speed	Average listening speed is around 150 words per minute.	Reading is generally faster than listening, with average reading speeds being around 300 words per minute.

Wilson, J. (2008), in his book *How to teach listening,* identifies the following differences between listening and reading. Firstly, reading takes place over space - pages, signs, the backs of envelopes - whereas listening takes place over time. Most oral data is not recorded and has no permanent record. It is based on spontaneous performance, an invisible ink that usually disappears from the memory within seconds. Because listening takes place over time, not space, the gaps between words that exist in writing do not exist in speech, so the listener imagines them into being. This segmentation of words from the flow of speech (recognising word boundaries) is often problematic for listeners and occasionally amusing.

Another key difference between listening and reading is that listening involves getting to grips with features of pronunciation such as elision, assimilation and intrusion.

A further difference between listening and reading is that listening is often interactive: two or more people in face-to-face contact. This means that non-verbal communication – for example, body language – plays a role, and of course listeners are often able to ask questions, signal lack of understanding, interrupt, etc, which readers cannot do.

When reading, we have to rely far more on our inner voice, words that we form in the mind but do not say aloud, whereas the spoken word always contains an element of performance. Pitch, intonation, tone, volume and patterns of stress can all make words come alive.

These differences are to be taken into account when teaching these skills.

This chapter aims to explore the **principles and practices of designing instructional content for receptive skills** within the context of language faculties. Drawing on both theoretical frameworks and practical considerations, it provides a structured overview of how listening and reading can be effectively taught to pre-service teachers.

The chapter is organized into two key sections. Section 1.2 presents ***theoretical and methodological foundations of teaching listening*****. Section 1.3 focuses on *theoretical and methodological foundations of teaching reading*.**

Section 1.2 Theoretical and Methodological Foundations of Teaching Listening

1.2.1. The Characteristics of Effective Listening

Listening is one of the most important communication skills. Many researchers (Carnevale et al., 2020; Elmore, 2018; Richardson et al., 2021; Vrolijk et al., 2021) consider listening as one of the core capacities and life skills, central to one's success (and survival) in one's personal, academic, and professional life. Listening skills are the "capacity to tune in to what surrounds, connecting to words, sounds, spaces in oneself, others, and the environment" (Richardson et al., 2021, p. 19). Effective listening involves more than simply hearing words; it requires the ability to

understand, interpret, and respond to spoken language in various contexts (Solyev, Ya. & Samandarov, S., 2025). Emphasizing the importance of listening Murphy (2020) writes in the *New York Times*: "It is only by listening that we engage, understand, empathize, cooperate and develop as human beings. It is fundamental to any successful relationship – personal, professional, and political."

According to Solyev & Samandarov (2025), listening comprehension involves a range of subskills that enable learners to process, interpret, and respond to spoken language effectively. These subskills include the ability to identify main ideas, recognize specific details, infer meaning from context, understand speaker intent, and distinguish between literal and implied messages. Teaching these subskills explicitly equips students with strategies to handle various listening scenarios, both in academic and real-life settings. Weger et al. (2010) mention that listening is one of the most complexes of all human behaviors – a communication skill that requires training and development to be truly proficient.

Of four language skills, reading, writing, speaking and listening, Oxford (1993) considers listening to be the "most fundamental". His opinion is supported by the estimate data, according to which humans spend 70 to 80 percent of their waking hours in some form of communication: 9 percent writing, 16 percent reading, 30 percent speaking, and 45 percent listening. This data indicates the significance of listening comprehension in the learning process. On the other hand, listening is a complex process. The researchers in the field of listening explain this complex process of listening as a series of interlocking communication stages: reception, attention, perception, interpretation and response. (Wolvin et al., 2022).

Below is a brief description of each stage.

Reception – The initial stage of listening involves physically hearing, as the ear captures sound waves and transmits them to the brain through the auditory system, focusing on the message received (Worthington & Bodie, 2018). However, listening is also largely visual, since a speaker's body language may convey more than the verbal message (Burgoon et al., 2010).

Attention – The listener's attention focus is at the center of this process. The listener selectively focuses on certain sounds or messages, filtering out background noise and distractions to concentrate on what matters. But the human capacity to store the information in the working memory is severely limited (Fougnie &Marious, 2006). Consequently, maintaining attention is certainly a major challenge (Strauss & Francis, 2017). Significantly, some researchers suggest that focus on speaker's message today may be limited to about 10 minutes (Bradury, 2016). Accordinally, the amount of listening material is limited by national school curricular (see Table 1.2).

Table 1.2

The amount of listening material according to national school curricular

Grade 1	**Grade 2**	**Grade 3**	**Grade 4**	**Grade 5**	**Grade 6**	**Grade 7**	**Grade 8**	**Grade 9**	**Grade 10**	**Grade 11**
1-2 min	1-2 min	2-3 min	2-3 min	2-3 min	2-3 min	3-4 min	3-4 min	3-4 min	2-3 min	3-4 min

Perception – This stage involves the listener identifying and arranging incoming sounds into meaningful units (such as words, phrases, and intonation patterns) using their existing language knowledge. The way a message is perceived depends not only on the listener's level of attention but also on their perceptual filters, which significantly influence what information is noticed, how it is processed, and how it is ultimately interpreted.

Interpretation – After the message is received, attended to, and perceived, the listener moves to the interpretation stage (Edwards, 2011). Interpretation is the stage in which the listener assigns meaning to what has been perceived, relying on contextual clues, prior knowledge, and signals from the speaker. This process involves identifying cognitive and sensory "matches" within working memory. If no such match is found, the listening process may come to a halt, as the listener is unable to process or act upon the message. Conversely, when a match is established, the integration of visual, auditory, and sensory information allows the listener to

construct meaning from the received input. In essence, successful interpretation transforms raw auditory signals into comprehensible and meaningful communication, enabling effective understanding and response.

Response – At this stage, the listener responds to the interpreted message through verbal or non-verbal means (such as replying, nodding, making a decision, or altering behavior). These responses occur on both internal and external levels. Internally, the listener retains the message in working memory for future recall and use. Externally, they offer verbal and/or non-verbal feedback to the speaker, helping to advance the communication objectives of the interaction.

In conclusion, the listening process can be viewed as a chain of interconnected stages – reception, attention, perception, interpretation, and response – each of which is essential for effective communication. From a teaching perspective, understanding these stages is crucial for designing instructional strategies that support learners at every step. In the language classroom, teachers must ensure that learners are given clear input (reception), guided in sustaining focus despite distractions (attention), supported in decoding and organizing language patterns (perception), scaffolded in making sense of messages through context and prior knowledge (interpretation), and encouraged to respond meaningfully in both verbal and non-verbal ways (response). By explicitly addressing each stage in teaching practice, educators can help students develop not only the ability to hear and understand English but also the confidence and skill to engage with it actively–transforming listening from a passive act into a dynamic and purposeful communicative competence.

1.2.2. Developing Listening Skills

Effective listening is an extremely important life skill. It may serve a number of possible purposes, depending on the situation and the nature of the communication (Yurko & Styfanyshyn, 2020). Now listening is perceived as a complex skill operating at several different levels, and needs to be practised accordingly. At the language faculty, receptive skills, and listening in particular, are not only a means of

language acquisition but also a means of developing **language awareness, cultural literacy, and academic competence** – skills vital for perspective teachers so that they will be able to develop these skills in their future learners.

The design of effective instructional content for listening must be grounded in a set of **pedagogically sound principles**. These include:

- ***Authenticity:*** Whenever possible, learners should engage with real-life texts and recordings that reflect genuine language use. Authentic materials expose learners to natural speech and diverse textual structures, preparing them for real-world communication.
- ***Relevance***: Content must align with learners' academic, professional, and personal goals. For students at a language faculty, this might include texts related to linguistics, literature, pedagogy, or global issues in English language education.
- ***Gradation:*** Texts and tasks should be sequenced from simple to complex in terms of length, vocabulary, syntax, and conceptual demand. Gradation supports learners' confidence and cognitive load management.
- ***Integration:*** Receptive content should be integrated with productive skills, grammar, vocabulary, and cultural themes to reflect the interrelated nature of language competence.
- ***Engagement:*** Tasks should promote active learning and require learners to interact with the content meaningfully, rather than passively consuming it.

These principles support **learners' strategic development** and allow for differentiation according to proficiency levels and learning styles.

Effective teaching of listening skills requires a diverse range of materials and resources to engage learners and facilitate comprehension (Abdushukurova, 2024). The selection of texts is crucial in ensuring both **linguistic input quality** and **learner motivation**. For language faculty students, materials can be drawn from: interviews, podcasts, TED Talks, academic lectures, teacher talk, instructional videos, radio reports, etc. Multimedia tools, including audio recordings, videos, and interactive simulations, provide dynamic and immersive learning experiences that stimulate

learners' interest and comprehension (Hubbard, 2008). Wilson (2008) identifies several sources for listening. Among them: teacher talk, student talk, guest speakers, textbook recordings, television, video, DVD and radio, songs, and the Internet. By integrating a variety of materials and resources, it is possible to create rich and engaging learning environments that support the development of listening skills in language learners.

Successful teaching of listening skills depends on teaching strategies. Buck (2001, 104) identifies two kinds of strategies in listening: cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies. Wilson (2008, 34) divides strategies into three groups: cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies and socio-affective strategies. Cognitive strategies are those that we use in order to complete an immediate task. For example, a student may find out about the topic (perhaps using information in LI) before listening, in order to predict content. Metacognitive strategies are related to learning in general and often have long-term benefits. For example, students might choose to tune in to a BBC recording once a week as a strategy for improving their listening. Socio-affective strategies are concerned with the learners' interaction with other speakers and their attitude towards learning. For example, they may choose to rehearse a telephone conversation in L2 with another student in order to develop confidence, or reward themselves with a doughnut when they successfully complete some task in the target language.

Proficient listeners engage in the concurrent use of multiple strategies, selecting and adapting them in accordance with the specific requirements of the communicative task. Wilson (2008) emphasizes the pedagogical significance of guiding learners in the systematic application of these strategies. His conceptualization of instructional approaches to teaching listening strategies is presented in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3

Wilson's ideas for teaching listening strategies (Wilson, 2008, pp.35-37)

Strategy	**How to teach it**	**When to teach it/Type of text**
Be ready and have a plan to achieve a given task.	Clarify what students will need to do with the information they hear by asking concept questions (questions that ask students to show they understand ideas rather than show that they merely recall facts). These encourage the students to verbalize what they need to do, thus clearing up any ambiguities.	Teach it before the students listen. It can be done with any listening text
Use world knowledge to predict what will be said.	Before listening, discuss the subject and how the speaker might view it. Use KWL charts (Know/Want to Know/Learnt) to pool knowledge of the topic. Give students headlines/titles. They predict additional content before listening to the recording.	Teach it before the students listen. It can be done with factual texts, e.g. news, discussion of a topic, lectures.
Use linguistic knowledge to predict what will be said.	Use gap-fill exercises (students fill the gaps in a transcript). Students complete the exercise before listening. As they listen, they can see how accurate their predictions were.	This can be done either before listening or after a first listening. If the latter, it should be used to show which words naturally follow other words, rather than as a memory test. It can be

Table 1.3 (Continued)

		done with any listening text containing common collocations (take your time, make an effort, Happy Birthday, etc), idioms or adjacency pairs ('How are you?' 'Fine, thanks.' 'Thanks.' 'You're welcome.').
Monitor performance while listening.	Pause at regular intervals during the listening to check comprehension (students in pairs, groups or as a whole class). Ask questions such as Who said X? Why? What is the topic? Ask students if their answers are logical. (Does it make sense that Russia's biggest airport is located in Monaco, as one student thought he'd heard?)	This is taught during listening. The strategy should be taught only occasionally as the teaching of it interrupts the listening experience and can frustrate students. It can be done with any listening text, especially if the students are listening for gist, but it works better with slightly extended texts.
Pick out only salient points, listening selectively and ignoring irrelevant details.	Give tasks that require listening for detail, e.g. with train timetables, cinema listings information, etc, which consist mainly of information that is extraneous for the individual listener. Use gap-fill exercises.	The strategy can be taught during the setting of the while-listening task, as the teacher explains what the students must listen for. It can be reinforced during feedback after listening. Use announcements and other lists of information.
Take notes, writing down relevant information in shorthand.	As above. People can't remember details such as telephone numbers, so they	The strategy requires pre-listening advice on what to note down and how to

Table 1.3 (Continued)

	need to practise writing information quickly. Ask students to identify key words (the stressed words, which they should note) in full sentences. Give students 'Who/Where/What/Why' charts. They take notes in the columns. Explain that note-taking systems only need to make sense to the note-taker (notes are essentially private aids for later recall).	write it. It also requires extended feedback after listening, as students compare their notes. Use factual texts, e.g. news, discussion of a topic, lectures and texts with information such as phone numbers and addresses.
Note an approximation of a difficult word/name. Check later.	As above, but help students to make a guess based on a phonetic approximation. News broadcasts are excellent for this as they often contain names of places and people.	The strategy requires a hint before listening - 'Even if you aren't sure of the answer, write down what you think you heard' - and then post-listening feedback. Use factual texts, e.g. news, discussion of a topic, lectures. The strategy is especially useful as practice for exam situations.
Listen for key words for topic identification.	Ask students to listen again and pick out words belonging to a lexical set. Check with the script, if available. Songs lend themselves well to this.	Teach this after the first listening, pointing out that the key words clarify the topic. Use factual texts and songs.

Table 1.3 (Continued)

Check with other listeners.	Regularly include a stage at which students compare answers. This is also valuable as a way to highlight discrepancies in interpretation.	This strategy can be taught after listening, and is built into many published materials. It can be done with any listening text.
Ask for clarification.	Teach phrases: Could you repeat what you said about ...? What did you mean by ...? 1 didn't catch XXX. Give opportunities for students to use these, e.g. by telling an anecdote slightly above the students' level.	The phrases need to be taught and practised before listening. The strategy requires face-to-face communication, and works well with stories (fact or fiction) and anecdotes.
Reconstruct orally or in writing.	Do dictogloss activities: tell a story or anecdote at full speed several times. Students work together to reconstruct the story, gradually adding details.	The strategy is explained as the teacher gives the while-listening task. After listening, the students evaluate their success in using the strategy. Use stories (fact or fiction) and anecdotes.
Listen for transition points.	Teach linking expressions/ devices: so, on the other hand, furthermore, in conclusion, etc. Pause (a recording) after the expression and ask students what comes next.	The phrases need to be taught and practised before listening. The text can be paused during a second listening, once students have got the gist. Use factual texts, e.g. news, discussion of a topic, lectures. You can also use stories (fact or fiction) and anecdotes.

In summary, Wilson (2008) states that students need frequent and systematic training in these strategies, and opportunities to put them into practice. This is a crucial part of planning.

The strategies and processes required depend on the situation, type of input and reasons for listening (Wilson, 2008). Furthermore, he mentions that he primary purposes of human listening, then, are information-gathering and pleasure, though there are other reasons, such as empathy, assessment and criticism. The types of listening we engage in on a day-to-day basis can be categorized as follows:

- *Listening for gist* – this refers to the occasions when we want to know the general idea of what is being said, as well as who is speaking to whom and why, and how successful they are in communicating their point.
- *Listening for specific information* – this refers to the occasions when we don't need to understand everything, but only a very specific part. For example, while listening to a list of delayed trains, we are only interested in hearing news about one particular train - the one we want to catch - and so we listen selectively for this specific information. We ignore everything else.
- *Listening in detail* – this refers to the type of listening we do when, for example, we need to find errors or determine differences between one passage and another. We cannot afford to ignore anything because, unlike listening to a list of delayed trains, we don't know exactly what information will help us to achieve our task.
- *Inferential listening* – this refers to the type of listening we do when we wish to know how the speaker feels. It may involve inferring.

These classifications highlight the multifaceted nature of listening and the diverse purposes it serves in real-life communication. Consequently, the design of listening instruction in the language classroom must take into account not only the type of listening required but also the cognitive and affective processes involved in each case. In order to operationalize these insights for pedagogical practice, it is essential to consider how listening lessons can be systematically structured and how specific activities can be employed to develop learners' proficiency in different types

of listening. The following section therefore outlines the typical structure of a listening lesson and illustrates corresponding classroom activities aimed at fostering targeted listening skills.

1.2.3. Structure of a Listening Lesson and Corresponding Activities

Scholars in the field of second language acquisition emphasize that listening instruction should be systematically structured in order to support both comprehension and the development of effective strategies (Field, 2008; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012; Rost, 2016). A commonly accepted framework for organizing listening instruction consists of three pedagogical stages: **pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening.** Each stage plays a distinct role in scaffolding learners' engagement with the spoken text, while collectively they ensure a balanced integration of bottom-up and top-down processes.

***Pre-listening stage* – t**he purpose of the pre-listening stage is to activate learners' schemata, establish a listening purpose, and reduce potential difficulties caused by unfamiliar vocabulary, discourse structures, or cultural references. Activities at this stage may include prediction tasks (e.g., brainstorming content based on a title or visual), semantic mapping, or guided questions that direct attention toward gist, detail, or speaker stance. They are called also introductory activities that is an introduction to the topic of the text and activities focusing on the language of the context. They aim to deal with all of these issues which are generating interest, building self-confidence and facilitating comprehension (Djabborova, 2020). Such preparatory work lowers cognitive load, thereby allowing learners to allocate more processing capacity to comprehension during the subsequent stage (Field, 2008, pp. 238–240).

***While-listening stage* –** this stage constitutes the core of the listening lesson, as learners are required to process the auditory input in real time. Effective task design at this stage should promote purposeful listening and encourage learners to employ strategies appropriate to different listening purposes. According to

Djabborova, (2020) in these activities learner receives a series of comprehension activities for developing listening skills and teachers purpose to practice listening subskills. Wilson's (2008, pp. 37–40) classification of listening types provides a useful basis for aligning activities:

Listening for gist: activities such as identifying the overall theme, sequencing visual prompts, or summarizing the message in one or two sentences. These tasks foster top-down processing by requiring learners to focus on global meaning (Rost, 2016, p. 152).

Listening for specific information: tasks including form-filling, checklists, or extracting discrete data (e.g., times, names, numbers). Such activities primarily engage bottom-up processing by directing attention to linguistic details (Field, 2008, p. 245).

Listening in detail: activities such as error identification in transcripts, comparison of near-identical texts, or responding to precise comprehension questions. These tasks require intensive processing of language forms and meaning relations (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, pp. 104–106).

Inferential listening: activities designed to uncover speakers' attitudes, emotions, or intentions, for instance, through the analysis of intonation, hesitation, or pragmatic markers. These tasks are particularly valuable in developing pragmatic competence and intercultural awareness (Rost, 2016, pp. 178–180).

Importantly, while-listening activities should progress from simpler to more complex tasks, ensuring that learners are not overwhelmed but are gradually challenged to integrate multiple sources of information (Field, 2008, p. 248).

Post-listening stage – the post-listening stage consolidates comprehension and often provides opportunities for extending listening into speaking, reading, or writing tasks. According to Vandergrift and Goh (2012, pp. 127–129), reflection on strategies used during listening also fosters metacognitive awareness, which is a critical component of learner autonomy. Activities at this stage may include group discussions relating the listening text to personal experiences, reconstructing the message through note-taking or summarization, or engaging in critical evaluation of

the content. Such activities situate listening within the broader communicative framework of the classroom, ensuring that it contributes not only to receptive competence but also to higher-order skills such as critical thinking and collaborative problem-solving (Rost, 2016, pp. 210–212).

Taken together, these three stages provide a coherent structure that supports learners in developing both the cognitive and metacognitive dimensions of listening. They also highlight the dual role of listening pedagogy: to provide practice in understanding spoken input and to foster transferable strategies that enable learners to manage real-world communicative situations effectively.

The three-stage framework of pre-, while-, and post-listening instruction not only provides a systematic basis for designing listening lessons but also serves as a methodological foundation for preparing pre-service teachers to develop listening skills in future learners. By engaging with model lessons, designing activity sequences, and reflecting on their own and peers' teaching performance, pre-service teachers gradually develop the professional readiness to mediate the listening process for learners. Consequently, the structure of a listening lesson functions not only as a didactic template but also as a pedagogical training tool, enabling future teachers to internalize principles of scaffolding, sequencing, and strategy instruction. The following section will therefore consider the methodological aspect of pre-service teacher training aimed at cultivating competence in teaching listening, with particular emphasis on activity design, classroom management strategies, and the development of reflective teaching practice.

1.2.4. Methodological Preparation of Pre-Service Teachers for Teaching Listening

In teacher education, it is essential that prospective teachers move beyond mere familiarity with the theoretical foundations of teaching listening and acquire the professional competence to design, adapt, and implement lessons that respond to learners' needs and classroom realities. As Richards & Farrell (2011) point out,

effective language teacher education requires the development of both content knowledge (theories of listening and second language acquisition) and pedagogical knowledge (the ability to transform this content into teachable activities). In the same vein, Vandergrift & Goh (2012) stress that teachers' ability to guide learners in using effective listening strategies depends largely on their own awareness of the cognitive and metacognitive dimensions of listening.

Accordingly, pre-service training must be directed toward fostering methodological literacy: the capacity to select and sequence appropriate tasks, scaffold comprehension through a balance of top-down and bottom-up processing, and integrate listening instruction into broader communicative and skills-based outcomes. Methodological preparation therefore entails both the critical analysis of listening tasks and the experiential practice of lesson planning and microteaching.

This section outlines the experience of EFL teacher training at Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University, based on the PRESETT Curriculum on Methodology for initial EFL teacher education in Ukraine. The curriculum was developed through the "New Generation School Teacher" project (2013–2019), jointly initiated and supported by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and the British Council Ukraine.

To illustrate how the PRESETT Curriculum translates its objectives into concrete pedagogical practice, it is useful to examine Unit 3.1 *Teaching Skills – Teaching Listening*. Gembaruk (2021) provides an in-depth analysis of this unit in terms of its content, structure, modes of teaching and learning, and assessment specifications. According to the Curriculum, the unit is taught in Year 3, Semester 5, with a total workload of 30 hours (18 contact hours and 12 hours of self-study).

The objectives of the unit are structured so that, by its completion, students will:

- develop awareness of curriculum requirements for teaching listening;
- understand the psychological and phonological features of speech perception;
- recognize the importance of listening as a skill underpinning other language skills;

- identify and practice listening subskills, task sequences, and types of listening materials.

In addition, they will be able to:

- anticipate potential learner difficulties and propose solutions;
- apply strategies and activities for developing listening skills according to different purposes;
- assess learner performance and provide constructive feedback;
- evaluate, select, and adapt listening materials;
- teach listening across different proficiency levels;
- plan coherent sequences of listening activities.

The indicative content of the unit is summarized in Table 1.4.

Table 1.4

Indicative content of Unit 3.1

Session	Content
1	Listening as a skill. An overview of different types of listening materials: • coursebook recordings • videos • podcasts • online resources. The primacy of listening The importance of exposure to authentic listening inputs.
2	Difficulties learners may face while listening Curriculum requirements for teaching listening to different age groups Listening in the CEFR
3	The place of phonology in teaching listening Intonation, stress, rhythm and their functions Anticipated phonological difficulties: ● weak forms ● contractions ● elision ● word and sentence stress patterns. Teaching techniques for dealing with phonological difficulties: ● minimal pairs/trios ● TPR ● recognition of function • recognition of attitude.

Table 1.4 (Continued)

4	Different purposes for listening: ● listening for gist ● listening for detail/intensive listening ● listening for specific information. Ways in which people listen for each purpose.
5–6	Key strategies for developing learners' listening skills: ● top-down ● bottom-up ● metacognitive.
7	Activities for teaching listening skills. Sequencing activities
8	Evaluation, selection and adaptation of listening materials
9	Assessing learners' listening skills

This detailed organization demonstrates how theoretical principles are systematically embedded into the training process, offering pre-service teachers a structured pathway to acquire both conceptual knowledge and practical expertise in teaching listening. The careful sequencing of topics ensures gradual progression toward the intended learning outcomes. As Richards (2017) emphasizes, effective teacher education curricula must balance theoretical input with experiential learning so that trainees can internalize methodological principles and apply them in authentic teaching contexts. Recent studies support this approach: for instance, Günbaş & Gözüküçük (2023) show that designing and observing listening activities enhances pre-service teachers' technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK).

The sessions are developed on the basis of the constructivist approach, which holds that students do not acquire ready-made knowledge but rather construct it through their own experience, exploration, problem-solving, and collaboration. According to McLeod (2019), constructivist learning theory underpins a range of student-centered teaching methods and techniques that contrast with traditional education, where knowledge is passively transmitted from teacher to student. Such methods include think-pair-share, brainstorming, case studies, role plays, agree/disagree corners, discussions, and project work. The following examples of

these activities are taken from the student workbook *English Language Teaching Methodology: Module 3. Preparing to Teach 2* (2020).

Topic 1. Listening as a skill

Activity 1.2. Myths and Truth about Listening

- Working in small groups, decide if the statements are myths or the truth, tick the relevant column, and justify your choice

Statement	Myth	Truth	Comments
1. Listening is a 'passive' skill			
2. It is easier for students to understand native speakers of English than foreign speakers of English			
3.The skills involved in listening to a foreign language are the same as those that we use for listening to our native language			
4. While listening in class, students shouldn't try to understand every word			
5. Students shouldn't be allowed to read the scripts of recordings.			

Available from: Wilson, J.J. (2008). How to Teach Listening. Pearson Education Limited

- Discuss your viewpoints with the whole group (Bevz, Brit, & Gembaruk, 2020, 10–11).

Topic 1. Listening as a skill

Activity 1.5. Advantages and disadvantages of listening types

- Define the advantages/benefits and disadvantages (if any) of one of the types of listening. Represent your ideas on the poster
- Present your posters and justify your ideas.

- Read J.J. Wilson‘s description of listening sources.
- Add some more points to the suggested by you list of advantages or disadvantages (Bevz et al., 2020, 13–17).

Topic 4. Evaluation, Selection and Adaptation of Listening Materials

Activity 4.2 Text types (Bevz et al., 2020, 36).

Match the following phrases to the types of texts where they can be used.

- Text Types by JJ. Wilson: advertisement, announcement, interview, news item, description, report, informal conversation.

	Phrases	**Text Type**
1	Hi, Karen. What is new?	
2	And now for the latest news.	
3	Could you tell us, Mr. Cohen, What is your new movie about?	
4	65 percent of the people questioned said that they did sports on a regular basis.	
5	To all the passengers traveling to Tel Aviv - the bus is leaving at platform 7.	
6	The new student in our class is nice and very friendly.	
7	Don’t miss our sale. 60% off on all winter shoes.	

Topic 4. Evaluation, Selection and Adaptation of Listening Materials

Activity 4.5. Coursebook analysis

- Read four coursebook passages on the same topic: food.
- Identify the differences between texts in terms of level, complexity, density, vocabulary and authenticity.
- Fill your answers in the table below.

Text 1

In the 16th century, a famous Spanish explorer, Hernan Cortes, brought chocolate back from the Americas to Spain. Drinking chocolate soon became very popular in Europe. Three hundred years later, a scientist in Holland learned how to make chocolate into candy. Today chocolate is one of the most popular and bestloved foods in the world.

Available from: Abbs, B, Barker, C, Freebairn, I and Wilson, J (2008). Postcards 2 (2nd edn), Teacher‘s Edition. Pearson Education. – P.14

Text 2

m a l e: How much rice do you buy each week?
f e m a l e: I usually buy two kilos of rice.
m a l e: And how many tomatoes do you eat?
f e m a l e: About six.
m a l e: How much coffee do you buy?
f e m a l e: I buy about 250 grammes of coffee.
m a l e: How many pineapples do you get?
f e m a l e: Oh, only one.

Available from: Foley, M and Hall, D (2005). Total English Elementary. Pearson Education. – P.152

Text 3

Q: Is it true, Lisa, that you always have bacon and eggs for breakfast?
Lisa: Well, it used to be true, but it isn‘t true any more. People often have toast and cereal, jam, yoghurt, things like that, but not many have time to cook bacon and eggs. It‘s only in hotels when you get bacon and eggs - what we call a cooked breakfast or an English breakfast.

Available from: Greenall, S (1997). Reward Elementary, Heinemann. – P.117

Text 4

i: Michael, you‘ve had the opportunity to taste some of the more unusual dishes from around the world. Can you tell us something about them, and in particular, what they taste like?
m: Yes, well, I‘ve just come back from Thailand and in the winter, sackloads of grasshoppers and locusts are brought into Bangkok from the countryside because the Thais love them. They make a really crisp and tasty snack. In fact, fried grasshoppers are tasty to most people, provided they don‘t know what they‘re eating. They eat crickets in parts of North America, and they taste just the same,
i: Hmm. I‘m not sure I‘d like to eat insects.

Available from: Kay, S. and Jones, V. (2000). Inside Out Intermediate. Macmillan Heinemann.– P.156

Text #	**level**	**complexity**	**density**	**vocabulary**	**authenticity**
1					
2					
3					
4					

- Answer the questions:
  Which text would you choose?
  What factors would you take into account when selecting the text for listening?
  (Bevz et al., 2020, 42–43).

Topic 5 Difficulties in Teaching Listening

Activity 5.2. Case Study

- Study the case and define what kind of problems the learners face and what the possible solution could be

CASE STUDY

A Brazilian student keeps saying that her breakfast consists of 'cough with cream'; a Thai claims he went to 'primate school'; a German woman studying for a listening exam asks if we can turn off the 'ear conditioning'.

- Discuss the results with the group (Bevz et al., 2020, 50).

The presented examples demonstrate the practical implementation of constructivist principles through interactive, problem-oriented, and reflective learning activities that foster learner autonomy and engagement. Each task provides opportunities for students to construct their own understanding of listening as a language skill by analyzing, comparing, evaluating, and applying knowledge in meaningful and authentic contexts. In this way, pre-service teachers not only enhance their methodological competence but also experience the pedagogical value of active learning and collaboration as integral components of effective English language teaching.

Assessment in Unit 3.1 is carried out through a module assignment (Item 1), which constitutes a central element in evaluating professional readiness. For this task, students are given an audio text along with information about the target learners' age group, proficiency level, and the communicative purpose of listening. Based on this input, they design a sequence of at least four activities aligned with the learners' needs and objectives. They must also provide a clear rationale for their activity choices and detailed instructions for classroom implementation. Successful

completion of this task demonstrates not only students' theoretical understanding of key principles of teaching listening but also their ability to operationalize this knowledge in practice. In this way, the assessment component of Unit 3.1 effectively integrates theory and practice, preparing future teachers to make informed pedagogical decisions and to design purposeful, learner-centered listening instruction.

In summary, the methodological preparation of pre-service teachers for teaching listening, as exemplified by Unit 3.1 of the PRESETT Curriculum, demonstrates the integration of theoretical knowledge with practical application. By combining content knowledge, pedagogical skills, and experiential practice through structured lesson planning, task analysis, and microteaching, pre-service teachers are equipped to address diverse learner needs and classroom realities. The carefully designed sequence of activities, alongside targeted assessment, ensures that trainees develop both the cognitive understanding and professional competence necessary for effective, learner-centered listening instruction. Consequently, this approach not only reinforces the foundational principles of teaching listening but also cultivates reflective, adaptable educators capable of making informed pedagogical decisions in real-world classroom settings.

Building on the methodological principles and practical frameworks established for teaching listening, it is equally essential to examine the theoretical and pedagogical foundations of teaching reading, as this skill similarly underpins language development and requires the integration of cognitive strategies, task design, and learner-centered approaches in pre-service teacher training.

Examining the theoretical and methodological approaches to teaching reading allows for a comprehensive understanding of how receptive skills are interrelated and how integrated, learner-centered strategies can support holistic language development in the EFL classroom. The theoretical and methodological foundations of teaching reading is focused on in the next chapter.

Section 1.3 Theoretical and Methodological Foundations of Teaching Reading

1.3.1. The Characteristics of Reading as a Skill

Reading, as a core receptive skill in language learning, requires learners to decode written texts, construct meaning, and engage in higher-order cognitive processes such as inference, prediction, and critical evaluation. Effective instruction in reading therefore depends not only on learners' linguistic knowledge but also on their ability to apply reading strategies purposefully across different text types and contexts. In teacher education, pre-service teachers must acquire both theoretical understanding and practical skills to design, implement, and assess reading tasks that develop comprehension, fluency, and critical thinking. Drawing on established models of reading instruction and current research in second language acquisition, this section examines the principles, strategies, text types, and methodological approaches that underpin the teaching of reading in the EFL classroom, highlighting parallels and distinctions with listening instruction while emphasizing the development of integrated, learner-centered pedagogical practices.

Reading is the process through which a reader extracts information from a written text, transferring meaning from the writer to the reader. The ultimate purpose of reading is to comprehend the ideas conveyed by the text. As Dean (2013) points out, reading goes beyond simply recognizing or pronouncing words correctly, or understanding individual word meanings – it involves thinking and feeling as well. Therefore, reading is not merely decoding written symbols but engaging with and understanding all aspects of the text. In this sense, reading serves as one of the most effective means of grasping the full meaning of a written work.

Richards & Schmidt (2002: 443) describe reading in two distinct ways. First, it is the act of perceiving a written text with the aim of understanding its meaning, which is typically done silently and leads to what is known as reading

comprehension. Second, reading can also refer to the act of vocalizing a written text (oral reading), which may occur either with or without comprehension of its content.

Reading is an interactive process between the reader and the writer through the written text (Sumirat et al., 2019). This means that during reading, the reader not only focuses on the written words but also pays attention to correct pronunciation and, most importantly, to understanding the meaning conveyed by the text.

Among the four English language skills, reading assists people to not only get access to more language input and obtain more knowledge concerning the world (Azis et al., 2019). It is the prominent method for learning new information and can provide new ways of perceiving the world and transforming the world (Arndt & Woore, 2018). This aligns with Hidayat (2017), who emphasizes that reading is a vital activity for independently obtaining information from various sources, particularly for EFL learners across different countries.

Reading is one of the language skills which is very important to be learned by students. Through this activity, students can improve their own language and experience. They will get information and ideas which they need to know. Moreover, they will be able to know what they do not know before. Burt, Peyton, and Adam (2003) emphasize the importance of learning to read, noting that it: (1) helps individuals think in a new language, (2) contributes to vocabulary development, (3) increases comfort and familiarity with written English, and (4) supports more effective study planning. The students who master reading skills will easily extract meaning from reading English texts because they have a better vocabulary in context.

1.3.2. Types of Reading and their Pedagogical Implications

The teaching of reading in a foreign language classroom involves developing learners' ability to engage with texts for different purposes and at varying levels of depth. Scholars distinguish among several types of reading, each serving specific communicative and educational goals. The most common classifications include intensive reading, extensive reading, skimming, and scanning, though in practice

these types often overlap and complement one another (Day & Bamford, 2002; Grellet, 2010).

Intensive reading focuses on a detailed understanding of a short text, emphasizing language form, meaning, and structure. It often involves close analysis of vocabulary, grammar, and discourse features, as well as comprehension questions and text-based exercises. The goal is accuracy and depth of understanding rather than speed. Intensive reading is particularly valuable in academic contexts, where learners must interpret complex arguments or analyze stylistic devices. However, as Nuttall (2005) notes, it should not dominate classroom practice, since excessive focus on linguistic details may reduce reading fluency and motivation.

In contrast, extensive reading involves reading longer texts, such as graded readers, novels, or articles, for general understanding and enjoyment. This approach develops reading fluency, broadens vocabulary, and fosters positive attitudes toward reading in the target language (Day & Bamford, 2002). Learners choose materials suited to their interests and proficiency level, which supports autonomy and intrinsic motivation. Research consistently shows that extensive reading enhances both reading speed and overall language proficiency, provided that learners have access to appropriate and engaging materials.

Skimming and scanning represent rapid reading techniques aimed at specific purposes. Skimming entails reading quickly to grasp the general idea or "gist" of a text, focusing on topic sentences, headings, and keywords. It is particularly useful when previewing material or deciding its relevance. Scanning, on the other hand, involves searching for specific information—names, dates, figures, or particular details—without reading everything in depth. Both skills are essential for efficient reading in academic, professional, and everyday situations, where readers must process large amounts of information selectively (Grellet, 2010).

From a pedagogical perspective, teachers should integrate different reading types systematically to develop learners' flexibility and strategic competence. Intensive reading activities help students build linguistic and analytical skills, while extensive reading cultivates fluency, motivation, and a reading habit. Likewise,

training in skimming and scanning improves students' efficiency in dealing with authentic materials such as web pages, news articles, and academic texts. A balanced reading curriculum thus combines depth and breadth, supporting learners in becoming confident, autonomous readers capable of adjusting their reading style to diverse communicative purposes (Grabe & Stoller, 2019; Nuttall, 2005).

1.3.3. Reading Comprehension Strategies

In teaching reading, the teacher may use different strategies. Reading strategies have been defined in various ways. Comprehension strategies are specific procedures that guide students to become aware of how well they comprehend as they attempt to read and write (NRP, 2000). According to McNamara (2012), a reading comprehension strategy involves a cognitive or behavioral action carried out in specific contexts with the purpose of enhancing some aspect of comprehension. Edge (2002) describes these strategies as tools that encourage students to draw on prior knowledge, personal experiences, and critical evaluation to determine how best to apply their understanding in diverse reading situations. In essence, reading comprehension strategies can be viewed as a complex process that involves the interaction between the reader and the text, employing multiple skills (Medina, 2007). Harmer (2007) defines a strategy as an action that the teacher takes to attain one or more of her teaching-learning goals.

Teaching strategies in reading comprehension are important in the learning process and could affect the students reading comprehension. As Medina (2007) notes, different strategies may be effective for different students or types of reading materials, highlighting the need for a tailored approach. Therefore, when aiming to improve students' reading comprehension, teachers must consider factors such as students' proficiency level, group dynamics, age, gender, cultural background, and the nature of the text, in order to select the most appropriate strategies. Brown (2004) has noted that teaching strategies can make teaching reading easier to implement a variety of teaching methods and techniques. Therefore, successful teachers who

teach reading comprehension realize that reading can be taught by using various strategies. The usage of appropriate strategy could affect the students to comprehend their reading.

Building on this idea, researchers have sought to categorize and systematize reading strategies to better guide teaching practices. Early research by Weinstein& Mayer (1986) categorized reading strategies into four groups: *affective strategies*, which manage motivation and emotions; *elaboration strategies*, which deepen understanding through summarization and making connections; *monitoring strategies*, which involve self-regulation and checking comprehension; and *organizational strategies*, which help structure information using tools such as outlines and concept maps. Paris, Wasik,& Turner (1991) proposed a complementary temporal framework, dividing strategies into those employed before, during, and after reading, emphasizing the dynamic nature of strategic reading. Anderson (1991) further refined the understanding of reading strategies by highlighting the roles of supervising, support, paraphrasing, monitoring, and evaluating, which collectively demonstrate the multifaceted nature of comprehension.

More recent studies have expanded these foundational models. For example, meta-analyses by Sun (2021) and Peng, Wang, & Filderman (2023) confirmed that the combination of cognitive strategies (e.g., summarizing, questioning) and metacognitive strategies (e.g., self-monitoring) is particularly effective in enhancing comprehension outcomes. Filderman, Jones, & Smith (2024) emphasized the role of background knowledge alongside strategy instruction, finding that integrating content knowledge significantly improves comprehension in struggling readers. The growing prevalence of digital reading has also been examined, with Altamura, Piolanti, & Bianco (2023) noting that while print reading remains more strongly correlated with comprehension, digital reading habits can support comprehension, particularly as students' progress through higher education levels. Despite advances in research, many educators still underutilize evidence-based reading strategies, highlighting the need for ongoing professional development and explicit strategy instruction (EdWeek, 2025). Additionally, Afflerbach, Pearson, & Paris (2008)

clarified the distinction between automatic reading skills and conscious strategy use, underlining the importance of teaching students to become deliberate, strategic readers.

Practical frameworks for classroom instruction, such as the seven-strategy model promoted by Adler C.A., further guide teachers in explicitly teaching students to connect, predict, question, visualize, infer, determine importance, and synthesize information from texts. Collectively, both foundational and recent research emphasize a holistic approach: integrating cognitive, metacognitive, and affective strategies, leveraging background knowledge, and adapting to digital literacy demands to enhance reading comprehension across educational levels.

To facilitate the process of reading comprehension, teachers need to provide explicit instruction in a range of cognitive and metacognitive strategies that enable learners to become independent and purposeful readers. One of the most important strategies that can be used in the reading process is *making connections*. By making connections, learners activate their prior knowledge and relate the ideas in the text to their own experiences. Reading becomes meaningful when readers connect the ideas in the text to their experiences, beliefs, and the events in the surrounding world. Strategies such as *Text-to-Text*, *Text-to-Self*, and *Text-to-World* help students establish these connections. A text-to-self connection can be made through drawing, creating charts, or writing. Teachers might ask students if they have ever experienced anything similar to the events described in the text. Students can make text-to-text connections through drawing, charting, writing, or using graphic organizers. These connections may focus on how characters in different stories relate to each other or how story elements correspond across texts. Text-to-world connections can also be made through drawing, charting, writing, or using graphic organizers, for example, by comparing characters or events in a story to those in contemporary society (Teele, 2004). Giving students a clear purpose for reading by asking them to find such connections helps them comprehend ideas more effectively and link new information to existing schemata, thus enabling them to anticipate the content of the text.

Equally significant is the *predicting* strategy, which involves encouraging students to think about what may appear next in the text (Ulker, 2017). According to Sumirat et al. (2019), the predicting strategy enhances learners' reading achievement. In applying this strategy, the teacher selects a reading topic, divides students into small groups, and asks them to discuss what they expect to learn from the lesson. Students then write their predictions in groups, after which the teacher presents the material interactively. During the reading activity, students compare their predictions with the actual content, determining which were correct. At the end, they review the number of accurate predictions made (Sumirat et al., 2019). For this reason, the predicting strategy is often referred to as *reciprocal teaching* or *collaborative teaching*.

Skimming and *scanning* also support efficient reading by training students to identify main ideas or locate specific information quickly—skills that are essential for academic success and everyday communication. Ulker (2017) emphasizes that skimming for main ideas is one of the most important strategies for any language learner. Skimming involves reading a text quickly to grasp its gist. Through this strategy, students can predict the purpose, main idea, and supporting points of a text. Furthermore, scanning for specific information is another valuable strategy. Scanning refers to a rapid search for particular details in a text, such as dates, names, places, or definitions. Its primary purpose is to locate necessary information without reading the entire text. This strategy is especially useful when dealing with practical texts such as manuals, schedules, forms, and instructions (Ulker, 2017).

The strategy of *inferring* allows readers to interpret implied meanings and draw logical conclusions by combining textual evidence with their background knowledge—in other words, to "read between the lines." Students must use both their own knowledge and the information provided in the text to construct meaning (Serafini, 2004). Through inferring, learners can draw conclusions, make predictions, identify underlying themes, and interpret information using illustrations or contextual clues (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000). To make inferences, students can rely

on textual features such as illustrations, graphs, pictures, dates, related vocabulary, and titles.

Questioning further encourages active engagement with the text and promotes critical thinking, as learners formulate and answer questions that deepen their understanding. By generating questions, students monitor their comprehension and determine whether they can answer the questions based on their understanding. This process helps them integrate information from different parts of the text.

Teaching students to *summarize* information fosters their ability to identify key ideas, distinguish them from supporting details, and integrate information cohesively. Summarizing requires students to determine what is important in a text and express it in their own words. Instruction in summarizing helps students identify or generate main ideas, connect central concepts, eliminate unnecessary information, and retain what they have read (Vovk et al., 2021). According to Zainurrahman and Djabir (2020), this strategy promotes active learning by encouraging students to think independently, engage personally with the text, and discover meaning, interesting points, and questions during the reading process.

Another strategy that proficient readers employ is *visualization* (Adler, 2001). Visualization involves constructing mental images of the text's content, which are stored in memory as representations of understanding (National Reading Panel, 2000). Teachers can encourage students to visualize settings, characters, and actions in a story and to express these mental images through drawings or writing. Visualization enhances comprehension of descriptive and narrative texts.

Finally, *monitoring comprehension* develops learners' metacognitive awareness, enabling them to recognize and address comprehension breakdowns through rereading, clarification, or contextual inference. Monitoring comprehension helps students become more self-aware readers (Vovk et al., 2021). Skilled readers use metacognitive strategies to think about and regulate their reading. Before reading, they clarify their purpose and preview the text; during reading, they monitor understanding, adjust reading speed, and resolve comprehension problems; after reading, they evaluate their understanding of the text (Vovk et al., 2021).

The use of *graphic organizers* such as concept maps or story charts further supports comprehension by helping learners organize and visualize textual relationships. Regardless of type, graphic organizers assist readers in focusing on key concepts and understanding how they relate to one another. They also help students identify differences between fiction and nonfiction, examine relationships within a text, and produce well-organized summaries (Vovk et al., 2021). Examples include Venn diagrams, story maps, flowcharts, and cause and effect chart.

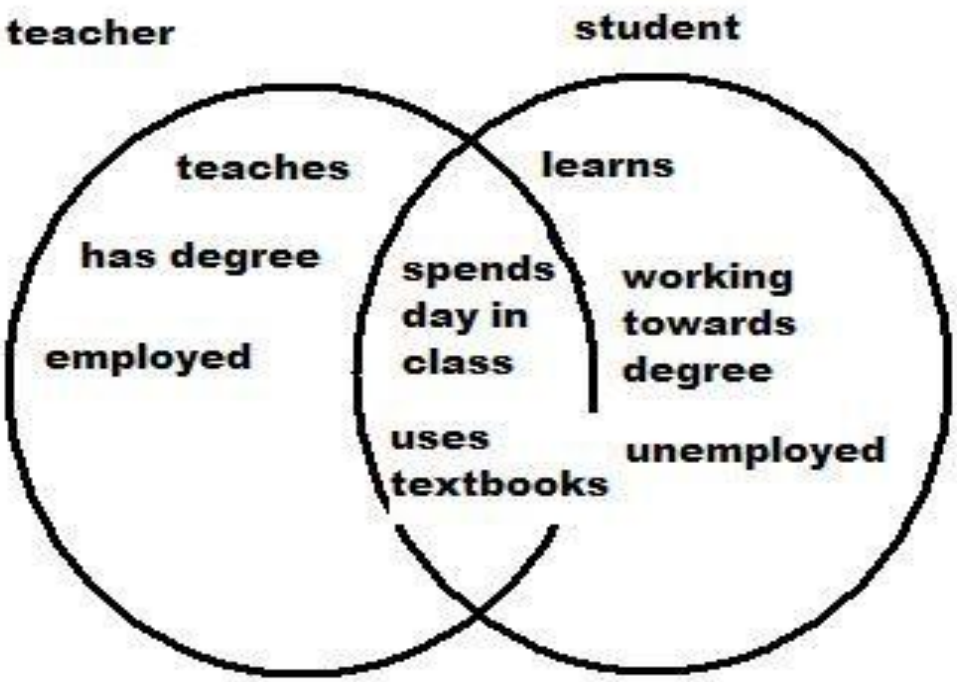


Figure 1.1. Venn Diagram

Venn-Diagrams are used to compare or contrast information from two sources.

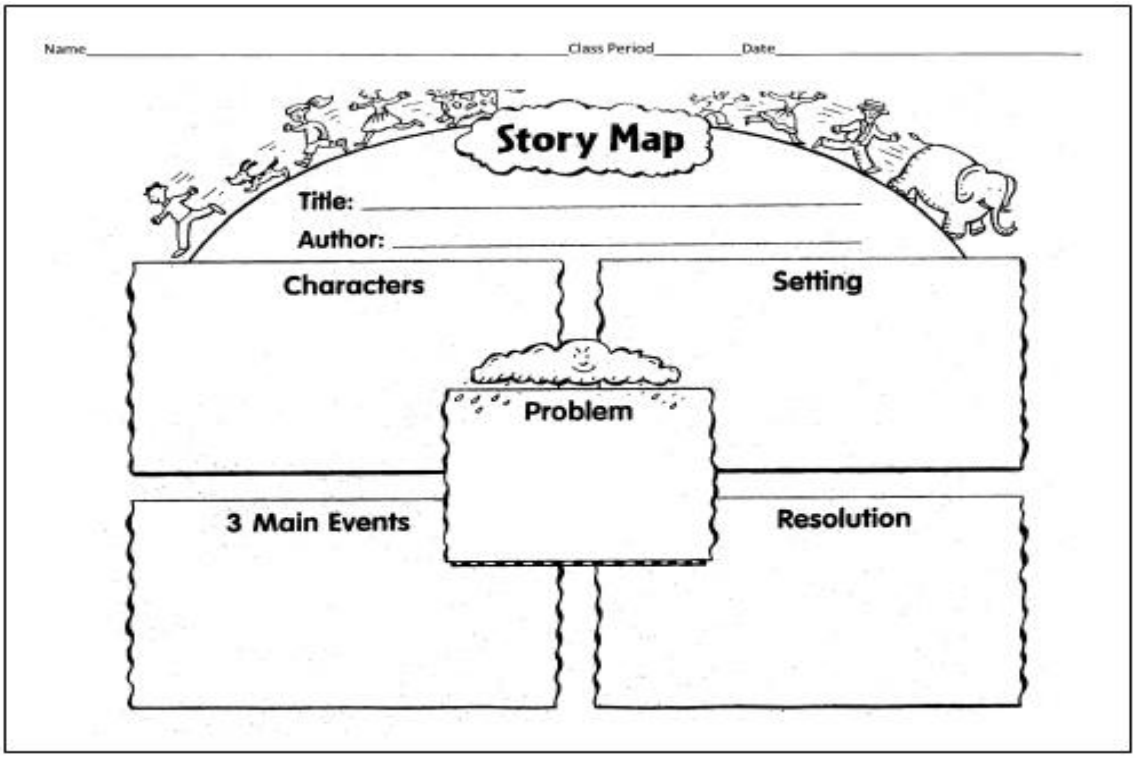


Figure 1.2. Story map

Story Map is used to chart the story structure. These can be organized into fiction and nonfiction story structure.

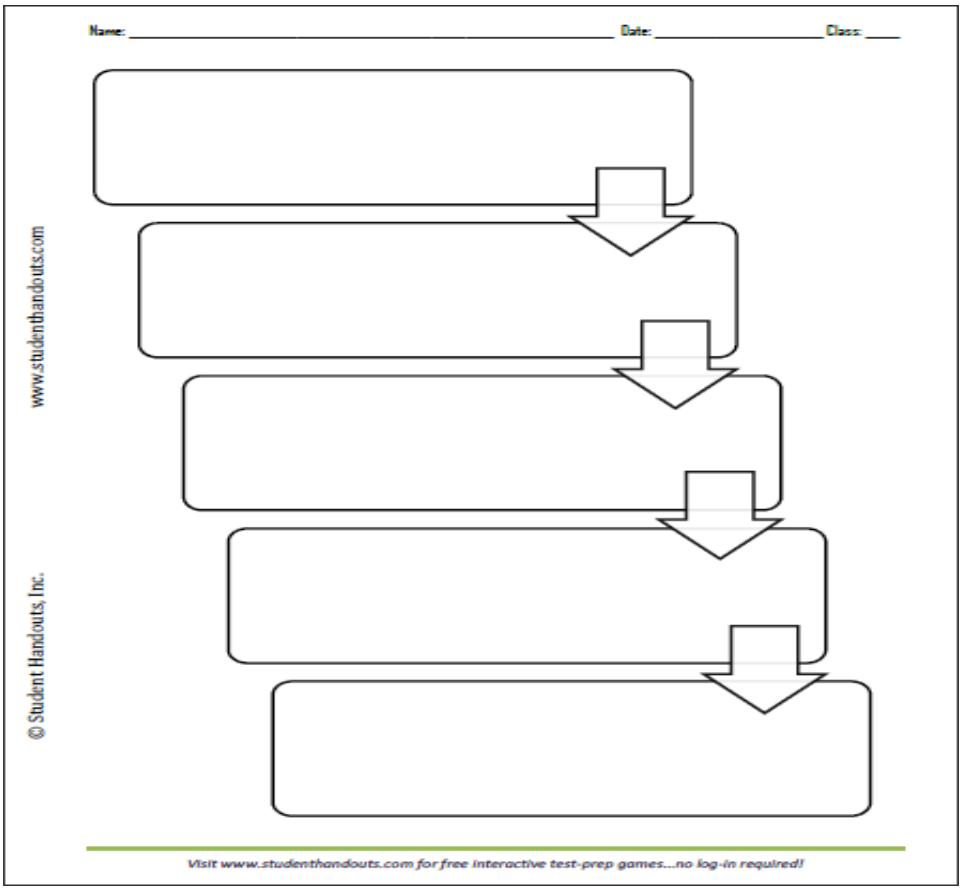


Figure 1.3. Flowchart

Flowchart/Chain of Events is used to order the sequence of events within a text.

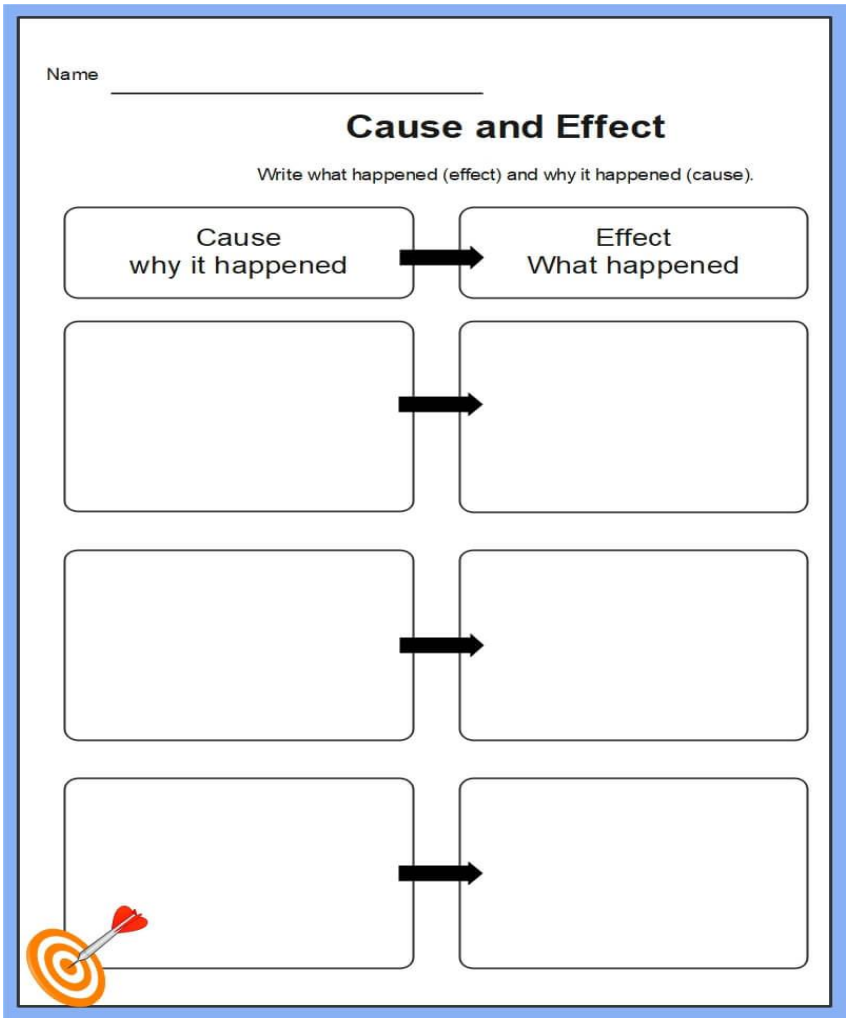


Figure 1.4. Cause and Effect chart

Cause/Effect is used to illustrate the cause and effects told within a text.

Effective comprehension strategy instruction can be accomplished through *cooperative learning*, which involves students working together as partners or in small groups on clearly defined tasks. In such settings, students collaborate to understand texts, assisting one another in learning and applying comprehension strategies (Vovk et al., 2021).

Effective readers employ strategies to enhance their understanding before, during, and after reading.

Before reading, they:

• activate prior knowledge to think about the topic;

• make predictions about the probable meaning of the text;
• preview the text by skimming and scanning to gain an overall sense of its content.

*While reading***,** they:

• monitor comprehension by questioning, reflecting on, and evaluating the ideas and information presented in the text.

*After reading***,** they:

• reflect on the ideas and information encountered;
• relate the text to their own experiences and prior knowledge;
• clarify aspects of the text that remain uncertain;
• extend their understanding in critical and creative ways (Seidenberg, 1989).

In summary, strategy instruction should be integrated into authentic reading tasks and aligned with learners' linguistic and cognitive development. When readers internalize these strategies, they become more autonomous, reflective, and motivated to engage with texts, leading to deeper and more sustained comprehension (Grabe & Stoller, 2019).

Building on the importance of comprehension strategies, it is essential to consider how these strategies can be effectively integrated into classroom practice. A well-structured reading lesson provides a framework through which teachers can guide learners before, during, and after reading activities. The following section discusses the main stages of a reading lesson, along with effective activities and techniques that promote comprehension and learner engagement.

1.3.4. Stages of a Reading Lesson, Activities and Techniques

An effective reading lesson typically follows a three-stage framework – *pre-reading*, *while-reading*, and *post-reading* – each serving distinct yet complementary purposes in developing learners' comprehension skills (Grellet, 2010; Nuttall, 2005). These stages guide students from initial engagement with a text to deeper understanding and reflection, ensuring that reading becomes an active, meaningful, and purposeful process rather than a passive decoding of words.

The *pre-reading stage* aims to prepare learners for comprehension by activating background knowledge, arousing interest, and establishing a clear purpose for reading. During this stage, the teacher seeks to:

• brainstorm ideas;

• introduce and arouse interest in the topic or sub-theme;

• motivate learners by providing a reason for reading;

• offer some linguistic preparation for the text (Pranata, 2019).

Activities at this stage may include discussing the title, predicting content from illustrations or key words, brainstorming related vocabulary, or completing anticipation guides. Such tasks stimulate curiosity and provide a conceptual framework that facilitates understanding of the upcoming text.

The *while-reading stage* is the core of the lesson, during which students interact directly with the text to extract meaning. The aims of this stage are to:

• help students understand the writer's purpose;

• support comprehension of the text's structure and clarify its content (Pranata, 2019).

The focus here is on developing comprehension strategies such as skimming for the main idea, scanning for specific information, making inferences, and identifying the text structure or argument. Teachers guide learners to monitor their comprehension through think-alouds, annotation, and questioning techniques (Grabe & Stoller, 2019). This stage emphasizes reading as an active process of meaning construction, where students confirm or revise their predictions and apply strategies to overcome comprehension difficulties.

The *post-reading stage* consolidates understanding, extends interpretation, and encourages personal response. The aims of this stage are to:

• consolidate and reflect upon what has been learned;

• relate the text to learners' own knowledge, interests, or views (Pranata, 2019).

At this stage, learners analyze, evaluate, and reflect on the content and language of the text, often linking it to their own experiences or opinions. Typical post-reading activities include summarizing, discussing main ideas, completing

graphic organizers, writing responses, or engaging in creative tasks such as role plays or debates. As Grellet (2010) notes, these activities promote the integration of reading with other language skills and help transform comprehension into communicative competence.

Among the techniques that effectively develop reading comprehension skills are the *K-W-L* and *Jigsaw* strategies.

The K-W-L (Know–Want to know–Learned) strategy, introduced by Ogle (1986), is widely recognized as an effective approach to enhancing learners' reading comprehension. This strategy activates learners' prior knowledge, sets clear purposes for reading, and encourages reflection on new information acquired from the text. According to Ogle (1986), the K-W-L chart serves as both an instructional and metacognitive tool that guides students through three distinct stages of learning:

K – What I Know: Before reading, students brainstorm and record what they already know about the topic. This step activates their background knowledge and provides a foundation for linking new information to existing schemata. The teacher facilitates discussion, encouraging learners to share and organize their ideas through semantic mapping, categorization, or brainstorming activities (Cantrell, 1999).

W – What I Want to Know: Students then generate questions about what they want to learn from the text. This stage establishes a *purpose for reading* and stimulates curiosity and prediction. Teachers may guide students to formulate both factual and inferential questions, promoting deeper engagement with the text (Grabe & Stoller, 2019).

***L – What I Learned*:** After reading, students revisit the chart to record what they have learned and discuss how this information relates to their prior knowledge and initial questions. This reflective stage helps students consolidate comprehension, evaluate the accuracy of their predictions, and recognize gaps or misconceptions in their understanding (Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2017).

The K-W-L strategy thus supports reading comprehension by fostering active learning, metacognitive awareness, and student autonomy. It is particularly effective when used with expository or informational texts, as it enables learners to organize

knowledge systematically and monitor their own understanding throughout the reading process (Ogle, 2009; Vacca et al., 2017).

Another effective cooperative reading strategy is the *Jigsaw technique*, originally developed by Aronson (1978) as a means of promoting both comprehension and collaboration among students. This method encourages learners to become "experts" on different parts of a text and to share their understanding with peers, ensuring that every student contributes to and benefits from the group's collective knowledge.

The Jigsaw technique can be implemented through the following steps (Jacobs, Lee, & Ball, 2002; Aronson & Patnoe, 2011):

1. ***Forming home groups*:** The teacher divides the class into small groups (typically four to six students per group), referred to as *home groups*. Each group is responsible for studying a complete text or topic that has been divided into several sections.

2. ***Assigning expert sections:*** Each student in a home group receives a different section of the text or a specific subtopic to read and analyze independently.

3. ***Forming expert groups:*** Students from different home groups who have the same section or topic meet in *expert groups* to discuss, clarify meaning, and ensure full understanding of their assigned material.

4. ***Teaching within home groups:*** After mastering their sections, students return to their home groups and teach their peers what they have learned. In this way, every learner becomes both a "teacher" and a "learner."

5. ***Synthesizing and reflecting:*** Once all members have shared their sections, the home group discusses the text as a whole, completes comprehension tasks, or applies the newly acquired knowledge through follow-up activities such as summaries, presentations, or graphic organizers.

The Jigsaw technique promotes higher-order thinking, accountability, and positive interdependence – key elements of effective cooperative learning (Slavin, 2014). In teaching reading, it helps students develop comprehension by encouraging them to process information deeply, explain it to others, and integrate multiple

perspectives into a coherent understanding of the text. Moreover, it fosters communication skills, teamwork, and learner autonomy, which are essential for success in language learning (Jacobs et al., 2002).

In summary, structuring a reading lesson around the pre-, while-, and post-reading stages provides a coherent pedagogical framework that supports learners before, during, and after reading. This systematic approach encourages active engagement, fosters comprehension, and helps students transfer reading strategies to authentic contexts, thereby enhancing their overall language proficiency (Nuttall, 2005; Grabe & Stoller, 2019).

While a well-structured reading lesson can effectively develop learners' comprehension and engagement, teachers often face various challenges in implementing reading instruction. Understanding these difficulties and exploring practical ways to address them is essential for ensuring successful reading outcomes. The following section examines common challenges in teaching reading and strategies to overcome them.

1.3.5. Challenges in Teaching Reading and Ways to Overcome Them

Teaching reading in a foreign language classroom presents a variety of challenges that can affect learners' comprehension, motivation, and overall language development. These challenges include linguistic difficulties, lack of motivation, limited reading strategies, and insufficient exposure to authentic materials. Understanding these obstacles allows teachers to implement effective interventions and foster successful reading experiences (Grabe & Stoller, 2019; Nuttall, 2005).

One common challenge is *linguistic difficulty*, where unfamiliar vocabulary, complex sentence structures, or culturally specific references hinder comprehension. Students may struggle to decode meaning, leading to frustration and reduced engagement. Teachers can address this issue by pre-teaching key vocabulary, providing glossaries, modeling reading strategies, and selecting texts that match learners' proficiency levels (Grellet, 2010). Additionally, scaffolding techniques

such as guided reading, sentence simplification, and annotation can help learners process complex material without losing sight of overall meaning.

Another significant challenge is *low motivation*. Reading in a foreign language may be perceived as tedious or irrelevant, particularly when texts are overly difficult or uninteresting. To enhance motivation, teachers can offer choice in reading materials, connect texts to learners' personal interests or experiences, and incorporate interactive or collaborative reading activities such as discussions, role plays, or project-based tasks (Day & Bamford, 2002). Extensive reading programs with graded readers are particularly effective in fostering a positive reading habit and intrinsic motivation.

A third challenge involves *insufficient use of reading strategies*. Learners may rely solely on word-for-word decoding, ignoring higher-order processes such as inference, prediction, or summarization. Explicit instruction in comprehension strategies – such as skimming, scanning, questioning, and monitoring understanding–combined with guided practice and think-aloud modeling, helps learners develop metacognitive awareness and become strategic, autonomous readers (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Palincsar & Brown, 1984).

Finally, *limited exposure to authentic texts* can restrict learners' ability to cope with real-world reading demands. Over-reliance on simplified or textbook passages may prevent students from developing fluency and coping strategies for authentic materials such as newspapers, websites, or academic articles. To overcome this, teachers can gradually introduce authentic texts, provide pre-reading support, and integrate extensive reading programs that balance accessibility with challenge (Grabe & Stoller, 2019).

In conclusion, while teaching reading in a foreign language involves multiple challenges, careful planning, strategy instruction, and motivational support can significantly enhance learners' comprehension and engagement. Addressing linguistic barriers, promoting reading strategies, and providing access to both graded and authentic texts enables students to become confident, independent readers

capable of applying their skills in diverse contexts (Nuttall, 2005; Day & Bamford, 2002).

1.3.6. Methodological Preparation of Pre-Service Teachers for Teaching Reading

The ability to teach reading effectively is a fundamental component of English language teaching methodology and an essential competence for pre-service teachers. In the context of contemporary education, where reading serves both as a means of acquiring knowledge and as a tool for developing critical thinking, teacher education programmes must provide future teachers with a sound methodological foundation for teaching this skill (Grabe & Stoller, 2011). Methodological preparation involves not only theoretical understanding of reading processes and comprehension strategies (Nunan, 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 2014) but also the ability to design, implement, and evaluate effective reading lessons that address learners' needs, proficiency levels, and individual learning styles. It equips pre-service teachers with pedagogical tools to foster learners' engagement with texts, promote strategic reading behaviours, and integrate reading instruction into broader communicative language teaching frameworks. Consequently, well-structured methodological training ensures that future English teachers can create learning environments that develop students' linguistic competence, autonomy, and motivation to read in a foreign language (Brown, 2007; Celce-Murcia, 2001).

This section examines the experience of EFL teacher training at Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University, grounded in the PRESETT Curriculum for Methodology in initial EFL teacher education in Ukraine. To highlight how the curriculum translates its objectives into practical classroom application, Unit 3.3, *Teaching Skills – Teaching Reading*, provides a particularly illustrative example of pedagogical implementation.

Unit 3.3, delivered in Year 3 during Semester 5, encompasses a total workload of 30 hours, with 18 contact hours and 12 hours of independent study. This unit is

designed to provide future EFL teachers with a comprehensive understanding of reading instruction, combining theoretical knowledge with practical skills. By the end of the unit, students are expected to understand the curriculum requirements for teaching reading, various approaches appropriate for different stages of learning, the types of tasks suited to different reading purposes, methods for developing reading sub-skills, and effective sequences of reading activities.

In addition to these conceptual insights, the unit aims to develop students' practical competencies. They are expected to critically evaluate common teaching approaches, plan and deliver reading lessons at varying proficiency levels, motivate learners to engage with texts, apply strategies to enhance reading skills, anticipate and address potential learner difficulties, assess reading performance, provide constructive feedback, and integrate reading instruction with listening and speaking to promote holistic language development.

The unit's content is structured across nine sessions. The initial sessions introduce reading as a skill, curriculum requirements, the CEFR framework, traditional teaching techniques, reading purposes, and reading sub-skills and strategies, including intensive and extensive reading, skimming, and scanning. Subsequent sessions focus on strategies for developing reading sub-skills and addressing common learner challenges, such as overreliance on dictionaries, subvocalisation, and finger-pointing. The following sessions explore criteria for selecting and evaluating texts, the importance of authentic materials, and exposure to a variety of genres. Later sessions emphasize reading task and activity sequences, interactive reading approaches, and strategies for motivating learners. The final sessions concentrate on assessing learners' reading skills and integrating reading with listening and speaking to foster a more interconnected and effective language learning experience.

Content delivery is within each session is based on innovative methods of teaching and learning, such as task-based learning, case studies, simulations, group projects, problem-solving activities, discussions, and microteaching. These methods aim to foster active interaction and student engagement in the learning process,

thereby contributing to the development of essential professional skills required for teaching listening to ESL learners. The approach to content delivery can be illustrated through Session 3 of Unit 3.3 Teaching Skills – Teaching Reading (Bevz et al., 2020, 20 – 28).

Topic 3 Reading Subskills and their Classroom Application

Objectives:

- By the end of the session, students will acquire a basic understanding of:
- the main reading sub-skills and differences between them
- K-W-L process of teaching reading

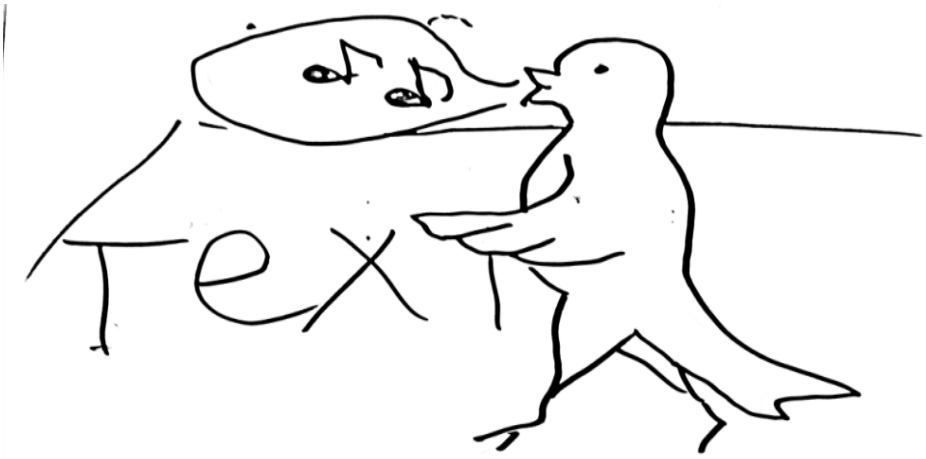
and will be able:

- to apply hem in the classroom

3.1 Lead in

- Recollect what has been learnt in previous session and answer the questions:
  1. What reading subskills were characterized at the previous session ?
  2. What is meant by each of them?
- Match reading subskills with the following metaphors (pictures). Explain your choice.

Picture 1: _____



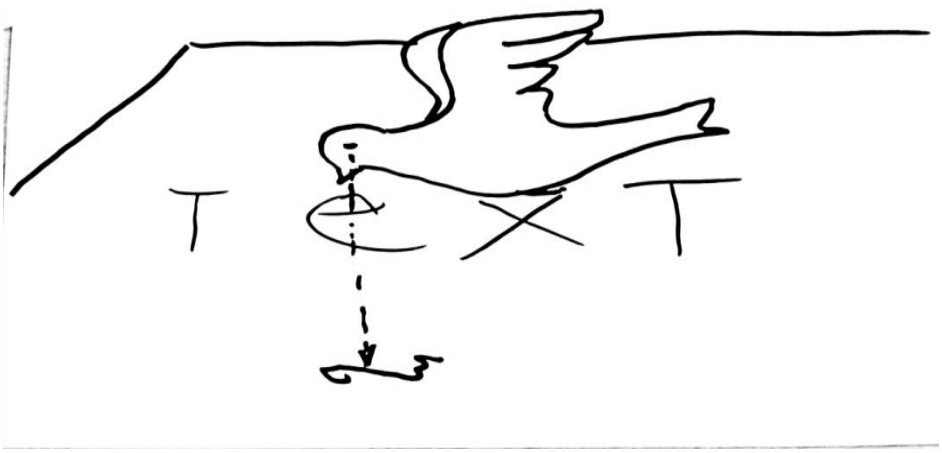
Picture 2: _____



Picture 3: _____



Picture 4: _____



3.2 Spot the differences

- Your teacher will split you into four groups (probably using pictures of four metaphors for group division) and distribute Handouts 1.1 and 1.2

- Fill in the column for the reading subskill you have picked up. Two groups (skimming and scanning; extensive and intensive reading) will work with the same handout.
- After you have finished, make 2 groups together to compare skimming and scanning; extensive and intensive reading.
- Select one or two representatives to present the group ideas of when different reading subskills are needed.

Handout 1.1

i. *Fill in the column for the reading subskill you have picked up (intensive reading or extensive reading)*
ii. *When you have finished, join the group which worked with another subskill (intensive reading or extensive reading)*
iii. *In newly-formed groups, compare intensive reading and extensive reading*
iv. *Present the differences between them*

Intensive Reading vs Extensive Reading	
Intensive Reading	**Extensive Reading**

Handout 1.2

i. *Fill in the column for the reading subskill you have picked up (skimming or scanning)*
ii. *When you have finished, join the group which worked with another subskill (skimming or scanning)*
iii. *In newly-formed groups, compare skimming and scanning*
iv. *Present the differences between them*

Scanning vs Skimming	
Scanning	**Skimming**

- Watch the videos about the differences between these subskills

  Video 1. Intensive and Extensive Reading:

  https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FZn0WXsSuEw

  Video 2. Skim and Scan:

  https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1ZHrBMtBI_k

- Check whether you mentioned everything
- In your groups, add some more differences to the list developed by you

3.3 How we read

- **You are going to find out how people read, by reading about six strategies**
- **Before reading, complete K-W-L Chart in order to activate your schemata about the subject and predict what's in the text:**

  1. Write down three things you already know about how we read (K column)

  2. Write down three questions you have about how we read (W column)

This will help you to tune into the topic and understand the text more easily.

K-W-L Chart

Topic: How we Read

K **What I Know**	**W** **What I Want to Know**	**L** **What I Learned**
1. **2.** **3.**	**1.** **2.** **3.**	

- **After you have read the text, you will refer back to this chart to see whether the things you already know about were included and whether the questions you have were answered.**
- **Working in pairs or small groups, put the parts of the text in the right order. The first letter is G and the last letter is C**

A To illustrate this, let's imagine that you need to find out when a certain film starts at the cinema - you might look in a newspaper. First you skim the pages, looking at headlines and perhaps pictures and familiar type settings that help you to locate the cinema advertisements. You read in this way to get the gist of what you are seeing, i.e. the overall picture, rather than specific details.
B However, sometimes you read more intensively. Let's take a film review as an example. As cinema tickets are expensive and you can only go to the movies once in a blue moon, you read the review very thoroughly. You take more time and read it from start to finish. You try to understand the reviewer's opinion completely, even reading between the lines in order to judge whether you can trust her/his opinion about the film.
C Finally as you were reading the review, you came across the word 'indicted'. Although you didn't know what this word meant, you didn't stop and ponder it. You didn't reach for a dictionary to help you. You continued reading. The next couple of sentences gave you clues about the meaning of indicted. Apparently, this thing happened in a court of law and resulted in the main character going to prison. So you guessed it meant something like: being found guilty. That's all you needed to understand the message, so you continued reading. This strategy of guessing meaning of unknown words from context is how we learn a lot of the vocabulary in our mother tongue. While most people use the above six reading strategies in their mother tongue automatically in adulthood, it seems that not many transfer the same skills to another language they are learning. Therefore, teachers should provide tasks that encourage their learners to practise these strategies when reading in English.
D Let's stay with the example of a film review. Before you started reading it, you probably predicted a few things to yourself, either consciously or automatically. You read the title, which may have given you a clue about the reviewer's opinion. You looked at the still from the movie and the accompanying caption, which confirmed your belief that the film was a thriller. You already knew who the main

actors were, so you expected to read something about them. You've read reviews before, so you knew that the reviewer would probably say what s/he enjoyed about the film, and what s/he didn't like. This strategy of predicting, using your general knowledge and experience of the world (or schemata), helped you to tune in to the review more quickly and understand the writer more easily.
E When you find the right page, you scan the advertisements looking for the title of the film you want to see. When you find the relevant advertisement, you scan it for numbers that represent the time. You don't read other information in that advert, but only the specific information you are looking for.
F These three different ways of getting meaning from a text, called skimming, scanning and reading intensively, serve different purposes. Below are three more strategies that we use to help us interpret the writer's meaning when we read.
G When we read in our mother tongue, we may not always read every line carefully. On the other hand, sometimes we scrutinise every single word, and even try to imagine what the writer was thinking as well as writing, in order to fully understand the message. We use these different reading strategies because we have different reasons for reading.
H Another strategy you employed was knowledge of cohesive devices, or how ideas are linked together in a written text. For example, having read about what the reviewer enjoyed in the film, you came across the phrase 'On the other hand ...' This signalled to you that next you would read about the things s/he didn't like. Such devices help the reader to follow the relationship between the writer's ideas. They are the glue, which holds the whole text together.

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- **Fill in the table with your answers**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
G							**C**

- Check the answers with the key
- **Reflect on how we read by answering the questions:**
  1. ***Which reading strategies were mentioned in the text?***
  2. ***Which reading strategies did you use when you re-ordered the text?***
  3. ***Would you prefer to do the re-ordering activity alone, with a partner or in a group? Why?***
  4. ***Why was the text cut in those particular places? Why wasn't it simply cut after each paragraph?***

Reflection

- **Refer back to K-W-L Chart.**
- **Look at "K" column (What I Know) to see whether the things you already know about were included and whether the questions you have were answered.**
- Look for answers to the questions listed in the "W" column (What I Want to Know)
- Write your answers in the "L" column (What I Learned) along with anything else you learnt.

Follow up task

- Watch the video "KWL" to develop deeper understanding of KWL process: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nAr7F7iDYIg

Session 3 of Unit 3.3 (*Teaching Skills – Teaching Reading*, Bevz et al., 2020) applies a constructivist approach by engaging students in active, student-centered learning. Learners explore reading subskills through collaborative tasks, comparing skimming, scanning, intensive, and extensive reading while connecting new concepts to prior knowledge. The K-W-L chart guides inquiry, reflection, and knowledge construction, while text reordering and strategy-based exercises promote experimentation and application. Multimedia resources provide scaffolding, supporting self-directed exploration and deeper understanding. Through discussion,

presentation, and reflection, students co-construct knowledge, develop critical thinking, and acquire practical skills for teaching reading in ESL contexts.

All sessions in the unit are structured in a similar way, following the constructivist principles demonstrated in Session 3, and integrate student-centered activities with opportunities for reflection, collaboration, and practical application. Learners connect new knowledge to prior experiences and actively engage with texts and tasks to co-construct understanding. Guided exercises, multimedia resources, and handouts provide scaffolding while supporting self-directed exploration. This approach develops both specific teaching skills and broader competencies such as critical thinking, collaboration, and independent learning. Overall, the unit equips pre-service teachers to effectively facilitate reading and listening lessons in ESL classrooms.

The assessment task on Unit 3.3 *Teaching Skills – Teaching Reading* is designed to enable students to demonstrate their ability to plan, implement, and evaluate a reading lesson in accordance with methodological principles of teaching receptive skills. To accomplish this, each student selects a school class with which they are familiar and provides a concise yet informative profile of the learners. The profile should include such parameters as age, proficiency level, identified needs in the development of reading skills, and the relevance of these needs to the school curriculum.

Following the contextual analysis, the student selects a text which is pedagogically appropriate for the chosen group. The justification for this selection must include the topic and content area of the text, its linguistic level, and its potential for the development of specific reading skills. A subsequent stage involves an analytical review of the text in order to predict possible learning difficulties the target learners may encounter. These may arise from factors related to content, structure, grammatical complexity, lexical density, sentence patterns, or culturally specific references.

On the basis of this analysis, the student develops a structured sequence of pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities sufficient for use within a single

lesson framework. These activities should aim to facilitate comprehension and address the previously anticipated linguistic and cognitive challenges. All necessary supporting materials, including handouts, are to be prepared for classroom implementation.

The designed materials are then piloted in the selected school class, allowing the student to observe the effectiveness of the chosen text and instructional procedures in authentic classroom conditions. Feedback from the cooperating teacher and from learners constitutes an essential component of the evaluation process, providing evidence of the lesson's pedagogical appropriateness and practical value.

The assignment concludes with the preparation of a concise reflective commentary (up to 150 words) in which the student analyses personal learning outcomes, identifies insights gained from the design and implementation process, and considers implications for future professional practice.

Overall, the methodological preparation of pre-service teachers for teaching reading within the PRESETT Curriculum at Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University exemplifies a balanced integration of theory and practice. Through a structured progression of conceptual study, task-based learning, and reflective practice, future teachers develop the professional competences necessary to design and deliver effective reading instruction. The emphasis on contextual analysis, principled text selection, task sequencing, and reflective evaluation ensures that methodological training moves beyond theoretical understanding toward informed pedagogical action. Consequently, this experience not only strengthens pre-service students' methodological literacy but also fosters their capacity for critical reflection, adaptability, and professional growth – qualities essential for effective English language teaching in contemporary educational contexts.

Conclusions

The chapter has explored the theoretical and methodological aspects of teaching receptive skills – listening and reading – as fundamental components of foreign language proficiency. It has highlighted that both skills share a common goal:

enabling learners to comprehend and interpret spoken and written discourse effectively. However, each skill involves distinct cognitive and pedagogical processes that require careful instructional design.

In *Section 1.2*, attention was given to the nature of effective listening, emphasizing that listening is an active, purposeful process of constructing meaning rather than passive reception of sounds. The discussion of skill development underscored the importance of exposing learners to varied listening input, applying a three-stage lesson structure (pre-, while-, and post-listening), and integrating interactive activities that mirror real-life communication. The section also stressed the need for pre-service teachers to acquire methodological competence in selecting materials, designing tasks, and applying strategies that foster learners' listening comprehension.

Section 1.3 addressed reading as a complex receptive skill that facilitates language acquisition and contributes to the development of productive abilities. The analysis of reading types and comprehension strategies demonstrated that effective reading instruction should consider learners' purposes, text complexity, and proficiency levels. The section outlined a structured approach to reading lessons, highlighting the pedagogical value of pre-, while-, and post-reading stages supported by suitable techniques. Furthermore, it identified common challenges in teaching reading – such as limited vocabulary, lack of motivation, and insufficient strategy use – and suggested ways to overcome them. Finally, it emphasized the role of teacher education programmes in preparing future teachers to design engaging, strategy-oriented reading lessons aligned with curriculum goals.

Overall, the chapter has shown that effective teaching of receptive skills requires a balanced combination of theoretical understanding and practical methodology. By mastering the principles of listening and reading instruction, pre-service teachers become better equipped to create communicative, learner-centred classrooms that support students in developing comprehensive language competence and achieving academic and real-world success.

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CHAPTER 2. FUNDAMENTALS OF DEVELOPING PRODUCTIVE SKILLS IN THE EFL METHODOLOGY COURSE

Section 2.1. Introduction

Students at the Faculty of Foreign Languages, Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University who are trained to gain an educational qualification Bachelor of secondary education in the subject speciality 'Secondary education (English Language and World Literature)', obligatory take the course in Foreign Language Teaching Methodology. Their Pre-Service Teacher Training (PRESETT) curriculum at Bachelor's level (Bevz, O., Gembaruk, A., Goncharova, O., Zabolotnaa, O. et.al., 2020) is the result of the joint project *New Generation School Teacher* initiated by British Council Ukraine and the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine (2013-2019). The Core Curriculum's main objective has been to raise standards of English teaching in schools and universities. According to its key design principles, the methodology programme is placed at the core of language teacher education. The curriculum is designed in English and is taught through the medium of English, enabling the trainee teachers to have more possibilities to practise English as the contact with the target language is mainly limited to the classroom in the Ukrainian context.

The core curriculum is penetrated by activities and innovative learning and teaching approaches aimed at stirring a need in trainee teachers to become reflective practitioners. The entire training in the Methodology Course is organised according to the Experiential learning model, which is an alternative to more traditional learning models, favouring those learners with a good memory. Experiential learning theory supports the idea of learning based on a more holistic approach. It considers the role that all of a learner's experiences play in their learning, including emotions, cognition and environmental factors. It advocates for deep learning rather than surface learning. Deep learning typically involves learning about a subject using various methods, including reading, experimenting, role-playing, and discussing.

These methods help trainee teachers to truly understand what they're learning by having them apply and discuss theories rather than just memorising them. Learning from experience involves a process of resolving conflict between contradictory ideas, known as 'cognitive conflict,' leading trainee teachers to consider possible changes in old habits, question old ideas, and explore new ways of thinking. In particular, all face-to-face sessions within each Unit are designed to follow the four main stages of David Kolb's experiential learning cycle (Kolb, 1984): concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation. The cycle begins with a learner having a concrete experience, either by learning something new or experiencing something familiar in a new way. The next stage of the cycle is very important, and it's all about reflection. After having a concrete experience, the learner spends some time thinking about what happened, or observing others doing the same thing and reflecting on what's occurring. The next stage involves making sense of the experience and reflecting on it. It may require a trainee teacher to consider next steps for improvement, develop a plan of action, or consult literature or an expert who can offer valuable insights. It allows forming new ideas or modifying existing abstract ideas, enabling a learner to take action afterwards. The last stage involves acting, indeed, based on previous reflections and thoughts. At this stage, the learner applies what they have learnt from the initial experience and assesses whether any modifications are needed when they try the experience again. It is the time for an opportunity to test new ideas.

The curriculum comprises six modules, each representing a broad area of methodology, and each module contains several units that cover essential specialist topics for English teachers in training. Each module is designed to be taught for a semester, starting in Semester 3. The six modules are arranged to reflect the pathway that trainee teachers embark on from being language learners to becoming language teachers by the end of the programme. Thus, the more basic content is covered in early modules in Semesters 3 and 4, and more challenging topics follow later.

Language skills – teaching listening, speaking, reading and writing – are taught in Semester 5. Productive skills are essential for expressing ideas and constructing

meaning in communication. They play a central role in developing communicative competence by enabling learners to actively participate in real-life interactions. Productive skills are the language abilities that involve producing language rather than receiving it. They include speaking – the oral expression of thoughts, feelings, and information and writing – the written articulation of ideas, arguments, and narratives. Krashen (2009), in his second language acquisition theory, views speaking and writing skills as the outputs of language and argues that the development of these two skills is a lengthy process. These contrast with receptive skills – listening and reading – which focus on understanding language input. With speaking and writing skills in the target language, learners are engaged in production and interaction activities. With their oral and written production skills, language learners can make short statements, create anecdotes, prepare formal or informal presentations, engage in academic production activities, and express themselves professionally (CEFR, 2020). The learner is expected to be fluent and clear in all these tasks. All these production skills are not acquired easily in the natural operating process of language. For a language learner to successfully engage in production and interaction activities in the target language, a period of time and mastery of that language are required.

The foundations of developing productive skills, specifically speaking (Section 2.2) and writing (Section 2.3), are considered separately in the following sections.

Section 2.2. Basics of Teaching Speaking

Of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know a language are referred to as ‘speakers’ of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing, and many, if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak. Speaking skills refer to the ability to convey information verbally in a way that the listener can understand. Speaking skills are defined as the skills which allow

us to communicate effectively. While speaking, we expect our learners to demonstrate comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency.

The content of the Teaching Speaking Unit is shaped and defined by national documents regulating the practice of foreign language education in Ukraine, as well as global trends in English language teaching. Therefore, *the objectives of Unit Language Skills – Teaching Speaking* are formulated as follows.

By the end of the unit, students will be aware of:

• curriculum requirements for teaching speaking

• spoken production and spoken interaction, their relevance to learners' communicative needs at different language proficiency levels

• speaking activity sequences

and will be able to:

• evaluate, select and adapt tasks and activities to facilitate speaking

• plan a sequence of activities that incorporate the development of speaking skills

• assess learners' speaking skills and give feedback to learners on their achievements

• integrate listening and speaking skills.

Curriculum requirements for teaching speaking for different purposes

The overarching aim for English in the national curriculum is to promote high standards of language and literacy by equipping learners with a strong command of the spoken and written word, and to develop their love of literature through widespread reading for enjoyment.

The national curriculum for English reflects the importance of spoken language in learners' development across the whole curriculum – cognitively, socially and linguistically. Spoken language underpins the development of reading and writing. The quality and variety of language that learners hear and speak are vital for developing their vocabulary and grammar, and their understanding for reading and writing. Teachers should therefore ensure the continual development of pupils' confidence and competence in spoken language and listening skills. Pupils should

develop the capacity to explain their understanding of books and other reading materials, and to prepare their ideas before writing. They must be assisted in making their thinking clear to themselves as well as to others, and teachers should ensure that pupils build secure foundations by using discussion to probe and remedy their misconceptions. Pupils should also be taught to understand and use the conventions for discussion and debate.

The national curriculum has been developed with reference to the CEFR (2020, p. 11), which "is one of the best-known and most used Council of Europe policy instruments". It provides a specific framework and offers suggestions for language learners, language teachers, and those who prepare foreign/second language teaching coursebooks.

More specifically, CEFR (2020, p. 28) aims to:

• promote and facilitate co-operation among educational institutions in different countries;

• provide a sound basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications;

• assist learners, teachers, course designers, examining bodies and educational administrators to situate and coordinate their efforts.

Thus, the CEFR serves as the basis for the foreign/second language teaching process, which involves developing education programs that incorporate four language skills. This process includes developing the instructional materials for these programs, preparing textbooks, and creating exams. The CEFR comprehensively determines what learners have to learn and do to meet their communicative needs in the target language. The CEFR also clarifies the knowledge and skills learners need to develop in order to be successful in the communicative and declarative dimensions of language, as well as the skills expected to be acquired upon completion of the learning process. The CEFR aims to achieve all these by also incorporating the cultural dimension of the language into the process.

Communicative language activities and strategies in the CEFR, updated in 2020, are detailed under the categories of 'Reception', 'Production', 'Interaction', and 'Mediation'. With respect to speaking and writing skills, CEFR has two basic

categories: ‘production’ and ‘interaction’ skills. They are also divided into “oral production/written production” and “oral interaction/written interaction” separately. Production activities are categorised into two main types: oral production and written production. Oral production includes six subcategories as learning outcomes; these are ‘overall oral production’, ‘sustained monologue: describing experience’, ‘sustained monologue: giving information’, ‘sustained monologue: putting a case’, ‘public announcements’, and ‘addressing audiences’. On the other hand, written production involves three subcategories as learning outcomes; these are ‘overall written production’, ‘creative writing’, and ‘reports and essays’ (CEFR, 2020, p. 61). (see 2020 CEFR Companion Volume for details on the competences under the categories). As for interaction activities, they are categorised into three types: oral interaction, written interaction, and online interaction. Under the category of oral interaction, there are ten subcategories; namely, ‘overall interaction’, ‘understanding an interlocutor’, ‘conversation’, ‘informal discussion (with friends)’, ‘formal discussion (meetings)’, ‘goal-oriented co-operation’, ‘obtaining goods and services’, ‘information exchange’, ‘interviewing and being interviewed’, ‘using telecommunications’. There are ‘overall written interaction’, ‘correspondence’, and ‘notes, messages and forms’ under the category of written interaction. The third category, which is online interaction, has two subcategories: ‘online conversation and discussion’ and ‘goal-oriented online transactions and collaboration’. (CEFR, 2020, p. 71). (see 2020 CEFR Companion Volume for details on the competences under the categories).

Additionally, the CEFR defines the language proficiency levels required to measure learners’ achievements at every stage of the learning process. The description of what learners can do in terms of speaking production and speaking interaction is given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1.

Descriptors of spoken production and interaction according to levels for grading an individual's language proficiency

INTERACTION		**PRODUCTION**
Has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms with awareness of connotative levels of meaning. Can convey finer shades of meaning precisely by using, with reasonable accuracy, a wide range of modification devices. Can backtrack and restructure around a difficulty so smoothly the interlocutor is hardly aware of it.	**C2**	Can produce clear, smoothly flowing well-structured speech with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.
Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions. There is little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies; only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language. Can use the language fluently, accurately and effectively on a wide range of general, academic, vocational or leisure topics, marking clearly the relationships between ideas. Can communicate spontaneously with good grammatical control without much sign of having to restrict what he/she wants to say, adopting a level of formality appropriate to the circumstances.	**C1**	Can give clear, detailed descriptions and presentations on complex subjects, integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion. Can give clear, systematically developed descriptions and presentations, with appropriate highlighting of significant points, and relevant supporting detail.

Table 2.1. (Continued)

Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction, and sustained relationships with native speakers quite possible without imposing strain on either party. Can highlight the personal significance of events and experiences, account for and sustain views clearly by providing relevant explanations and arguments. Can communicate with some confidence on familiar routine and non-routine matters related to his/her interests and professional field. Can exchange, check and confirm information, deal with less routine situations and explain why something is a problem. Can express thoughts on more abstract, cultural topics such as films, books, music etc.	**B2**	Can give clear, detailed descriptions and presentations on a wide range of subjects related to his/her field of interest, expanding and supporting ideas with points and relevant examples.
Can exploit a wide range of simple language to deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling. Can enter unprepared into conversation on familiar topics, express personal opinions and exchange information on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events). Can interact with reasonable ease in structured situations and brief conversations, provided the other person provides assistance if necessary. Can manage simple, routine exchanges without undue effort; can ask and answer questions and exchange ideas and information on familiar topics in predictable everyday situations.	**B1**	Can reasonably fluently sustain a straightforward description of one of a variety of subjects within his/her field of interest, presenting it as a linear sequence of points.

Table 2.1. (Continued)

Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters related to work and free time. Can handle very short social exchanges but is rarely able to understand enough to keep the conversation going on his/her own accord.	**A2**	Can give a simple description or presentation of people, living or working conditions, daily routines, likes/dislikes, etc., as a short series of simple phrases and sentences linked into a list.
Can interact in a simple way, but communication is totally dependent on repetition at a slower rate of speech, rephrasing and repair. Can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.	**A1**	Can produce simple, mainly isolated phrases about people and places.

By the end of the 11th grade of secondary school, students reach level B1; in specialised schools with in-depth language learning, they reach level B2. At the primary school level, this corresponds to A1. After the 9th grade, it is A2 for secondary schools and B1 for specialised classes.

The National Curriculum requires English language teachers to employ the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach. Littlewood (2007) reported that ESL/EFL countries have shifted their language teaching policies to CLT since the 1990s, aiming to help their learners communicate effectively in English. The shift to CLT was initiated by scholars' evaluations that linguistic structure-centred methods were not enabling learners to use the target language for communication (Desai, 2015).

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), an approach to language teaching, was introduced to the field of second/foreign language teaching in the 1970s due to the inadequacy of existing methods in enabling learners to communicate in the target language (Desai, 2015). Learners in linguistic structure-centred methods were found

to be ineffective in communicating in the target language, although they were able to read and write sentences (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). In the Communicative Approach, language is viewed as a means of communication (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Hence, the goal of language teaching is to achieve communicative competence. Communicative competence refers to the knowledge and skills of individuals to use the language for diverse purposes and functions (Richards & Rodgers, 2014), which requires know-how in four areas: "grammatical competence", "sociolinguistic competence", "discourse competence", and "strategic competence" (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 4). In CLT, as the view of language and the goal of teaching reveal, communication is the basic feature of the instructional process. Hence, the effectiveness of the classroom activities, the teacher's and learners' roles, and student-teacher interaction are assessed according to how much they promote communication. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011), for example, described the roles of the teacher in the CLT classroom as facilitating communication while the learners are communicators. There are underlying principles of Communicative Language Teaching that the teachers should be aware of to support their students' language development. Richards and Rodgers (2014, p. 105), for example, listed five principles of CLT:

- Learners learn a language through using it to communicate.
- Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities.
- Fluency is an important dimension of communication.
- Communication involves the integration of different language skills.
- Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.

Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) also mentioned the basic principles of CLT. These are:

- the use of the target language as a vehicle for communication, emphasising communication over the mastery of forms,

- the use and practice of authentic language, consideration of errors as inevitable and the manifestation of the learners' development,
- use of classroom activities that promote interaction, and judicious use of the native language of the learners.

Similarly, Nunan (1991, p. 279) outlined the following five characteristics of CLT:

- An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
- The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
- The provision of opportunities for learners to focus not only on language but also on the learning process itself.
- An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as an important contributing element to classroom learning.

Though the principles are stated by different educators, they share the same basic elements. Particularly, communication is at the centre of their discussion of the principles and characteristics of CLT. This matched with how CLT views a language as a means of communication, and the goal of teaching a language as achieving communicative competence.

So, the goal of language teaching in CLT is developing communicative competence that comprises aspects like: the capability to use a language for a variety of purposes, the ability to adapt a language to the situation, the skill to make and comprehend a variety of texts, and the know-how to preserve conversations (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Nunan, 1991; Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

2.2.1. The Challenges of Teaching Speaking in the EFL Context

The teaching and learning of speaking are an essential part of English language instruction, as the mastery of speaking skills is a priority for many language learners through which they evaluate their success in language learning and the effectiveness of English courses (Richards, 2006). One reason may be the distinctive advantages

that the ability to speak English provides; for example, speaking ability is one of the criteria that many companies and organisations use when looking for employees. Though the ability to speak skilfully offers numerous advantages, speaking is the most demanding of all the four language skills in a foreign language context (Jung, 1995; Rahimi & Quraishi, 2019). It is a difficult skill; even those who have been studying English for many years find it difficult to speak appropriately and understandably (Bueno et al., 2006). Speaking is challenging because it involves a set of physical and mental activities that extend beyond just knowing the grammar and semantics of the language (Jung, 1995; Shumin, 1997). According to Levelt (1995), for example, the cognitive process of speaking involves three interacting and overlapping stages (conceptualization, formulation, and articulation) and one ever-present process (self-monitoring) (as cited in Goh & Burns, 2012).

The challenges EFL learners encounter in mastering speaking are twofold: the inherent difficulty of the skill itself and contextual factors. Obviously, the lack of a speaking community poses a major problem as it makes the classroom the only place where the learners learn and practice the language.

Ur (2012) states some of the problems in getting learners to talk in the classroom:

1. Inhibition. Unlike reading, writing and listening activities, speaking requires some degree of real-time exposure to an audience. Learners are often inhibited about trying to say things in a foreign language in the classroom: worried about making mistakes, fearful of criticism or losing face, or simply shy of the attention that their speech attracts.

2. Nothing to say. Even if they are not inhibited, you often hear learners complain that they cannot think of anything to say: they have no motive to express themselves beyond the guilty feeling that they should be speaking.

3. Low or uneven participation. Only one participant can speak at a time if they are to be heard, and in a large group, this means that each one will have very little talking time. This problem is compounded by the tendency of some learners to dominate, while others speak very little or not at all.

4. Mother-tongue use. In classes where all, or a number of, the learners share the same mother tongue, they may tend to use it: because it is easier, because it feels unnatural to speak to one another in a foreign language, and because they feel less 'exposed' if they are speaking their mother tongue. If they are talking in small groups, it can be quite difficult to get some classes – particularly the less disciplined or motivated ones – to keep to the target language.

Once the problems are identified, it is essential to address and overcome them. A teacher can solve some of the problems by:

1. Using group work. This increases the sheer amount of learner talk that occurs within a limited period and also lowers the inhibitions of learners who are unwilling to speak in front of the full class. It is true that group work means the teacher cannot supervise all learner speech, so that not all utterances will be correct, and learners may occasionally slip into their native language; nevertheless, even taking into consideration occasional mistakes and mother-tongue use, the amount of time remaining for positive, useful oral practice is still likely to be far more than in the full-class set-up.

2. Basing the activity on easy language. In general, the level of language required for a discussion should be lower than that used in intensive language-learning activities in the same class; it should be easily recalled and produced by the participants, allowing them to speak fluently with minimal hesitation. It is a good idea to teach or review essential vocabulary before the activity starts.

3. Making a careful choice of topic and task to stimulate interest. On the whole, the clearer the purpose of the discussion, the more motivated participants will be.

4. Giving some instruction or training in discussion skills. If the task involves group discussion, include instructions about participation when introducing it. For example, instruct learners to ensure that everyone in the group contributes to the discussion and appoint a chairperson for each group to regulate participation.

5. Keeping students speaking the target language. You might appoint one of the group members as a monitor, whose job it is to remind participants to use the target language, and perhaps report later to the teacher on how well the group

managed to adhere to it. Even if there is no actual penalty attached, the very awareness that someone is monitoring such lapses helps participants to be more careful.

Surely, the best way to keep students speaking the target language is for teachers to be present themselves as much as possible, reminding them and modelling the language. The teachers' roles during speaking activities are considered later.

2.2.2. Approaches to Teaching Speaking

In an EFL context, mastery of speaking is greatly dependent on the approaches to teaching speaking as the classroom is the decisive place where students learn and practice the language. Thus, different approaches to teaching speaking have been adopted and reported. Broadly, Talley (2014) classified approaches to teaching speaking into two categories: explicit and implicit. In the explicit approach, the teachers mainly focus on teaching the common expressions and require their students to study and memorize them. The teachers also teach the learners what should and should not be said. The implicit approach, on the other hand, focuses on facilitating situations for the learners to practice the language. Predominantly, the approaches to teaching speaking are categorized into two main types: direct approach and indirect approach. The direct approach, also known as a controlled approach, to teaching speaking, focuses on the practice and development of isolated language forms (Goh & Burns, 2012). The practice involves a reproduction of predetermined language through drills, pattern practice, and structure manipulation with the emphasis on accuracy. An indirect approach to teaching speaking, on the other hand, focuses on the creation of conditions for oral interaction to enable learners to engage in communicative activities (Goh & Burns, 2012; Richards, 2008). In the indirect approach, fluency is the primary concern, and learners are exposed to authentic and functional language use. Thus, the practice involves real-life communicative activities such as discussion, information gaps, role-plays, simulation, and so on (Burns, 1998). This approach is also known as the transfer approach to teaching

speaking due to the assumption that learners develop speaking skills by communicating with each other which can be later transferred to a real-life situation. As can be understood from the above discussion, the indirect approach is the representation of CLT in teaching speaking skills. Exclusive reliance on one of the approaches to teaching speaking is disadvantageous as both approaches have their limitations (Goh & Burns, 2012). Thornbury and Slade (2006) for example, stated that the direct approach focuses on the component of the language while the indirect approach focuses on the context of use. The focus on one aspect of teaching the skill and neglecting the other forces the learners to be good at the area of focus and weaker on the neglected one. Face-to-face communication is neglected in the direct approach, and the development of accuracy is neglected in the indirect approach. Hence, the direct approach's focus on the discrete element of language and structural accuracy hinders the development of oral skills necessary for everyday communication. On the other hand, the indirect approach's focus on fluency hinders the development of accuracy. Consequently, an approach to teaching speaking that combines the features of the two approaches is considered to be the solution. Accordingly, Thornbury (2006) introduced a general approach to teaching speaking that consists of three cyclic stages: awareness-raising, appropriation, and autonomy. Awareness-raising is the first stage during which the learners identify their gaps and familiarize themselves with the knowledge designed to address the gap. Appropriation is the second stage at which the learners integrate the new knowledge into the existing one. At this stage, learners progress from other-regulated practices to self-regulated ones. Autonomy is the final stage during which learners use the newly constructed knowledge in a real-life situation. Richards (2008) on the other hand suggested that the functions of speaking determine the teaching approach. Accordingly, each of the speech activities requires different approaches to teaching speaking. He enumerated the skills required for each speech activity. Talk as interaction, for example, involves the following skills: opening and closing conversation, choosing topics, making small-talk, joking, recounting personal incidents and experiences, turn-taking, using adjacency-pairs, interrupting, reacting

to others, and using an appropriate style of speaking. Hence, the approach to teaching speaking should aim at helping students master these micro-skills if developing students' interactional skills is a focus. Similarly, the two speech activities involve different micro-skills that determine the approach to teaching.

Task-Based Instruction is described as the extension of CLT (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

2.2.3. Strategies and Techniques for Developing Learners' Speaking Skills

The following are a few of the best tips to develop English speaking skills. Following these strategies is very helpful for speaking English fluently. Trainee teachers are encouraged to use them for the development of their own speaking skills as well as for implementing these strategies in their future teaching.

1. Look for Native English speakers:

It may be hard, but it actually works. The most effective way to improve your English skills is by conversing with native speakers of the English language. You can use Skype or any other mode of communication to talk to them.

2. Listen to English Music:

Even if you are perfect in speaking technical English, you may still not be speaking it in a way that it should be. There is emphasis required on certain specific sentences; some may need humour, and more. So, try to understand this and incorporate it into your English-speaking process.

3. Be slow and clear:

If you want others to understand you completely, then you must make a habit of speaking slowly. While speaking, it is essential that you are clear on what you are communicating to others. Hence, to ensure that you don't make a mistake while speaking, you need to develop a slow, yet not too slow, speaking pace.

4. Record your voice or speak out loudly:

Although we talk with others a lot, we are actually not listening to our own voice and the clarity of our speech. So, if possible, then speak out loud what you are

communicating to others in English. You can even record your conversation in the English language. This will help you to identify your mistakes, and you will then be able to combat them.

5. Try communicating in English at home:

This is the simplest way to effectively speak in the English language. Stick to English as the primary mode of communication at home and make it a habit to speak it 24/7. Whether you are at your dining table or relaxing on your couch, make sure each and every word you speak is in English only.

6. Make use of Google Translation:

Whenever you are unclear about the pronunciation of a specific word, you can then look up its pronunciation on Google Translate to know its accurate pronunciation. You can click the audio button after entering the word.

7. Develop a habit of learning and speaking a new word every day:

Make sure you read every day, and when you come across a new word, look it up in the dictionary, and then try to incorporate it into your speaking process. This will not only enhance your vocabulary but will also boost your confidence in speaking this amazing language.

8. Watch English Films:

If you want to learn to communicate in English in an interesting manner, then watching English films, channels, or shows is a great way to do this. This will enhance your overall communication in the language and help you develop expertise in the subject.

9. Go for an online debate or group discussion in this language:

Search for areas where online debates and discussions on various topics is conducted in this language. You can participate in such conversations and communicate with others in English. Soon you will develop great confidence in speaking this language, and this way you can become an online debater as well.

10. Respond to others about what you are saying:

You can easily develop a clue of what other people are thinking of you by looking at their body language. So, if you are positive about an individual, then surely

respond to it. If someone is making fun of you, then you should also respond to him/her in the same manner.

11. Keep Experimenting with the English Language:

If you have learned a couple of new phrases in this language, then the next task is to employ them in your speaking on a regular basis. If you are communicating with native speakers, then they will surely correct you. This will help you avoid making mistakes again, and you will speak correct phrases the next time you communicate with others.

12. Try learning new sentences and not only words:

In order to improve your English-speaking skills, you should not only learn new words but also learn new sentences. This will make it much easier for you to memorise new words and sentences. It will also assist you in utilising new sentences in correct form. As it happens, most individuals are aware of new words, but in reality, don't know how to use them.

13. Produce and Practice:

It might be possible that you are completely aware of speaking in this language, but actually, you must keep on learning, practising and producing new words and sentences. It will enhance your overall grasp of this language.

14. Stay relaxed while you speak:

This is the case with most individuals who become too conscious or feel too nervous while speaking in this language. This tends to make them make mistakes even if they are well-versed in this language. So, if you want to be fluent while speaking, then try speaking in a relaxed and comfortable tone.

15. Take criticism as a challenge:

Last but not least, if others criticise you for speaking incorrect English, then don't take it personally. Rather, take it as a challenge to overcome and strive to improve your skills even further. Soon, there will be a day when you will beat that person out with your high English-speaking levels.

Scaffolding emergent language is another way to develop learners' speaking skills, which is becoming increasingly popular nowadays. ***Emergent language*** is

language that ‘comes up’, often unpredictably, in interaction between the learners and/ or the teacher and the learners. It's the language that they use, correctly or otherwise, when trying to express the meanings that they want to convey at that moment.

In education, **scaffolding** refers to a range of instructional techniques used to guide students progressively toward a deeper understanding and, ultimately, greater independence in the learning process. The term itself offers the relevant descriptive metaphor: teachers provide successive levels of temporary support that help students reach higher levels of comprehension and skill acquisition that they would not be able to achieve without assistance. Like physical scaffolding, the supportive strategies are incrementally removed when they are no longer needed, and the teacher gradually shifts more responsibility over the learning process to the student.

Scaffolding is widely considered to be an essential element of effective teaching, and all teachers, to a greater or lesser extent, almost certainly use various forms of instructional scaffolding in their teaching. In addition, scaffolding is often used to bridge learning gaps, i.e., the difference between what students have learned and what they are expected to know and be able to do at a certain point in their education.

For example, if students are not at the reading level required to understand a text being taught in a course, the teacher might use instructional scaffolding to incrementally improve their reading ability until they can read the required text independently and without assistance. One of the primary goals of scaffolding is to mitigate the negative emotions and self-perceptions that students may experience when they become frustrated, intimidated, or discouraged while attempting a challenging task without the necessary support, guidance, or understanding to complete it.

Learners need the support of a more knowledgeable other. This process was neatly encapsulated by Woods, Bruner and Ross (1976) with the metaphor of ‘scaffolding’. With this, they meant that in order for a learner to achieve a complex task (e.g., using the language of school), they need someone to control parts of the

task that are initially too difficult for them, so that they can concentrate on the easier elements. So, we can support our learners' language development by employing scaffolding strategies in the classroom.

There are ideas known as the concept of teaching speaking, which makes it more successful. The key ideas of the Teaching Speaking Concept are the following:

1. Teaching Speaking is possible only by giving them enough practice in it. Therefore, we need to ensure that speaking practice occurs in class.

2. We are too much concerned about accuracy and fluency, as our need is to get our students to talk. Speaking English is the first step. Speaking correctly and fluently is next. A child won't walk if it doesn't get the chance to fall down.

3. Is it practical and possible to do speaking activities in a class that is crowded with forty and above students? The answer is YES – through pair and group activities. Students are more comfortable and confident when they are not individually noticed.

4. Speaking skills are best taught with a series of well-structured activities that are meaningful and attached to real-life situations.

5. The teacher prepares the platform for the spoken activities and ensures that English is used consistently. Let the teacher avoid talking too much and instead observe the students speaking.

2.2.4. Speaking Activities and their Phases

In CLT, learning activities that engage learners in meaningful and authentic language use (i.e. pair work activities, role plays, group work activities, project work, etc.) are used (Richards, 2006). Though Richards and Rodgers (1999) stated that the activities compatible with CLT are unlimited.

Ur (1991) recommended the four characteristics of a successful speaking activity. The characteristics are: learners talk a lot, participation is even, motivation is high, and language is at an acceptable level. She categorises oral fluency activities into topic-based and task-based. Fluency is the ability to communicate meaning

without stopping or hesitating too much. In contrast, accuracy refers to the correctness of a student's use of grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary.

Topic-based activities are those that ask students to accomplish a specific task by following simple instructions, for example, to talk about a (controversial) subject, with the main objective being the discussion process itself. They are characterised by the following features:

- They activate the language that has been presented in class.
- They provide focused situations in which students are forced to use the target language in order to continue.
- It is a great way to see what students have retained from the lessons, as they must construct sentences by themselves.

There is a need for a suitable topic to ensure the fluency activity is successful. A good topic is one to which learners can relate by drawing on ideas from their own experiences and knowledge; the 'ability-grouping' topic is therefore appropriate for most schoolchildren, schoolteachers, or young people whose school memories are still fresh. It should also represent a genuine controversy, in which participants are likely to be fairly evenly divided. Some questions or suggested lines of thought can help to stimulate discussion, but not too many arguments for and against should be 'fed' to the class in advance: leave room for their own initiative and originality. A topic-centred discussion can be conducted as a formal debate, where a motion is proposed and opposed by prepared speakers, further discussed by group members, and finally voted on by all.

Task-based activities are those that allow students more freedom, requiring them to actually perform something, where the discussion process is a means to an end. A task is essentially goal-oriented: it requires the group, or pair, to achieve an objective that is usually expressed by an observable result, such as brief notes or lists, a rearrangement of jumbled items, a drawing, or a spoken summary. This result should be attainable only by interaction between participants: so, within the definition of the task, you often find instructions such as 'reach a consensus', or 'find

out everyone's opinion'. A task is often enhanced if there is some kind of visual focus to base the discussion on, such as a picture.

The characteristics of Task-based activities:

- They let students experiment with the language that has been presented to them in class over a longer period of time.
- They give students a chance to express their thoughts and opinions on a given topic in a more natural way.
- They give students a clear understanding of when they have accomplished what was asked of them.

Though task-centred activities involve more talk, more even participation, more motivation and enjoyment, there are learners who prefer a topic-centred discussion and to cater for such learners, founding it 'more interesting: you can go into things more deeply without the pressure of having to reach a decision' (Ur, 2012), occasional topic-centred discussions should be included in a balanced programme.

Topic-based activities help students practice more practical skills that people might use every day. Tasks such as finding directions, navigating a city, finding people with whom you have something in common, asking for help, etc.

Task-based activities help students practice interaction on a deeper level. This can help them prepare for interviews, making friends, talking to colleagues or classmates in a different country.

Some examples of two types of fluency speaking activities are given in Table 2.2.

Trainee teachers learn to distinguish between the kinds of speaking activities and controlled language practice, where, for example, students produce a large number of sentences using a specific piece of grammar or a particular function.

Table 2.2

Types of fluency speaking activities

(with examples)

Activity	Activity type
"Find-Someone-Who" activities	Task-based
Role play activities	Task-based or Topic-based, depending on the roleplay
Discussions	Topic-based
Debates	Topic-based
Describe the picture	Task-based
Retelling stories	Task-based
Brainstorming	Topic-based
Circle-Story-Completion	a combination of Task- and Topic-based
Find-The-Difference	Task-based

Speaking activities are practising what Scott Thornbury, in his book *How to Teach Speaking*, calls **speaking-as-skill**, where there is a task to complete and speaking is the way to complete it. So, these activities are designed to foster better speaking, rather than having students speak only to focus on (and practise) specific language constructions.

While engaging in task-based activities, it is crucial that students understand exactly what is being asked of them; otherwise, they may struggle to focus on the task at hand, and some students may inadvertently do something entirely different.

One must be very careful when choosing the topics for topic-based activities. They must be age-appropriate, respectful of the students' cultural and religious beliefs, yet also thought-provoking and interesting. There is a warning for teachers: what your students find interesting can be very different from what you find interesting (Hamer, 2007).

Thornbury, S. (2003) identifies 5 criteria: characteristics which help in the evaluation of speaking activities:

1) language-rich

2) involving
3) goal-oriented
4) challenging
5) supported

Trainee teachers are trained to evaluate and improve speaking activities by, at first, doing them, and then analysing them and answering questions such as: *(1) Was the activity **language-rich**? did you say a lot? Was there a variety of language used? Do you think students would be able to produce a lot of language? (2) How much **involvement** did it generate? Did everyone contribute more or less equally, and were they all engaged in the activity, even if they were not always speaking? (3) Was there a clear outcome to the activity – did it have a pre-established **goal**? (4) Was the activity **challenging**, but without being too difficult? Were you 'pushed' to work hard? (5) To do the task, did you have sufficient **support**? Would it have helped (if you were a student) to have had some preparation time or language input?*

According to Willis (1996), the language focus analysis has three major phases: pre-task activities, task cycle, and language focus. In the pre-task stage, the learners are introduced to the issue and activities of the lesson. In the task phase, students work in pairs or groups; the teacher walks around, monitors, and encourages them, and then the students report their work to the whole class. At last, language focus analyses are complete, and activities such as choral repetition of phrases, sentence completion, and dictionary reference are practised based on the language analysis.

The main phases of a speaking activity may acquire different names, but the typical structure remains the same: pre-task phase (lead-in/warmer), task fulfilment (main activity/task), and post-task activity. The pre-task phase introduces the topic and task. The teacher explores the topic with the class, highlighting useful words and phrases, helps learners understand task instructions, suggests an appropriate mode of interaction, prepares and distributes handouts, and manages the time effectively. Learners may hear a recording of others doing a similar task, or read part of a text as a lead-in to a task. During the task fulfilment phase, students do the task in pairs or

small groups. The teacher monitors from a distance, encouraging all attempts at communication without correction. Since this situation has a 'private' feel, students feel free to experiment. Mistakes don't matter. It is essential to provide learners with time in the post-task phase for planning. Students prepare to report to the whole class (orally or in writing) on how they completed the task, what they decided, or what they discovered. Since the report stage is public, students will naturally want to be accurate, so the teacher stands by to give language advice. Then, some groups present their reports to the class, exchange written reports, and compare results. The teacher acts as a chairperson and then comments on the content of the reports.

2.2.5. Teachers' Roles

The consideration of teaching as a facilitation process and the teacher as a facilitator has become a dominant notion in the field of education, in general, and language teaching, in particular. Likewise, the teachers in communicative classrooms are assumed to be facilitators of the students' learning (Desai, 2015). According to Richards and Rodgers (1999) and Breen and Candlin (1980), teachers in CLT are not only facilitators but also organisers of resources and resources themselves, serving as researchers, learners, need analysts, counsellors, and group process managers. Fosch (2017) summarised the roles of a teacher in CLT into three: facilitator, co-communicator, and advisor.

Lynch mentions that "Teachers vary in their attitudes to 'teacher talk'. Some of them accept that it is a useful source of language input for all language levels, except for the more advanced ones. Others regard it as an important part of the early stages of learning, but believe it should be abandoned as soon as possible" (1996, p.7). As with any other type of classroom procedure, teachers need to play multiple roles during speaking activities. However, three have particular relevance if we are to get students to speak fluently in a learner-centred activity:

Prompter. Students sometimes get lost, struggle to think of what to say next, or lose the fluency we expect of them in some way. We can leave them to struggle

out of such situations on their own, and indeed, sometimes this may be the best option. However, we may be able to help them and the activity to progress by offering discrete suggestions. If this can be done supportively – without disrupting the discussion or forcing students out of role – it will alleviate the sense of frustration that some students feel when they reach a 'dead end' in language or ideas.

Participant. Teachers should be good animators when asking students to produce language. Sometimes this could be achieved by setting up an activity clearly and with enthusiasm. At other times, however, teachers may want to participate in discussions or role-plays themselves. That way, they can prompt covertly, introduce new information to help the activity along, ensure continuing student engagement, and generally maintain a creative atmosphere. However, in such circumstances, they must be careful not to participate too much, thus dominating the conversation and drawing all the attention to themselves.

Feedback provider. The vexed question of when and how to provide feedback in speaking activities is answered by carefully considering the effect of different possible approaches.

When students are in the middle of a speaking activity, over-correction may inhibit (to prevent someone from doing something by making them feel nervous or embarrassed) them take the communicativeness out of the activity. On the other hand, helpful and gentle corrections can help students overcome difficult misunderstandings and hesitations. Everything depends upon our tact and the appropriateness of the feedback we give in particular situations.

When students have completed the activity, it is essential that we allow them to assess their work and that we provide them with feedback on what, in our opinion, went well. We will respond to both the content of the activity and the language used (Harmer, 2001).

Error correction. The teachers' classroom practices of error corrections were also compared to the communicative views of error and error correction. In CLT, as Richards (2006) stated, learners' errors indicate that they are building up their communicative competence. Desai (2015) also reported that the instructional process

should not be interrupted by the classroom teacher for the sake of corrections. Thus, it is possible to say that corrections of errors in communicative classrooms may be absent or infrequent. Consistent with the communicative views of error, teachers considered errors as an inseparable part of the language learning process and viewed them as indicators of students' progress, rather than believing in frequent and immediate corrections.

Section 2.3. Basics of Teaching Writing

Writing is a communication activity that conveys messages (information) to others in written form, utilising written language as a medium. Hammer (2001) states that writing is a useful alternative for children to practice language and consolidate what they are learning. The writing activity encompasses several key elements: the author as the message deliverer, the content of the writing, the channels or media through which it is conveyed, and the reader. Writing as a language skill is a complex activity because the writer must be able to organise the content of the writing and translate it into the diversity of written language. Behind its complexity, writing has numerous benefits, including developing intelligence, fostering initiative and creativity, increasing courage, and encouraging the willingness and ability to gather information, thereby supporting individual learning.

The objectives of Unit Language Skills – Teaching Writing are formulated as follows.

By the end of the unit, students will be aware of:

- curriculum requirements for teaching writing
- the types of writing and approaches to writing
- ways of teaching to write different text types
- writing activity sequences

and will be able to:

- integrate listening, speaking, reading and writing skills
- use strategies and techniques for developing learners' writing skills

- assess different types of learners' writing
- plan a sequence of activities that incorporates the development of writing skills.

These objectives are realised throughout the unit. The Unit Map (see Table 2.3) illustrates the distribution of themes that the trainee teachers are mastering to reach the unit objectives.

Table 2.3

Unit 3.4 Language Skills – Teaching Writing

Session	Content
1	Writing as a skill Differences between speaking and writing The importance of teaching writing The purposes of writing in class and in real life Curriculum requirements for teaching writing to different age groups Writing in the CEFR
2	Ways of working on learners' writing skills: • increasing student motivation to improve their writing • providing purposeful writing practice • providing constructive feedback on students' writing • dealing effectively with learners' errors in writing
3	Teaching sentence, paragraph and text building, coherence (logical development of ideas) and cohesion (linguistic means of establishing coherence) in writing
4-5	Teaching writing using process and product approaches Writing task sequences

Table 2.3 (Continued)

6	Overview of text-types linked to purposes for writing: • postcards • invitations • CVs • personal and formal letters • e-mails • stories • reviews • articles • essays • recipes • reports Ways of teaching writing different text types with the emphasis on authentic reasons for writing
7	Approaches to assessing writing
8-9	Ways of integrating the skills (e.g. project work, TBL)

One of the reasons teaching writing differs from teaching speaking is that the two types of discourse exhibit distinct basic characteristics (see Table 2.4).

Table 2.4

Differences between speaking and writing

(Adapted from Harmer, 2004)

Criteria	**Speaking**	**Writing**
Time and space	Communication happens in real time.	Communication doesn't happen in real time.
Participants	The receiver is present and can give an immediate response.	The receiver is not present, so any response comes later.
Process	Native speakers acquire it, rather than learn it.	A native speaker has to be taught how to do it.

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Organisation and language	It is usually planned in advance, allowing time to consider the language used.	It is usually spontaneous, so there is no time to think about the language used.
Signs and symbols	Expressive features, such as intonation, facial expression, and gesture, are used to make meaning clear.	Features such as layout and punctuation are used to make meaning clear and concise.
The product	It disappears.	It stays as a permanent record.

Despite the fact that differences between speaking and writing are often very marked, there are also occasions when the two forms look very much the same and are done in much the same way. In the world of changing communication media, any text can be described as being more *speaking-like* or *writing-like* (speaking-like writing, e.g., text messages, electronic communication, or writing-like speaking, e.g., a formal speech or lecture).

The objective of teaching writing in a foreign language is to enable learners to acquire the skills necessary to produce a range of written texts similar to those an educated person would be expected to produce in their own language (Ur, 2012).

Harmer (2004) aptly summarizes the attitude towards teaching writing, "for as long as languages have been taught, teachers have asked students to write things in their notebooks and exercise books. Yet sometimes, over the years, it has seemed that writing has been seen only as a support system for learning grammar and vocabulary, rather than a skill in its own right. Recently, however, trainers and methodologists have looked again at writing in the foreign language classroom and put forward ways of teaching this skill which acknowledge and emphasise its importance." He differentiates the ways writing is used in language teaching nowadays by the two terms '**writing-for-writing**', i.e. asking students to write an article or an advertisement for a newspaper with the purpose of developing their

writing skills, and '**writing-for-learning**', asking students to write something down in order to remember it or practise grammar with the purpose of learning.

The following activities illustrate how trainee teachers learn to differentiate between the two purposes, relying on their own experience and analysing coursebook activities.

Activity 1.5. Writing-for-writing and writing-for-learning

Purpose: to raise students' awareness of the reasons/purposes for writing in class

Think individually of three reasons why a teacher sometimes gets students to write in class and write them down in the table below.

	Example: • *to keep a record of what the teacher writes on the board.*
1	
2	
3	

Answer the question:

- *What do "**writing-for-writing**" and "**writing-for-learning**" mean?*

The two terms were suggested by Jeremy Harmer (2007). Explain how you understand them?

In your groups, fill in the table with sample activities (refer to your individual notes above) for the given purposes: 'writing-for-writing' and 'writing-for-learning'

Writing-for-writing* (writing to develop writing skills)	**Writing-for-learning*** (writing to support other learning)	**Comments**

Pass the handout round clockwise.

Add your ideas to the other groups' tables as well as comments on the original activities.

Analyse all the additions and comments in your original handouts.

Summarise the activity. Answer the question:

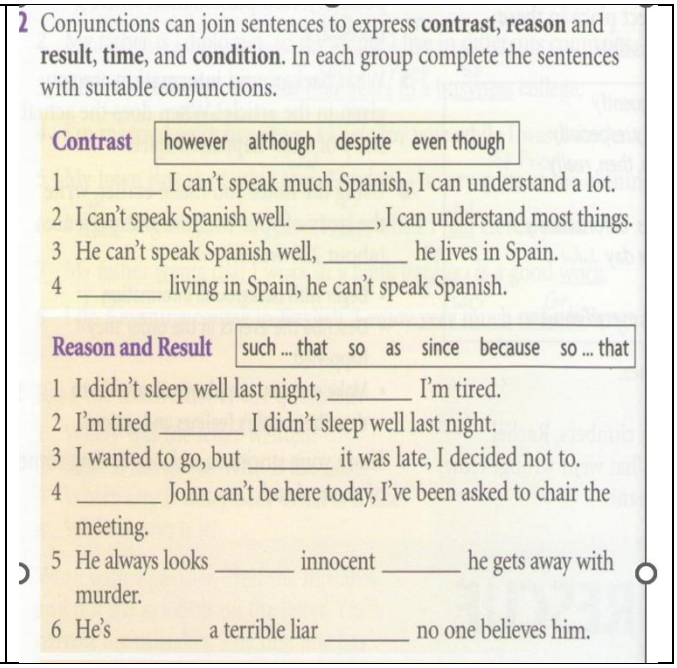
- *Which reasons for writing in class prevail?*

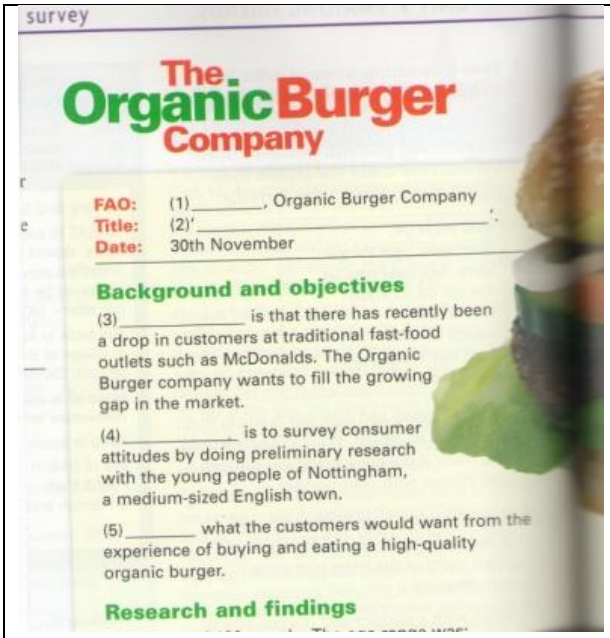
Activity 1.6 Purposes for writing

Purpose: to enable students to identify purposes for writing in coursebooks.

Explore the course book activities where students are asked to write. For each activity, answer the following questions:

- *What is the aim?*
- *Do you think it's writing-for-writing or writing-for-learning? Why?*

1 Using the notes you made earlier, write the story of your dangerous experience (about 250 words) • **Begin with background information.** • **Describe the events in the order they happened.** • **Make sure you use plenty of adverbs to describe people's feelings and actions**. Share your stories in class, reading some of them aloud.	 **2** Conjunctions can join sentences to express **contrast**, **reason** and **result**, **time**, and **condition**. In each group complete the sentences with suitable conjunctions. **Contrast** however although despite even though 1 _____ I can't speak much Spanish, I can understand a lot. 2 I can't speak Spanish well. _____, I can understand most things. 3 He can't speak Spanish well, _____ he lives in Spain. 4 _____ living in Spain, he can't speak Spanish. **Reason and Result** such ... that so as since because so ... that 1 I didn't sleep well last night, _____ I'm tired. 2 I'm tired _____ I didn't sleep well last night. 3 I wanted to go, but _____ it was late, I decided not to. 4 _____ John can't be here today, I've been asked to chair the meeting. 5 He always looks _____ innocent _____ he gets away with murder. 6 He's _____ a terrible liar _____ no one believes him.



survey

The Organic Burger Company

FAO: (1)_____, Organic Burger Company
Title: (2)'_____'.
Date: 30th November

Background and objectives

(3)_____ is that there has recently been a drop in customers at traditional fast-food outlets such as McDonalds. The Organic Burger company wants to fill the growing gap in the market.

(4)_____ is to survey consumer attitudes by doing preliminary research with the young people of Nottingham, a medium-sized English town.

(5)_____ what the customers would want from the experience of buying and eating a high-quality organic burger.

Research and findings

3 Read the report based on the consumer survey conducted for the Organic Burger Company and complete it with the expressions from exercise 2.

4 How does writing an e-mail differ from writing letters? List some differences.

5 Write an email in reply to Jane (about 250 words).

- **Begin by reacting to her news**
- **Reply positively to her invitation**
- **Suggest arrangements for meeting her**
- **End by giving some news about yourself**

6

T 1.9 Listen to some people talking about the things they mi when they are away from home. Take notes and compare them in

	What they miss	Other information
Andrew		
Helen		
Gabriele		
Paul		
Sylvia		
Chris		

In most instances, trainee teachers draw a conclusion that learners write to support other learning and feel the need to balance 'writing-for-writing' and 'writing-for-learning' and to avoid neglecting the development of writing as a skill.

2.3.1. Approaches to teaching writing

There are two main approaches to teaching writing that are typically practised in secondary educational institutions in Ukraine: the product approach, the process approach, each with distinct goals and classroom strategies.

The product approach is a traditional method that emphasises the final written product. The focus is laid on accuracy, grammar, vocabulary, and structure. Typical activities within this approach include model analysis, controlled practice, and guided imitation. The strengths of the product approach lie in exam preparation and formal writing. However, using this approach reveals some limitations, as creativity and the development of ideas are somewhat neglected. So, students analyse a model letter, for example, then write their own using the same structure and language patterns. But it does not mean that they are left alone with the model and a writing task. At the pre-writing stage, a teacher may organise a brainstorming activity to generate ideas relevant to the topic and then, together with learners, consider the structure of the model as well as useful language. *A writing model* gives students an example of a specific written text that they can use as a guide to help them write their own version. Models can exemplify genres and be analysed and then ultimately imitated by students. *Writing frames* guide students through the process of writing. Frames vary, but can include a writing frame for a postcard or a series of questions. Students answer these questions, which build up the writing text.

Stages of using the model text include:

1. Analyse the content of the model.
2. Compare the model with learners' own ideas.
3. Examining the language in the model text.
4. Learners use the model to write their own text.

Stronger learners can be stretched when using frames or models by asking them to:

- add at least two or three more sentences
- expand sentences with adjectives, adverbs and clauses
- replace sentences with similar but different structures
- change the frame/model to a different target audience
- read the frame/model, but then do not look at it again.

The product approach is based on *controlled practice*, which involves practising the target language in restricted situations where students have little or no

choice in the language they use. On the contrary, *freer practice* is when they practise the target language more freely, with a greater choice of what they say and the language they use.

The following activity illustrates how trainee teachers differentiate between controlled and freer writing practice.

Activity 3.5. Controlled writing and freer writing

Purpose: to raise students' awareness that both controlled and free practice activities are needed to improve learners' writing.

Read the definitions of controlled and freer practice.

Answer the question:

- *Are model texts and writing frames examples of controlled writing or freer writing?*

Learners need both controlled and free practice to improve their writing. Here are some short writing tasks. Rank them on the continuum below according to how controlled or free each practice is.

A. Write one or two sentences on a specific topic.

B. Complete the sentences. For example, *The best place I've ever … … My favourite dish is … … I really dislike … …*

C. Rewrite sentences to reflect the view of the class. For example, the class is shown the sentence *Boys like football*. Together or in groups they discuss the sentence and rewrite it reflect their own group: *Most boys like football as well as a lot of girls*.

D. Write your thoughts in a daily journal (diary).

E. Expand sentences by adding more details, adjectives and adverbs. For example, *The man followed the woman*, can be expanded to *The man in the dark suit followed the woman he'd seen earlier*.

F. Write instructions. This involves groups of learners writing a set of instructions for another group. Examples include a set of directions, how to send an email or make a good cup of tea. The reading group follow the instructions to see how effective they are, correcting anything that is wrong.

G. The *Consequences* activity 2.6 Topic 2.

Adapted from Harmer, J., (2004), How to Teach Writing, Pearson



On completing this activity, trainee teachers realize that frames and model texts are examples of controlled practice. Regarding ranking, it differs; some activities depend on how the teacher conducts the task.

The process approach to writing is an educational approach that treats writing as both a social activity and a cognitive process. This method motivates students to participate actively in writing and to acquire a range of writing techniques and strategies. Process writing theory has evolved in response to the influence of interactionist theories, which propose that writing is essentially a dialogue, an interactive communication between the author and the reader. According to the process approach, the writer is engaged in a dialogue with their audience and is primarily responsible for effective communication (Johns, 1990). This perspective emphasises the reader's role in shaping the writing process, as the writer anticipates

and responds to the reader's needs and expectations. The process writing teaching model is structured around several key stages designed to foster the development of students' linguistic and cognitive skills. It is the four-stage model, which includes pre-writing, drafting, editing, and publishing. Pre-writing is the first stage, where students generate and explore ideas without immediate concern for structure or correctness. This freedom to think creatively lays the foundation for the writing task. They also plan what to write. The drafting stage requires putting their ideas into written form. This stage is crucial for translating thoughts into text and establishing a structure for the piece of writing. They write a rough first version. At the editing stage, learners check, make alterations, and rewrite. It involves the exchange of work between students who provide feedback on each other's drafts. Peer review facilitates collaborative meaning-making. This collaborative critique enables students to view their writing from multiple perspectives and refine their work based on constructive feedback. Finally, after revising their work, taking into account the feedback received and their own reflections on the draft, learners present the piece of writing to the readers. This process of revising and refining helps learners to improve the clarity, coherence, and effectiveness of their writing. Throughout these stages, the process writing approach equips students with the tools to become more independent and confident writers, capable of navigating the complexities of the writing process. The subskills learners need at each stage are given in Table 2.5.

The role of a teacher throughout these stages lies in focusing learners on the task, generating ideas, checking language, and encouraging peer collaboration and evaluation.

Table 2.5.

Process writing stages and subskills

Process writing stages	Sub-skills
Pre-writing	Brainstorming Mind-mapping Planning Forming an opinion

Table 2.5 (Continued)

Drafting	Selecting/rejecting ideas Structuring Planning out paragraphs Putting ideas into sentences
Editing	Revising Checking Re-ordering Re-structuring Focusing on grammar and vocabulary
Publishing	Presenting the finished piece to readers Evaluation

For many writers, the difficult part of the writing experience is the very beginning. Prewriting deserves considerable time and attention, as it helps to solve a problem called 'writer's block'. Kozma (1991) found that expert writers spend more time during prewriting than inexperienced writers. Learners might think that they cannot come up with an idea. They literally have a blank page and keep writing and erasing. They cannot even get started because they have no clue how to start.

Mogahed (2013) suggests dividing prewriting into two steps: *invention*, which includes activities that can be employed to generate good ideas and gain inspiration, and *arrangement*, comprising trying different invention activities until learners find those that work best for them. Sometimes, standard activities may not be suitable for a particular piece of writing, suggesting further consideration of alternative activities. Once the ideas are generated during the invention stage, they are arranged, namely, through graphic organisers (see Table 2.6).

Table 2.6

Pre-writing stage

Invention section **for generating ideas**	**arrangement section** **for organising *these* ideas**
• Brainstorming • Free writing • Listing • Questioning • Clustering • Interviewing • Looping	• Graphic organizers: ➢ Spider map ➢ Series of events chain ➢ Fishbone map ➢ Charts ➢ Story maps ➢ Cause and effect diagrams ➢ Timelines ➢ Webbing ➢ Flowcharts ➢ Venn diagrams ➢ Concept mapping

Some of the *invention activities* and their organisation are as follows.

Brainstorming. Most problems are not solved automatically by the first idea that comes to mind. To arrive at the best solution, it is essential to consider multiple possible solutions. One of the best ways is brainstorming. Brainstorming is a useful method for generating new ideas and getting started. Once learners are familiar with the process, they can use this activity independently when they are stuck, revising their work, or transitioning to a new phase. Bobb-Wolff (1996) argues that brainstorming can be a useful and enriching tool in the EFL classroom, serving as a means of demonstrating to learners that they are collectively capable of generating more ideas to improve their learning process than they initially believed possible. This, in turn, leads to an increase in their autonomy of learning and self-responsibility. However, most importantly, it enhances the quality of learner participation and production in class.

Brainstorming at a glance:

- a useful way of getting started
- a useful way of generating new ideas
- enriching tool in the EFL classroom
- a means of showing learners that they are collectively capable of generating more ideas
- an increase in autonomy of learning and self-responsibility
- improves the quality of learner participation and learner production in class

How To Use Brainstorming Best

- **Set a time limit**
- **Begin with a target problem** – Members should *stay* on topic.
- **Refrain from judgment/criticism** – No one should be negative (including via body language) about any idea.
- **Encourage weird and wacky ideas** –no killer phrases like "too expensive",
- **Aim for quantity** – Remember, "quantity breeds quality". The sifting-and-sorting process comes later.
- **Build on others' ideas** – It's a process of *association* where members expand on others' notions and reach new insights, allowing these ideas to trigger their own.

Free writing. Obviously, free writing helps the writer get in touch with the big picture without getting sidetracked with details. It is a non-linear activity, utilising the right side of the brain, which deals with concepts and abstract ideas. As soon as you begin to organise, edit and censor your ideas, you have moved over to the left side of the brain, where the linear thinking happens. That is where thoughts get blocked (Mouser, 2000). Additionally, Darling (2004) notes that many writing instructors use a free-writing exercise at the beginning of each class as a way to get the brain in gear. Free writing helps learners understand that not all writing they produce is equally good and not all writing needs to be kept. Writers must learn to discard. By the end of writing, they may have a different focus on the topic or even a completely new topic and keeping earlier words and phrases might ruin the final

product. On the other hand, during free writing, learners will often come up with ideas and phrases that lead them to an imaginative new direction. Because learners are not focusing on a product, they take risks in free writing without realising it. This can lead to the discovery of something new, such as a new idea, skill, or insight.

Free writing at a glance:

- gives the big picture without getting sidetracked with details
- necessarily unprepared, open-ended, and flowing student work
- students are assigned the task of writing for a short period of time or until they reach a certain word count on any topic
- writing without worrying about grammar, spelling, or punctuation
- not evaluated by the teacher, so students can feel free to say whatever they have on their minds about a topic or idea
- the goal of free writing is in the process, not the product (does not necessarily produce perfect or suitable material for use in class tests or essays)

Listing. Listing is a prewriting activity writers find useful. It means doing just what its name suggests: listing possible topics and then sublists of things the writer could say about each topic. To illustrate, Sloane (2004) points out that a list could consist of the main topic of regional dialects and then sublists would be regional dialects you know or have experienced. Additional sublists might be particular words of each of those dialects, things you have noticed about those dialects (that is, New Yorkers speak fast), and what you think those dialects sound like. Scholes (1989) notes that writers may use listing to jot down all ideas they can think of on a particular topic quickly. Later, the writer may group related ideas and write summary statements. The writer may also use items from lists and summary statements as prompts to explore new ideas.

Listing at a glance:

- writer develops a list of words and phrases, images and ideas. The list may be ordered or unordered
- use listing to jot down quickly all ideas they can think of on a particular topic

Tips:

- First, set a time limit for this activity; 5-10 minutes is more than enough.
- Then write down as many ideas as you can without stopping to analyze any of them.

Questioning. A common approach to generating a topic is to ask questions. Journalism refers to very simple questions: Who? What? When? Where? Why? How? Answering these questions initially does not seem very hard. However, it is precisely when the writer has difficulty answering a 'why' that a real paper is beginning. Learners focus on the audience as they consider what the reader needs to know. The answers to these questions will form the basis of the composition. Thus, the journalists' questions are a powerful way to develop a great deal of information about a topic very quickly. Learning to ask the appropriate questions about a topic takes practice, however. In addition, Gorrell (1996) makes a case for students' using a focused, carefully phrased question as the basis for prewriting and writing, as opposed to a thesis sentence, which can more easily lead them astray.

Questioning at a glance:

- ask simple questions: Who? What? When? Where? Why? How?
- answers to these questions will form the basis of the composition
- a powerful way to develop a great deal of information about a topic very quickly
- learning to ask the appropriate questions about a topic takes practice

Clustering. Clustering is an activity developed and named by Rico (1983) for accessing that state of consciousness often referred to as the right side of the brain, in which we pattern, design, connect, and deal with complex images. Rico defines clustering as 'a generative, open-ended, non-linear, visual structuring of ideas, events, feelings. It is a way of mapping an interior landscape as it begins to emerge'. Furthermore, according to Tomlinson (1998), clustering is a pre-writing activity in which the writer freely associates strings of ideas around a central word or idea. It is a way of tricking the left brain into silence and using the right brain to come up with a unique overview of a subject. Scholes (1989) notes that clustering, or grouping ideas, is a beneficial approach for writers who think spatially. In addition to

illustration using circles and lines, writers can also construct clusters with either tree diagrams or balloons and strings.

Clustering at a glance:

- a generative, open-ended, nonlinear, **visual** structuring of ideas, events, feelings **(**using circles and lines, tree diagrams or balloons and strings**)**
- the writer free-associates strings of ideas around a central word or idea
- clustering, or grouping ideas, is a good way for writers who think spatially

Interviewing. Interviewing means speaking with people who have knowledge or expertise in a specific topic. Learners take on the role of an interviewer as they interview. This experience helps them learn to analyse people and events accurately. The teacher may choose to model and demonstrate the interview process by 'talking aloud' a simulated interview. Consequently, learners who will be interviewing need to begin thinking of questions to ask (Wood & Fisher, 2001).

Interviewing at a glance:

- talking with people who know something about a certain topic
- helps them learn to analyze people and events accurately
- learners as interviewers need to begin thinking of questions to ask

Looping. Looping is a free writing activity that allows the writer to focus his ideas in trying to discover a writing topic. The writer loops one 5-10 min free writing after another, so he/she has a sequence of free writings, each more specific than the other. The same rules that apply to free writing apply to looping: write quickly, do not edit and do not stop. Looping goes like this: free write on an assignment for 5-10 min. Then, read through your free writing, looking for interesting topics, ideas, phrases, or sentences that stand out. Circle those you find interesting. A variation on looping is to have a classmate circle ideas in your free writing that interest them. Then, free write again for 5-10 minutes on one of the circled topics. You should end up with a more specific free writing about a particular topic. Loop your free writing again, circling another interesting topic, idea, phrase, or sentence. When you have finished four or five rounds of looping, you will begin to have specific information that indicates what you are thinking about a particular topic.

Looping at a glance:

- The writer **loops** one 5-10 min free writing after another (has a sequence of free writings, each more specific than the other)

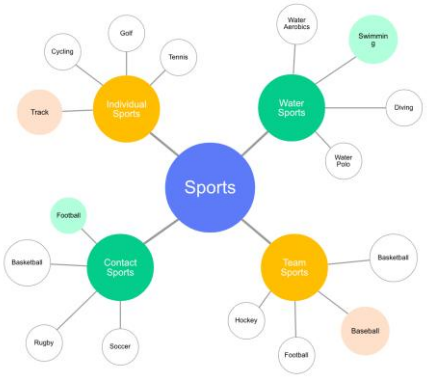
Tips:

- write quickly, do not edit and do not stop
- free write on an assignment for 5-10 min
- read through your free writing, looking for interesting topics, ideas, phrases, or sentences
- circle those you find interesting
- then free write again for 5-10 min on one of the circled topics
- you should end up with a more specific free writing about a particular topic
- loop your free writing again, circling another interesting topic, idea, phrase or sentence.
- when you have finished four or five rounds of looping, you will begin to have specific information that indicates what you are thinking about a particular topic

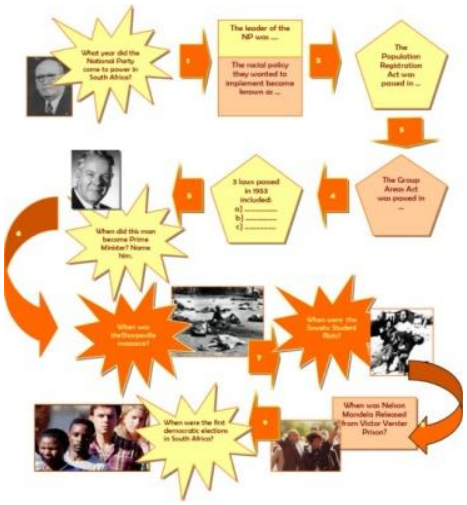
Arrangement activities. As soon as the ideas are generated, the writer needs to consider the organisation of the content. Arrangement activities build on the invention activities developed earlier. Once the writer puts forward some ideas during an invention activity, he/she moves to arranging them in a certain manner according to the nature of the topic. One of the most widely used methods for organising ideas is the use of graphic organisers.

Examples of arrangement activities (graphic organisers) are provided in Figure 2.1.

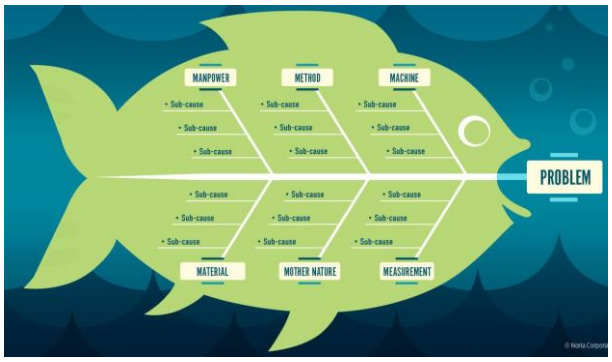
Spider map



Series of events chain



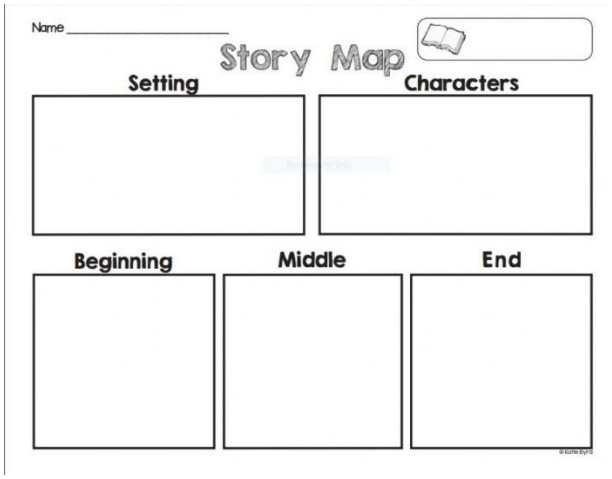
Fishbone map



Charts



Story maps



Cause and effect diagrams

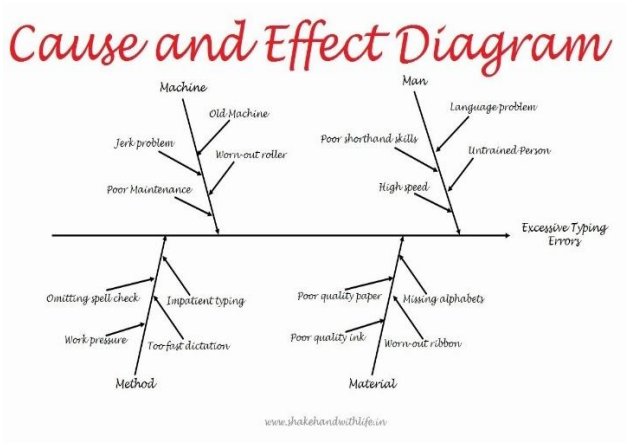
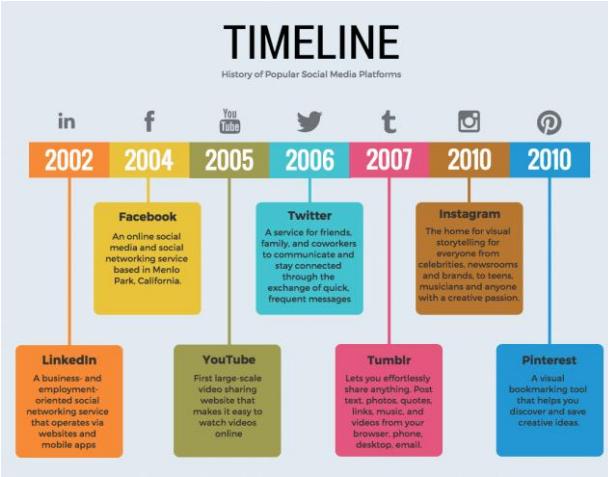
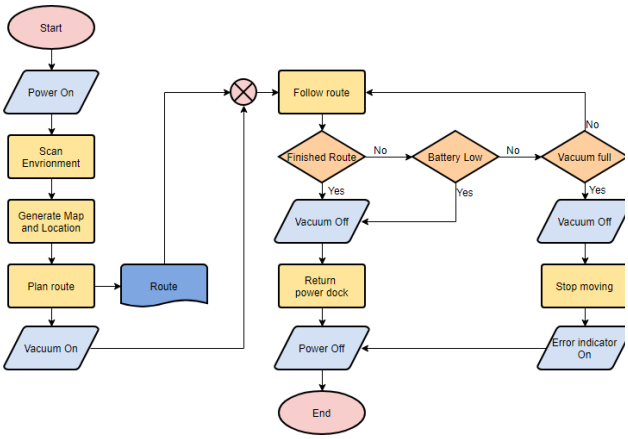


Figure 2.1. Arrangement activities for the pre-writing stage (graphic organisers)

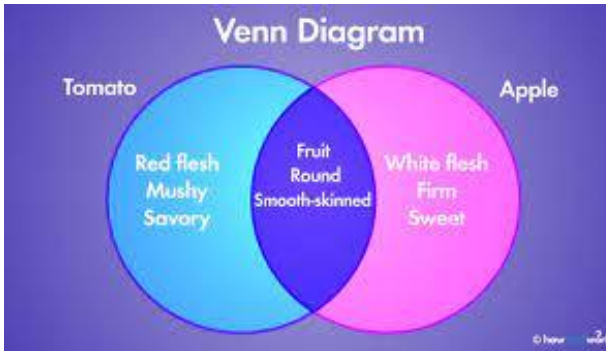
Timelines



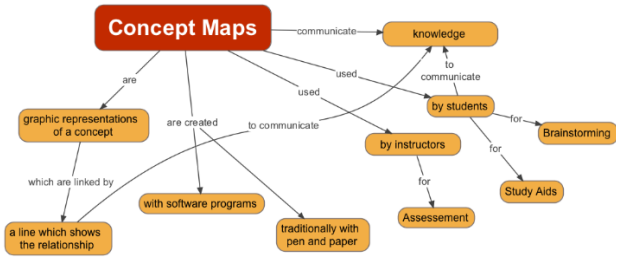
Flowcharts



Venn diagrams



Concept mapping



Webbing



Figure 2.1. Arrangement activities for the pre-writing stage (graphic organisers)

Visual thinking can be expressed in many ways. Graphic organisers (see *Figure 1*) are various ways for visual thinkers to organise their ideas. There are unlimited ways to express these visual ideas. Actually, graphic organisers have many names, including visual maps, mind mapping, and visual organisers. Graphic organisers can be used in all phases of learning, from brainstorming ideas to presenting findings. They can be used individually or in large groups. Graphic organisers can be used in various forms at the teacher's or learner's discretion, including charts, tables, webs, Venn diagrams, and flowcharts. Hence, the form of the graphic organiser is chosen according to the nature of the topic the learner is going to write about.

So, *for learners*, the pre-writing stage is vital to plan out prewriting correctly; it is a key stage in the writing process. *For teachers*, it is essential to try more than one activity to determine what works well for learners and to be fully aware of all activities in the invention and arrangement sections, as well as how to effectively teach them.

2.3.2. Responding to Writing

Feedback is an important component of the formative assessment process. Formative assessment provides teachers and students with information about how students are performing in relation to classroom learning goals. Feedback can be very powerful if done well. The power of formative feedback lies in its dual approach, addressing both cognitive and motivational factors simultaneously. Good feedback provides students with the information they need to understand where they stand in their learning and what to do next, which is a cognitive factor. Once they feel they understand what to do and why, most students develop a sense that they have control over their own learning, which is a key motivational factor.

Butler and Winne's (1995) research review demonstrated that both external feedback (such as teacher feedback) and internal feedback (such as self-evaluation by students) influence student knowledge and beliefs. Together, they help students

develop self-regulation by deciding on their next learning goals, devising tactics and strategies to reach them, and producing quality work. Brookhart (2008, p.3) underlines an important point that "teacher feedback is not teacher regulation. Teachers can't 'make' students focus on or learn something. Teacher feedback is input that, together with students' own internal input, will help the students decide where they are in regard to the learning goals they need or want to meet and what they will tackle next".

Several studies have investigated the effects of grades versus comments on student performance. Page (1958) is the classic of this type of study. Page found that student achievement was higher for a group receiving prespecified comments instead of letter grades and higher still for students receiving free comments (written by the teacher). Writing comments was more effective for learning than giving grades. More recent research has identified the problem: in early studies on comments, the "feedback" was evaluative or judgmental, rather than descriptive. Evaluative feedback is not always helpful (Brookhart, 2008, p.7).

The nature of "comment studies" changed as the literature on motivation began to highlight the importance of the functional significance of feedback: how does the student perceive the comment – as information or as judgment? Butler and Nisan (1986) investigated the effects of grades (evaluative), comments (descriptive), or no feedback on both learning and motivation. They used two different tasks, one quantitative task and one divergent-thinking task. Students who received descriptive comments as feedback on their first session's work performed better on both tasks in the final session and reported more motivation for them. Students who received evaluative grades as feedback on their first session's work performed well on the quantitative task in the final session but poorly on the divergent-thinking task and were less motivated. The group that received no feedback performed poorly on both tasks in the final session and was also less motivated as a result. Butler and Nisan's work affirms an observation that many classroom teachers have made about their students: if a paper is returned with both a grade and a comment, many students will pay attention to the grade and ignore the comment. The grade "trumps" the comment;

the student will read a comment that the teacher intended to be descriptive as an explanation of the grade. Descriptive comments have the best chance of being read as descriptive if they are not accompanied by a grade.

That is why trainee teachers in the methodology session learn the difference between correction and giving feedback, as well as the methods for providing them. Traditionally, we start by answering the question of *where we are,* that is, finding out trainee teachers' beliefs about feedback and correction.

The following activity illustrates this.

Activity 5.1. Giving feedback and marking

Answer the question individually:

- *What is the difference between correcting written work and giving feedback on it?*

Compare your answers with a partner.

Read the following statements and agree (✓) or disagree (✗) with them:

#	**statements**	**Agree/ disagree**
1	You must always grade learners' writing. For example, 63%, 7/10, B+.	
2	Sometimes you should just comment on learners' writing.	
3	You must never use red ink for marking.	
4	You should correct all the mistakes in a piece of written work.	
5	Sometimes you shouldn't correct any mistakes or comment on performance. Instead, you should respond to what they have written and focus on writing fluency.	

This activity also helps to clarify that correcting something involves changing it to make it right or improve it. To give feedback is to tell someone how well they are doing. This could occur at a specific point in the course or after an exercise that learners have just completed.

Good feedback should be an integral part of a classroom assessment environment, where students view constructive criticism as beneficial and understand that learning is an ongoing process that requires practice. Good feedback contains information that a student can use, which means that the student has to be able to hear and understand it. Students cannot perceive something that is beyond their comprehension.

Feedback should be positive. Being 'positive' doesn't mean being artificially happy or saying work is good when it isn't. Being positive means describing how the strengths in a student's work align with the criteria for good work and how those strengths demonstrate what the student is learning. Being positive means pointing out where improvement is needed and suggesting actions the student can take to address it. Just noticing what is wrong without offering suggestions to make it right is not helpful.

Tunstall and Gipps (1996) developed a typology of teacher feedback based on observations in primary schools. They divided feedback into two main kinds: descriptive and evaluative. Positive evaluative feedback includes rewards, general praise, and similar expressions of appreciation. Negative evaluative feedback includes punishments, general criticisms, and other similar forms of criticism. On the descriptive side, however, all of the feedback has a positive intention. Even criticism, if it is descriptive and not judgmental, is intended to be constructive. Tunstall and Gipps discuss descriptive feedback as comprising "achievement feedback" and "improvement feedback." Achievement feedback describes or affirms for a student what was done well and why. Improvement feedback describes to a student what more they might do and what strategies could lead to improvement in their work.

Feedback strategies can vary in several dimensions: timing, amount, mode, and audience (see *Table 2.6*).

Table 2.6

Feedback strategies

(adapted from Brookhart, 2008)

Dimension	Purpose
Feedback Timing	• For students to get feedback while they are still mindful of the learning target • For students to get feedback while there is still time for them to act on it
Amount of Feedback	• For students to get enough feedback so that they understand what to do, but not so much that the work has been done for them (differs case by case) • For students to get feedback on "teachable moment" points, but not an overwhelming number
Feedback Mode	• To communicate the feedback message in the most appropriate way: written, oral or demonstrating how to do something
Feedback Audience	• To reach the appropriate students with specific feedback: individual, group or class feedback • To communicate, through feedback, that student learning is valued

When planning for feedback, you also need to decide on its focus. Hattie and Timperley (2007) distinguish four levels of feedback:

- Feedback about the task
- Feedback about the processing of the task
- Feedback about self-regulation
- Feedback about the self as a person

Feedback about the task

- includes: information about errors, whether something is correct or incorrect; the depth or quality of the work, often against criteria that are either explicit (for example, criteria from a scoring rubric) or implicit in the assignment (for example, a written assignment should be well written);

- may include a need for more information (for example, "You should include more information about ….");
- can also include information about neatness or format.

Feedback about the task has been found to be more powerful when it corrects misconceptions than when it alerts students to lack of information (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). If a student doesn't know something, further instruction is more powerful than feedback. One problem with feedback about the task is that it may not transfer to other tasks because it is specific to the particular assignment. In that sense, although it contributes to better learning for the task at hand, task feedback does not contribute to further learning as much as the second type, feedback about the process used to do the task.

Feedback about the process gives students information about:

- how they approached the task;
- the relationship between what they did and the quality of their performance;
- possible alternative strategies that would also be useful.

Some successful learners are able to translate feedback about the task into feedback about the process. That is, given outcome feedback (knowledge of results), they can generate their own cognitive feedback (linking characteristics of the task and their process with those results) (Butler & Winne, 1995). In effect, when teachers give feedback about the process, they are scaffolding this kind of transfer for all students. This is a highly effective way to address the needs of all students, helping them acquire the 'learning how to learn' skill.

Self-regulation is the process by which students monitor and control their own learning. Self-regulation can lead students to seek, accept, and act on feedback information or not. Effective learners create internal routines that include determining when they need more information, an assessment, or suggestions, and strategies for obtaining this feedback. Less effective learners tend to rely more on external factors, such as whether the teacher provides feedback on a particular assignment, for their guidance. Students are more willing to expend effort in

receiving and processing feedback if they have confidence in themselves as learners, known as self-efficacy, and confidence that the information will be useful and thus worth the effort. Therefore, feedback about self-regulation is effective to the degree that it enhances self-efficacy.

Feedback about the person ('Smart girl!') is generally not a good idea, for two reasons. First, it doesn't contain information that can be used for further learning, so it's not formative. Second, and more insidious, feedback about the person can contribute to students believing that intelligence is fixed. This implies that achievement is something beyond the student's control. The belief that intelligence is fixed removes the connection between student effort and achievement (Dweck, 2007). It leads to a kind of academic fatalism. In contrast, feedback about the processes students use to complete their work fosters the belief that achievement is related to specific strategies and kinds of effort that are under the student's control, rather than to innate ability.

Feedback about processes helps students see the connections between their actions and the results they achieved. Simple knowledge of test results is task-related feedback. To extend this into feedback about the learning process, have students identify the reasons for the errors on each item they got wrong. This simple exercise can be done individually. Help students see that careless errors (such as marking the wrong choice even though they knew the right one) imply that being more careful and taking more time might be effective strategies for improvement. Errors about facts or concepts suggest that studying for longer or in a different way might be beneficial. Trying to classify the kinds of facts or concepts that are particularly problematic can help students study smarter, not harder, by focusing on the areas that cause trouble.

In this chapter fundamentals of developing productive skills are considered. Initially, the authors provide a brief outline of the context in which EFL Methodology is taught to trainee teachers at the Foreign Languages Department. The section on the basics of developing speaking skills presents the objectives of Unit *Language Skills – Teaching Speaking* with relation to the Curriculum requirements for teaching

speaking for different purposes and the CEFR levels' descriptors for both interaction and production. The challenges of teaching speaking in the EFL context, along with strategies and techniques for developing learners' speaking skills, are also presented, as well as the phases of speaking activities. The most essential roles of teachers in developing learners' fluency in speaking are discussed.

The section on the basics of developing writing skills focuses on how unit objectives are realised throughout the themes within the unit, and dwells on similarities and differences between the two productive skills – speaking and writing. The emphasis is placed on developing writing as a skill in comparison with writing to support other learning. Two main approaches to teaching writing – product and process – are considered with the focus on prewriting activities. That is followed by responding to the writing by giving feedback in its various dimensions.

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CHAPTER 3. CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS FOR DEVELOPING FUTURE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS' DIGITAL COMPETENCE IN THE CONTEXT OF UPDATING THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING CONTENT.

Section 3.1. Introduction

At the current stage of educational development, the digitization of teacher education serves as a key driving force for improving the quality of professional training and expanding opportunities for personalized and interactive learning. Digital technologies have evolved from being optional tools to becoming an integral requirement for ensuring the quality, accessibility, and innovation of teacher education. The rapid shift to distance and blended learning during the 2020–2023 global pandemic and the ongoing martial law in Ukraine have significantly accelerated the process of digital transformation in higher education institutions, especially in the system of foreign language teacher training.

The relevance of this manuscript lies in the need for theoretical and methodological grounding of digital competence development among future foreign language teachers. Within this context, the concept of digital competence is examined not merely as a set of technological skills but as an integrated professional quality that determines the teacher's ability to effectively use, critically evaluate, and creatively apply digital technologies in the process of foreign language teaching and learning. Given the growing role of digital tools in modern pedagogy, investigating the structure, levels, and mechanisms for developing digital competence is an essential task of professional training modernization.

The Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine has identified the digital transformation of education as one of its key strategic priorities. The official website states this transformation involves the creation of an ecosystem of digital educational solutions, a secure and inclusive digital environment, the development of digital literacy among educators and learners, and the implementation of data-driven educational management. (Khrystych, & Borysova, 2022). These national initiatives

highlight the importance of revising the content and structure of teacher education programs to include digital pedagogy, media literacy, and AI-integrated teaching tools as integral components of professional competence.

The issue of digital transformation has been the subject of research by such scholars as Vasilyeva, (2022), Gurevich et al., (2021), Biletska et al., (2021). The problem of the specifics of using various online resources has been described in the works of Bykov, (2019), Chernenko, (2020), Hurzhii, (2021), Kolisnichenko, (2022, 2023). A significant number of works are devoted to the study of the use of digital technologies by teachers in the context of foreign language teaching. These scientific works were carried out by researchers (Apalat, 2019; Kolisnichenko, 2020; Maksymova, 2019; Soroko, 2019; Yakovleva, 2022). It is also worth mentioning a number of foreign scholars who have studied the role, place, and functionality of digital technologies in the educational process in general (Haleem, et al., 2022; Marcus-Quinn A., et al., 2019; Ng W. 2015; Zabolotna, O. & Zagoruiko L., 2025) and in the study of foreign languages, in particular (Anggeraini, 2020, Bećirović S., et al., 2021). The broad scientific interest in the use of digital technologies serves as the basis for raising awareness of the issue.

Modern teacher education is undergoing a profound technological transformation, shaped by societal challenges and the growing demands of the digital era. The global educational community has recognized the necessity of advancing digital technologies and exploring innovative ways of integrating them into the professional training of future FL teachers. The effectiveness of modern language education, particularly in distance and blended learning formats, depends largely on the extent to which digital technologies are meaningfully incorporated into teaching, learning, and assessment processes.

The primary aim of developing and implementing information and communication technologies has always been the facilitation and democratization of knowledge exchange. Consequently, they should be regarded as a fundamental driving force behind current educational reforms and the modernization of teacher training. The growing interest in digital tools and their pedagogical affordances has

intensified scholarly attention toward the theoretical foundations of digital technologies and their role in fostering digital competence among pre-service teachers. According to dictionary definitions, digital technology can be interpreted in two complementary ways: as a field of scientific and engineering knowledge concerned with the design and practical application of digital or computerized devices, methods, and systems; and as a specific device, method, or system created on the basis of such knowledge (Dictionary.com).

In the context of foreign language teacher education, digital technologies can therefore be understood as a set of tools and strategies that enable future teachers to create, adapt, and apply digital resources to support language learning, enhance communication, and develop learners' digital and media literacy. In some papers, the concept of digital technologies in foreign language teaching is identified with the term CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) (Chernenko, 2020). This synonymy is related to the direct connection between the use of computer technologies for the purpose of foreign language acquisition, which can be the reason why these two concepts are often found in the same context. There are also a number of other synonymous terms, such as information and communication technologies, e-learning, etc. However, the term "digital technologies" is more modern and is more commonly used in scientific and methodological sources.

Section 3.2. Theoretical Foundations of Digitalisation in Education

3.2.1. Pedagogical Dimensions of Digital Technologies in Teacher Training

A review of the sources made it possible to identify a number of contexts under which the concept of "digital technologies" was considered in previous studies: the use of DT (digital technologies) in education in general, the advantages and disadvantages of using digital technologies in the educational process, the peculiarities of using DT in various subject areas and fields, access to resources and

their relevance to educational needs, and the connection with the digital competence of both teachers and students. The discussion that follows offers a detailed consideration of these dimensions.

When analysing the first of these dimensions, it is useful to refer to a study on the role of digital technologies in education, in which the authors emphasise that digitalisation constitutes one of the defining realities of modern life. It reflects not only the socio-economic and technological conditions of production but also the evolving nature of cultural and educational relations within society. The researchers also observe an intensification of existing contradictions in education, particularly between the reproductive and productive strategies of its modernisation (Hurevych et al., 2021). These contradictions highlight the need for further theoretical reflection and empirical investigation aimed at overcoming the challenges associated with the digital transformation of education. In this regard, the key concept is modernisation, which implies the advancement not only of the technological dimension of computer technologies but also of their methodological integration, that is, the adaptation of digital resources to the aims, needs, and expected learning outcomes of education.

The views of Fenwick T. and Edwards R. are particularly valuable for this research. In their study of the impact of digital technologies on school education, they argue that the convergence of digital technologies, big data, and predictive analytics exerts a profound influence on professional practice at individual, organisational, national, and international levels (Fenwick & Edwards, 2016, p. 117). This combination is particularly significant for teachers who employ digital tools in the learning process, provided they possess a sufficient level of digital competence. The ability to analyse learning outcomes, access and evaluate vast amounts of academic information, and select appropriate digital resources requires a high degree of professional expertise, of which digital competence is an essential component.

An evident connection exists between the two aspects mentioned above: not only the need to apply digital skills in education, but also the requirement to ensure an adequate level of digital competence among all participants in the educational process. The issue of developing digital skills remains particularly pressing in both

general and specialised schools. In contemporary education, digital competence and foreign language proficiency are not only professional necessities but also social imperatives. These competencies must be cultivated systematically throughout all stages of education, from primary to higher levels, through continuous and integrative learning processes.

A group of scholars, including Tolochko et al. (2020), define digital competence as multifunctional and transversal, capable of ensuring learning transfer through the integration of knowledge, skills, and metacognitive abilities that enable individuals to solve real-world problems and engage in lifelong learning (p. 162). This definition underscores the continuity of digital competence development and the need to foster it as an ongoing process rather than a one-time acquisition.

The issue of digital literacy has also been widely addressed in academic research. Of particular relevance to the present study is the position of Kolisnichenko (2019), who highlights the persistent lack of digital competence among teachers and students in general secondary education. The researcher observes that, although teachers may know how to use browser-based applications for presenting materials, students often lack the necessary familiarity with such tools. Effective use of digital programmes requires a sequence of steps – locating the appropriate application, registering, exploring its features, and applying them effectively. To address this challenge, the author proposes the implementation of integrated learning, in which foreign language and computer science teachers collaborate to prepare students for digital interaction.

Furthermore, numerous studies, such as those by Hurzhii et al. (2021), Vakaliuk et al. (2022), and others examine the development of information literacy across educational contexts. Each of these works confirms the necessity of integrating digital technologies into the educational process, regardless of discipline. This leads to the conclusion that digital technologies should be systematically introduced from the level of general secondary education, where specialised schools play a crucial role as preparatory stages for professional education.

Another important dimension concerns the advantages and limitations of digitalisation in education. This issue has been investigated by Hurzhii et al. (2021), who identify several key advantages of digital transformation in education, including:

- fostering learner independence from an early age;
- reducing the need for printed materials, as digital devices replace physical textbooks, notebooks, and manuals;
- lowering stationery and printing costs through the use of electronic versions of resources;
- expanding access to knowledge, particularly for learners in remote regions.

The list of disadvantages could be supplemented by a lack of motivation, problems with assessment, and academic or educational integrity. However, it should be noted that the list of advantages is significantly longer than the list of disadvantages. Given the lack of choice in learning modes in emergency situations, such as pandemics and wars, when the only way to conduct the learning process is remotely, digital technologies have moved from being optional to being essential learning tools.

Some works describe the challenges of using digital technologies in more detail. In the study ‘Language Learning in the Digital Age: Teachers' Opinions and Challenges,’ the author notes that the main challenges for English teachers were insufficient teacher training, lack of time and resources for the effective use of digital learning, and the creation of their own digital media in the school educational space (Anggeraini, 2020). In another study devoted to the challenges of distance learning, researchers identified the main challenge as the insufficient readiness of all participants in the educational process to use digital technologies at the beginning of the pandemic, i.e., insufficient digital competence (Bezliudnyi et al., 2022).

When reviewing sources on the use of digital technology in various fields, we paid particular attention to the area of foreign language learning. In the work ‘The use of digital technology in foreign language learning’, the authors emphasise the improvement of digital skills among learners, the wide range of opportunities for

using the Internet, as well as audiovisual aids and software from various resources to complete homework assignments, exercises, and expand their knowledge of the subject discussed in class. The researchers also note that if learners use digital technologies purposefully, they are on the path to achieving independence, becoming self-reliant and self-regulated in their learning (Bećirović et al. 2021).

The last dimension we have highlighted is access to resources and their relevance to educational needs. During distance learning, it became clear that regardless of whether the mode is synchronous or asynchronous, the primary requirement is the availability of a gadget and the Internet, which, according to the definition given in this section, constitute the concept of digital technology. If these two components are available, it is possible to teach using digital technologies, provided that both the teacher and the students have access to them. The problem of resource suitability can be included in the list of both the advantages and disadvantages of using DT and depends on the professionalism of the teacher, who must use their own judgement to select the appropriate resources for use in class.

A detailed description of this problem can be found in a study on the implementation of digital technologies in the process of teaching English, which identifies the general obstacles that led to the avoidance of digital technologies in the process of language teaching in the pre-distance learning period. The main reason was the practical lack of material resources. For successful implementation, several material factors were necessary: gadgets (computers, tablets, laptops or smartphones), access to the internet for both teachers and secondary school students (both in class and at home). In the absence of at least one of these factors, training English teachers in digital technologies becomes meaningless, as their application becomes impossible (Kolisnichenko, 2019). The same work explains the obstacles that teachers encounter directly in relation to the choice of software. The work points to the need to adhere to certain principles: accessibility, suitability for the age and language proficiency of students, relevance to the subject, etc. To solve this problem, teachers should take advantage of professional development programmes, i.e. attend

relevant training workshops and webinars, and use podcasts recommended by the Ministry of Education and international organisations (Kolisnichenko, 2019).

Analysis of scientific sources has enabled us to explore the meaning of the concept of 'digital technologies', the essence of which lies in combining ways and means of using computerised resources. The role of specialised schools in introducing digital technologies into the educational process has been outlined. We managed to compile a list of aspects that have been the subject of scientific research on the use of digital technologies, which revealed significant scientific interest in the specifics of applying digital technologies both in education in general and in foreign language teaching in particular. We will examine this issue in more detail in the next section. Collectively, these findings illustrate that the integration of digital technologies and the development of digital competence are essential conditions for the modernisation of education and the professional growth of future foreign language teachers.

3.2.2. The Concept of Digital Competence in Education.

The conceptual origins of *digital competence* can be traced through the progressive expansion of related terms, including *computer literacy*, *digital literacy*, and *digital pedagogy*. Computer literacy was the earliest of these notions, originally referring to the ability to use computers effectively. It ranged from basic operational use to more advanced skills such as programming and troubleshooting, emphasising practical, hands-on familiarity with hardware and software (Dictionary.com). As technology and media evolved, the focus shifted toward digital literacy, which encompasses not only technical proficiency but also the critical and confident use of a wide range of digital technologies, including online and mobile platforms. This concept encompasses cognitive and communicative dimensions, including evaluating, creating, and sharing information responsibly in digital contexts (UNESCO UIS, 2022).

Building on this foundation, digital competence extends beyond digital literacy by incorporating the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and ethical awareness necessary to perform tasks, solve problems, and engage effectively in digital environments. It reflects a holistic ability to communicate, collaborate, and participate meaningfully in professional and social life. Recognised as one of the key lifelong learning competences in the European framework, digital competence underlines the importance of ethical and responsible technology use in education and beyond (Soby, 2013; Inamorato dos Santos et al., 2023).

The most recent conceptual development in this trajectory is digital pedagogy, which focuses on how digital technologies can enhance or transform teaching and learning processes. It moves beyond the simple integration of tools into instruction and instead promotes a rethinking of educational goals, curricula, and methods in light of digital transformation. Definitions offered by Livresq (2025) emphasize that digital pedagogy is both a reflective and practical approach to reimagining learning for the digital age. Understanding this conceptual progression – from computer literacy to digital pedagogy – helps frame how teacher education programmes can cultivate not only technical proficiency but also deeper, reflective digital skills. For future foreign language teachers in particular, this means developing digital competence as a dynamic synthesis of technological, pedagogical, and ethical awareness. These definitions provide the opportunity to summarise the differences observed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Comparative table summarising the distinctions

Concept	Focus	Scope	Context/Use
Computer Literacy	Basic computer and technology operational skills	Using and understanding computers and software	Foundational technology skills

Table 3.1(Continued)

Digital Literacy	Ability to use and critically evaluate digital content	Technical, cognitive, social-emotional skills for digital media	Individual skills for digital communication and information use
Digital Competence	Integration of multiple literacies for problem-solving	Combination of info, computer, media, communication literacies	Competence for digital citizenship and knowledge society
Digital Pedagogy	Teaching and learning with digital technologies	Educational design, implementation, evaluation using digital tools	Education, pedagogy, teaching strategies

The evolution of the concepts "computer literacy," "digital literacy," "digital competence," and "digital pedagogy" reflects the expanding role of digital technologies in society and education. Initially, in the 1980s, "computer literacy" emerged as a term describing the foundational skills needed to operate computers and basic software. This concept was primarily technical and skill-based. In the 1990s, with the rise of the internet, the term "digital literacy" was coined to encapsulate not just technical skills but also the critical ability to find, evaluate, and use information effectively in digital formats. Scientists notably emphasized that digital literacy involves mastering ideas rather than mere keystrokes, signaling a shift towards cognitive and evaluative skills (Campanozzi et al., 2023). Over time, digital literacy has expanded to include social, emotional, and cultural dimensions as digital technologies became ubiquitous. Building on digital literacy, "digital competence" emerged as a broader concept encompassing multiple literacies (information, media, communication, and computer literacies) integrated to solve problems and participate

ethically in digital society. Finally, "digital pedagogy" represents the application and study of these digital skills and literacies within teaching and learning, focusing on how technology transforms educational practices and methodologies. Thus, these concepts are interconnected, with computer literacy as a foundational technical skill set evolving into the more holistic digital literacy and competence frameworks, culminating in digital pedagogy as the educational implementation of these evolving digital capabilities. (Havrilova & Topolnik, 2017).

The urgent societal requirement has led to an increase in terminology, and to the initial concepts of digital literacy, computer literacy, ICT literacy some more terms were added: Internet literacy, information literacy, and media literacy. This fragmentation presents a substantial challenge, creating confusion in educational policy and hindering cross-border competence assessment and curriculum standardisation. While these terms often share underlying principles, their distinct academic origins and the specific dimensions they emphasise lead to subtle yet crucial differences in their scope and application. For instance, studies concerning ‘digital competence’ are frequently conducted in European countries, while those focusing on ‘digital literacy’ are often associated with English-speaking countries, although translation issues sometimes blur this distinction (Zhao et al., 2021).

The underlying conceptual premise of this analysis proposes a hierarchical structure aimed at clarifying terminological ambiguity. Within this framework, Digital Competence (DC) is positioned as a comprehensive, overarching construct that encompasses confident, critical, and responsible interaction with technology. This competence is supported by Information and Communication Technology Competence (ICTC), which ensures the functional and technical capacity for technological operations. Simultaneously, it incorporates Information Literacy (IL) and Media Literacy (ML), frequently consolidated under the term Media and Information Literacy (MIL), the aim of which is to provide the cognitive and critical dimensions required for informed content assessment and ethical use.

Having conducted a retrospective study of the use of digital technologies in the process of teaching English, we can conclude that the process of introducing these

technologies began at the end of the last century and began to develop very quickly. Countries with a better economic situation due to a larger share of funding for education have been ahead of the rest of the countries in the implementation of digital technologies. In Ukraine, the policy of digitalisation has been actively spreading in recent years. In general, the transition to digital education became sharp and forced due to the beginning of the pandemic and levelled the situation with the use of digital technologies in education. Needing to ensure the quality of education, governments have financed educational institutions as much as possible to provide them with all the necessary means. As for our country, international organisations, together with the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, have created a number of projects to improve the digital competence of foreign language teachers, which have significantly affected the quality of education in educational institutions of all levels.

Section 3.3. Content Updating of FL Pre-service Teachers' Professional Training

3.3.1. Integrating Digital Technologies and Competence Development into Modern Language Education

The integration of digital technologies into foreign language teaching has evolved in parallel with their broader introduction into the educational process, directly contributing to the formation of digital competence among both teachers and learners. It is difficult to assert the primacy of any single educational field in this regard; however, foreign language education, particularly English, has demonstrated a heightened demand for digitalisation due to the need for authentic materials and interaction with native speakers. These factors have significantly enhanced the effectiveness of foreign language instruction by fostering learners' ability to access, evaluate, and apply digital content critically and responsibly, key dimensions of digital competence (DC). Ukrainian scholarship has thoroughly examined the

development of the information society, as reflected in national conceptual frameworks assessing the impact of digital technologies on education (Bykov, 2019).

However, by the second decade of the 21st century, educational digitalisation had evolved beyond mere access to technology. The focus shifted toward developing the ability to effectively use, create, and critically engage with digital content, reflecting a transition from technological provision to pedagogical integration. This shift corresponds to the broader process of developing digital competence, wherein functional ICT skills merge with higher-order cognitive and critical skills characteristic of Information Literacy and Media Literacy, collectively referred to as Media and Information Literacy.

In Ukraine, the trajectory of digital transformation in education was more gradual, shaped by economic constraints at the turn of the 20th and 21st centuries. Government initiatives sought to equip schools with computers to enable the teaching of "Informatics." Nevertheless, the implementation of digital technologies in other subjects, including English, remained limited due to insufficient resources and the absence of specialised software. The early 2000s witnessed the emergence of modern English textbooks created by native speakers, introducing communicative methodologies that emphasised authentic interaction and contextualised language use. Despite financial limitations, Ukrainian teachers and learners gradually adopted these innovations, marking the initial stages of integrating digital tools into foreign language education. Over time, these efforts laid the foundation for the adoption of online learning platforms and interactive resources, enabling the systematic development of digital competence through real-world language practice and autonomous learning. Collaborative partnerships with international organisations such as the British Council (established in Ukraine in 1998) and TESOL-Ukraine (founded in 1995) further promoted the professional development of teachers, fostering both methodological innovation and digital literacy in the process.

In the context of rapid digitalisation of education, preparing future foreign language teachers not only for linguistic and pedagogical challenges but also for effective use of digital technologies is a critical task. Digital competence for

educators can be defined as “the confident, critical and creative use of ICT to achieve goals related to work, employability, learning, leisure, inclusion and/or participation in society” (Redecker, 2017). Thus, the evolution of digital technologies in foreign language education not only transformed pedagogical approaches but also became a catalyst for cultivating digital competence as a meta-competence, integrating technical proficiency, critical awareness, and ethical engagement with digital resources in the context of global communication.

Among the most effective projects of the British Council, it is worth noting the project “School Teacher of the New Generation”, the purpose of which was to create and implement a new program for training English teachers in higher pedagogical educational institutions of Ukraine (British Council Ukraine, n.d.; NAIR., 2020). In the context of our study, we drew attention to the Standard Program for Teaching English Language Methods, which was developed as a result of the project and contains the module “Using Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in Teaching English”, which involves raising the level of digital competence, which was a component of the general methodological training of an English teacher (British Council Ukraine, n.d.).

Further, we intend to describe the case study of digital competence development on the basis of a pre-service course for FL future teachers at Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University. The content of the specified module “Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in Learning and Teaching English” provided a list of necessary topics for study within the framework of the academic discipline “Methodology of Teaching English Language”, which are given below:

- ICT and learning technologies (LT)
- Modern LT and their relevance to the educational process
- The use of different software for teaching and learning purposes
- The use of learning platforms (e.g. Moodle)
- The notion of a ‘flipped’ classroom and its benefits; traditional vs flipped teaching

- Social networking and microblogging
- Selection and evaluation of websites
- Listening and speaking with online audio, podcasts etc.
- Listening and speaking with online video
- Online writing (wikis, blogging)
- Cyber well-being
- Interactive whiteboards
- Mobile learning

The results of studying this module enabled future foreign language teachers to form some digital competence for the use of technology in their work (basic education institutions). Of course, there were some doubts about whether these skills are enough for the full formation of digital competence; however, this base was considered enough at the initial stage of work in basic education institutions. After 4 years of delivering this module, it became evident that a single module was insufficient to ensure the adequate formation of digital competence among future foreign language teachers. Consequently, in response to the needs and expectations of students, as well as in alignment with contemporary requirements for foreign language education, a decision was made to expand the curriculum by increasing the number of instructional hours devoted to digital technologies. As a result, a separate course entitled “Digital Technologies in Foreign Language Teaching” was introduced into the teacher training program for bachelors at Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University.

3.3.2. New subjects in the FL Teacher's Training Curricular: Digital Technologies in Foreign Language Teaching

The course Digital Tools in Foreign Language Teaching is designed precisely to address the need by integrating typical tasks aimed at developing digital-competence components in pre-service teachers of foreign languages. The structure

of this section is as follows: first, an outline of the course framework and its relation to digital competence areas; second, a classification of typical tasks and the mechanism by which each task fosters specific competence domains; third, methodological implications for teacher education programmes; and finally, a summary and conclusions about the effectiveness of such approaches for professional readiness.

The content of this new subject includes the most important aspects in teaching foreign languages with digital technologies, which are directly related to the digital competence of pre-service teachers. In particular, future teachers who are supposed to work in specialised educational institutions will clearly realise the advantages and disadvantages of performing tasks using computer technologies and will choose modes that are more acceptable for achieving the expected results. The focus of this subject is not only on teaching what tools are beneficial or how to use them, but on promoting students' motivation to raise their digital competence by fostering autonomy. In the context of digital competence formation, pre-service teachers will gain the following skills:

- use various software for multimedia (e.g., MSWord, PowerPoint, Google Slides, Gamma AI) for language learning and educational purposes;
- use and create social networking sites, blogs, wikis, etc. for language learning;
- work out the criteria for evaluating and selecting online resources for language learning purposes, which is extremely important, given the large amount of resources that are currently available;
- assess the potential of online audio and video for language learning purposes;
- assess possible risks of using the Internet and develop a set of rules for cybersecurity;
- use current trends in mobile learning and be able to use mobile phones for learning;
- create video instructions or other educational materials for language learning;
- plan the lessons for different modes.

The European Framework for the Digital Competence of Educators (European Commission, n.d.) is a scientifically sound framework describing what it means for educators to be digitally competent. It provides a general reference frame to support the development of educator-specific digital competences in Europe (seen in the Figure 3.1).

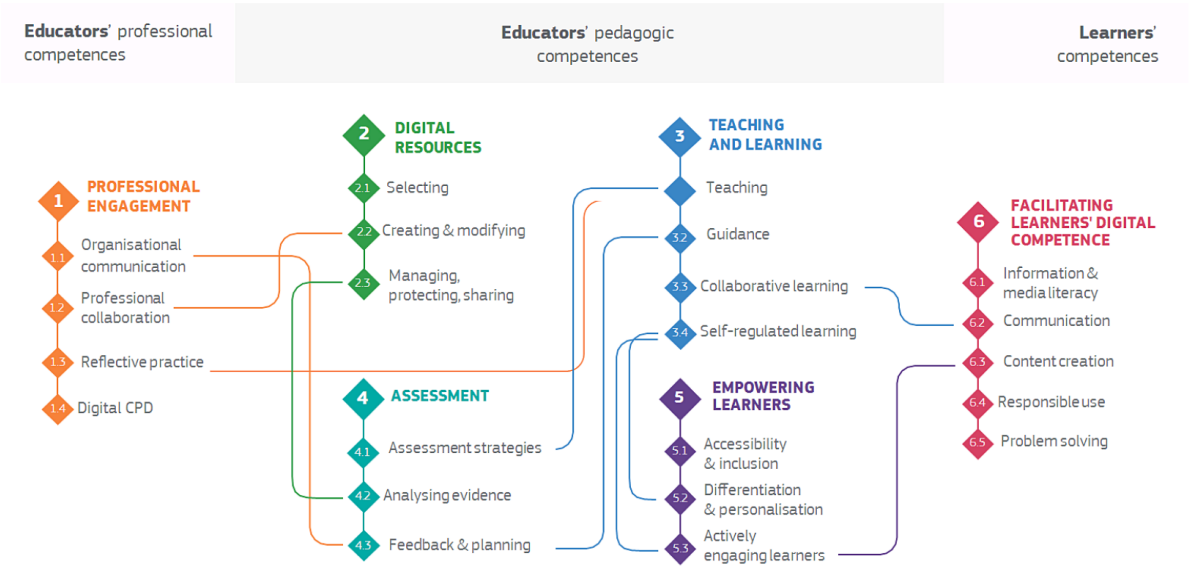


Figure 3.1. DigCompEdu 22 competences

The course Digital Tools in Foreign Language Teaching addresses several competence areas which correspond to the six areas of DigCompEdu:

1. Professional Engagement: using digital technologies for professional communication, collaboration and continuous development.

2. Digital Resources: selecting, creating, managing digital resources for teaching and learning.

3. Teaching and Learning: designing and implementing learning experiences using digital technologies.

4. Assessment: use of digital technologies to monitor, assess and support learning.

5. Empowering Learners: fostering learners' digital competence and inclusive practices.

6. Facilitating Learners' Digital Competence: enabling students to become confident and responsible users of digital technologies. (European Commission, n.d.). Within the context of preparing future foreign language teachers, the course aligns tasks with these domains. For example, when a student-teacher creates a digital vocabulary game for language learners, the activity simultaneously engages the "Digital Resources" by creating/managing the game and the "Empowering Learners" domains by enabling learners to engage with digital tools. The methodological goal is not only to train students to use tools, but to reflect on their pedagogical application, ethical/secure use of digital content, and their role in facilitating learners' digital competence.

Typical Tasks and Their Role in Competence Development. Developing digital competence in future foreign language teachers requires the deliberate use of pedagogical tasks that integrate technology, communication, and reflection. Within the course Digital Tools in Foreign Language Teaching, tasks are not viewed as isolated technical exercises, but as pedagogical scenarios that simulate authentic teaching experiences in digital environments. Each task type serves a dual purpose: it enhances students' own digital literacy while modelling how technology can be meaningfully embedded into language education. The design of these tasks is guided by the principles of experiential and constructivist learning. Students acquire knowledge and skills through active engagement, experimentation, and reflection on digital practices. Tasks are typically performance-based, problem-oriented, and collaborative. They progress from lower-order skills such as recognising and using digital tools to higher-order competences like evaluating, adapting, and designing technology-enhanced lessons. In this way, the task sequence corresponds to the developmental levels defined in the European Framework for the Digital Competence of Educators, from "newcomer" to "expert." Five major types of tasks can be identified in this course:

1. Digital Resource Tasks, focused on the selection, adaptation, and evaluation of digital materials;

2. Collaborative Design Tasks, centred on creating technology-enhanced lessons in groups;

3. Learner-Creation Tasks, which involve facilitating students' own production of digital artefacts;

4. Digital Assessment Tasks, aimed at developing competence in online testing and feedback;

5. Ethics and Safety Tasks, which raise awareness of responsible, inclusive, and secure digital practices.

6. Reflective and Analytical Tasks focused on encouraging learners to reflect on their digital habits, analyzing the role of technology, and assessing their digital literacy.

7. Problem-Solving and Case-Based Tasks which present real-life teaching scenarios requiring digital solutions.

8. Autonomous Learning Tasks, aimed to promote self-directed learning and use of personal learning environments (PLEs).

Together, these interconnected task types provide a coherent framework for developing multifaceted digital competence. They transform the pre-service teacher from a passive user of technology into a reflective designer of digitally enriched learning experiences, capable of guiding future learners in a technology-driven world. The examples of some typical activities are given below, accompanied by description and contribution to competence development.

Task Type 1: Digital Resource Selection and Adaptation Tasks. Students are given a range of digital tools (e.g., online dictionaries, corpora, mobile apps, video-editing tools) and asked to select those appropriate for a given language teaching scenario (e.g., vocabulary acquisition for A2 learners), adapt them (e.g., customise interface, add instructional supports), and justify their selection in a reflective short report or do peer assessment using criteria. The task directly engages the teacher-trainee in evaluating tools, making decisions about fit for purpose, and modifying them. The reflective short report fosters self-assessment of digital choices, promoting awareness of how tool choice aligns with pedagogical aims. By adapting tools,

students begin to design learning experiences that exploit digital affordances rather than simply replicate traditional ones. While adapting tools, students are made aware of copyright issues, data privacy, and accessibility – thus incorporating foundational aspects of safe and ethical digital practice. By structuring this task early in the course, teacher-trainees build confidence in digital resource management, which provides a foundation for more complex tasks. The example of the task is seen in Figures 3.2, 3.3.

HOME ASSIGNMENT

Selecting the Right Platform for Delayed Interaction

1. Work in small groups.

2. Explore one or two tools for creating forums. (Moodle forums, Google Classroom, Padlet, Flipgrid, Google Chat).

3. Analyze the chosen tool using these guiding questions:

a. What are the main features?

b. How can it support delayed interaction?

c. What are its strengths and weaknesses in an FL context?

4. Create a forum. You can use the following scenarios (or create others):

a. A beginner-level FL class where students need to practice writing short paragraphs and responding to peers.

b. An advanced-level FL class where students must discuss cultural topics using multimedia (text, images, or video).

c. A mixed-level FL class where students need a collaborative space to work on a group project.

5. Select the tool(s) you believe are the most suitable for the given scenario and justify your choice.

6. Present your recommendations and rationale

Figure 3.2. Example of Task Type 1 for practising

This activity effectively fosters several dimensions of students' digital competence. By exploring and comparing different online platforms for delayed interaction, future foreign language teachers develop the ability to select and evaluate digital resources critically. The analysis of features, pedagogical affordances, and limitations promotes technological and pedagogical decision-making, encouraging reflection on how digital tools support communication and collaboration in language learning. Creating and moderating a forum provides hands-on experience with online interaction design, strengthening students' confidence in facilitating asynchronous communication. Furthermore, discussing the suitability of tools for specific learner levels cultivates learner-centred thinking and adaptability – key traits of digitally competent educators. The group-based format enhances collaboration and professional engagement, while the justification stage develops critical reflection and responsible use of digital technologies. Overall, the task integrates practical, analytical, and ethical aspects essential for future teachers' holistic digital competence.

One more activity (see Figure 3.3) contributes to the development of several core components of students' digital competence. By searching for and critically evaluating new online resources, future foreign language teachers enhance their ability to identify, select, and assess digital materials for pedagogical purposes. The use of an evaluation rubric promotes systematic analysis, encouraging students to consider factors such as usability, accessibility, authenticity, and pedagogical value. Preparing a reflection on the potential integration of the resource into remote teaching environments fosters reflective practice and awareness of contextual suitability. It also enhances their professional judgement regarding digital tool adoption and adaptation for diverse learner needs. Furthermore, reflecting on personal decisions about using the resource nurtures responsible and purposeful engagement with technology. Overall, the task integrates exploration, evaluation, and reflection, cultivating a balanced, critical, and pedagogically grounded approach to digital resource use.

HOME ASSIGNMENT

▪ *Find a new website or online resource for teaching your second foreign language and evaluate it using the provided rubric.*

▪ *Prepare a brief reflection on whether you would use this resource in your remote teaching and why.*

Figure 3.3. Example of Task Type 1 for assessment

Task Type 2: Collaborative and Interactive Tasks. Working in small groups, students design a foreign-language lesson (e.g., for practising speaking and listening skills) that uses a blended learning model: a flipped-classroom video created by the students, followed by an interactive online quiz, and concluding with a synchronous online discussion. The students share roles (video creation, quiz authoring, discussion moderation), use cloud collaboration tools, and present their design to peers for feedback. The production of a video and quiz engages both resource creation and teaching design. Students move from consumer to producer of digital content. Through the lesson design, teacher-trainees consider how their learners will use digital tools; this encourages them to embed tasks that support learners' digital skills. Peer review and presentation require reflection and evaluative thinking; the group receives feedback digitally, which feeds into professional development. Technical issues as video format, hosting the quiz, synchronising online, provide authentic opportunities for problem-solving in digital contexts, linking to the DigCompEdu dimension of "Digital problem solving" (European Commission, n.d.) This type of collaborative design task moves students beyond tool usage to pedagogical integration, fostering higher levels of digital competence. Several examples of this type of activity are seen in the figures below (see figures 3.4, 3.5, 3.6). The focus of this activity is on developing students' digital competence by engaging them in lesson design across different teaching modalities – face-to-face, online, and hybrid.

ACTIVITY 4

▪ *Work in new groups. Read two lesson plans for face-to-face (table 3) and distance (table 4)modes compiled for senior school learners who study English with the High Note 3 book.*

▪ *Fill in Table 5 for the hybrid lesson on the same topic.*

Figure 3.4. Task type 2: Collaborative lesson design task

By analysing existing lesson plans and then creating a hybrid version, future foreign language teachers enhance their understanding of how digital technologies can complement traditional instruction. The process of comparison encourages critical thinking about the pedagogical affordances and constraints of each mode, fostering technological-pedagogical flexibility and adaptability. Designing the hybrid lesson requires selecting appropriate digital tools and integrating them meaningfully into classroom activities, which contributes to competence in digital resource management and instructional design. Collaboration within new groups further develops professional engagement and digital communication skills. Ultimately, this task cultivates teachers' ability to balance online and offline components effectively, ensuring continuity of learning and learner engagement in technology-enriched environments – an essential attribute of digitally competent educators.

ACTIVITY 5

▪ *Work in groups.*

▪ *Design a forum-based activity for a remote FL classroom, incorporating delayed interaction.*

▪ *Include instructions, clear expectations, and assessment criteria.*

▪ *Share your ideas, and the class should be ready to provide feedback.*

Figure 3.5. Task type 2: Collaborative forum design

This group-based activity promotes the development of students' digital pedagogical design skills by engaging them in creating a forum-based task for a remote foreign language classroom. The completed assignments are presented in Appendix C. By designing an activity that incorporates delayed interaction, students learn to facilitate asynchronous communication – a key component of online and blended learning. Developing clear instructions, expectations, and assessment criteria encourages structured thinking and transparency in digital task design, aligning with principles of effective online pedagogy. The use of digital forums enhances students' ability to select and adapt appropriate digital resources for communicative and collaborative purposes. Group collaboration supports professional engagement and peer learning, while the feedback stage fosters reflective practice and continuous improvement. Overall, this task integrates practical tool use with pedagogical reasoning, preparing future foreign language teachers to design meaningful, inclusive, and well-managed online interaction activities that promote learner participation and autonomy.

ACTIVITY 4

- *Work in groups.*
- *Design an activity for an online FL class that fosters learner autonomy.*

Activities should:

✓ Incorporate digital tools (e.g., Quizlet, Menti, Padlet).

✓ Enable learners to set goals, reflect on progress, or collaborate with peers.

Figure 3.6. Task type 2: Collaborative activity design

This collaborative task enhances students' ability to design learner-centred digital activities that promote autonomy in online foreign language classrooms. By creating an activity that incorporates digital tools such as Quizlet, Menti, or Padlet, students develop skills in selecting and pedagogically adapting digital resources to foster self-directed learning. The requirement to include goal setting, reflection, or peer collaboration deepens understanding of motivational and metacognitive aspects of

online learning, aligning with DigCompEdu Area 3: Teaching and Learning and Area 5: Empowering Learners (European Commission, n.d.). Working in groups reinforces digital collaboration and professional communication, while the focus on reflection supports critical awareness of learner progress and feedback mechanisms. Through this activity, future teachers gain experience in designing technology-enhanced environments that balance guidance with learner independence, preparing them to create online lessons where students take responsibility for their progress and actively engage in meaningful, interactive language learning.

Task Type 3: Design and Production Tasks Students assign their foreign-language learners (or simulate learners) to produce a digital artefact, such as a short podcast or blog post in the target language, using digital tools (e.g., audio recorder, editing software, blogging platform). Teacher-trainees then evaluate the artefact, provide digital collaborative feedback, and write a reflective commentary on how the artefact supported both language learning and digital competence of the learners. Figures below depict examples of type 3 activities. The teacher-trainee acts as facilitator of learner creation of digital content, aligning with DigCompEdu Area 3 and Area 6. (European Commission, n.d.) By assigning a digital artefact to learners (simulated learners), teacher-trainees actively embed tasks that enable learners to develop their own digital competence. The reflective commentary fosters digital literacy and reflexivity in the teacher-trainee. They must consider questions of usability, accessibility, copyright, and ethical use of digital content. The task naturally prompts reflection on digital citizenship: how learners' artefacts are shared, commented on, and stored; teacher-trainees must ensure safe and responsible digital interaction. In our opinion, this task is particularly valuable because it foregrounds the teachers' roles not only as tool users but as designers of tasks that build learners' digital agency and language competence simultaneously.This activity strengthens students' digital communication and content creation skills by engaging them in microblogging in the target language. By selecting a topic relevant to language learning and integrating multimedia elements such as images, GIFs, and hashtags,

students develop competence in producing engaging and authentic digital content. (See figure 3.7).

PRACTICAL WORK 4.

▪ *Create a microblogging post in the target language on a chosen platform, following these steps:*

✓ *Choose a topic relevant to language learning (e.g., cultural tips, idioms, travel vocabulary).*

✓ *Include multimedia (images, GIFs, hashtags).*

✓ *Share the posts in the group. Provide constructive feedback on language, engagement, and creativity.*

Figure 3.7. Task type 3: Microblog creating

Sharing posts within the group and providing feedback promotes interaction, collaboration, and peer assessment. The task also encourages creativity, linguistic accuracy, and intercultural awareness, as learners must adapt language and visuals to suit an online audience. Moreover, by reflecting on audience engagement and message clarity, students enhance their understanding of digital identity and responsible online communication. So, this activity integrates language practice with digital literacy, helping future teachers model effective and ethical online communication for their learners.

PRACTICAL WORK 6.

▪ *Work in groups.*

▪ *Record a short video (3-4 mins) with the help of your smartphones for the next home lecture on one of the following topics:*

➢ *The use of the Present Perfect*

➢ *Present Perfect and Past Simple*

▪ *Send the videos to teacher's email or post in the group chat.*

▪ *Play the videos and discuss the content.*

Figure 3.8. Task type 3: Video creating

This practical activity develops students' digital content creation and pedagogical communication skills through the production of short instructional videos. Working collaboratively, students record a 3- to 4-minute video explaining a grammar topic, such as the Present Perfect or the difference between the Present Perfect and the Past Simple. The process of scripting, filming, and editing encourages creative use of digital tools and fosters confidence in presenting linguistic material through technology. By using smartphones and simple editing applications, students experience how low-threshold technologies can effectively support language instruction in remote or blended contexts. Sharing videos via email or chat promotes digital collaboration and peer learning, while class discussion and feedback reinforce reflection and evaluative judgement. This task enhances both digital fluency and methodological awareness, preparing future teachers to design engaging video-based lessons that combine clarity, creativity, and pedagogical precision.

Task Type 4: Digital Assessment Design and Analysis. Students design a digital formative assessment for a foreign language skills lesson (e.g., a self-checking grammar quiz with immediate feedback, peer review of speaking recordings, or analytics of mobile app usage). Then they collect mock data (or real learner data), interpret the results (e.g., engagement analytics, error patterns), and propose modifications to the teaching/learning design based on the data. The task aligns squarely with DigCompEdu Area 4. (European Commission, n.d.). Students must consider the digital design of assessments, data collection, and feedback. This encourages deeper technical and analytical competence. Students learn to adapt pedagogy based on digital insights, which is increasingly relevant for modern language teaching. Reflection on data encourages teacher-trainees to engage in their own professional development cycle: design, monitor, and adapt. Issues such as data privacy, learner consent, and accessibility of assessment tasks require consideration of ethical and technical aspects of digital assessment. By offering insight into analytics and feedback loops, this task helps future teachers to harness digital tools not simply for programming but for pedagogical enhancement. The example of this activity is provided in Appendix E.

Task Type 5: Designing a Digital Safety and Ethics Workshop. As a capstone assignment, students design and deliver a short workshop (to peer-teachers or simulated learners) on digital safety and ethics in foreign-language contexts (for example: safe use of video conferencing, protecting learner data, digital citizenship in social media language practice). They produce digital materials (slides, an interactive quiz, a collaborative discussion board), deliver the workshop online, collect feedback, and evaluate its effectiveness. Creating and delivering digital workshop materials engages resource creation and teaching practice. The workshop delivery and peer feedback promote professional interaction and sharing of best practices. This task directly addresses DigCompEdu Area 6.4 ("Responsible use") and the ethical dimensions of digital teaching/learning (European Commission, n.d.)

The session context includes managing technical delivery, moderating online discussion, and troubleshooting – thus providing authentic problem-solving experiences in a digital educational setting. Through feedback and reflection, students engage in higher levels of digital competence, approaching B2 or beyond in the DigCompEdu progression (European Commission, n.d.). This task synthesises previous competence domains and reinforces the holistic nature of digital competence: technical, pedagogical, ethical, reflective and collaborative. The example of this activity is given in Appendix A. This group activity encourages active participation, collaboration, and problem-solving, which are essential for developing digital competence in teacher education. Pre-service teachers engage critically with digital ethics and safety themes, reinforcing their cognitive and motivational digital skills through peer interaction and shared responsibility. Focusing the workshop on relevant digital citizenship topics such as data protection, copyright, digital identity, and ethical communication aligns digital competence with real-world issues. Embedding these issues in the foreign language learning context helps teachers understand how to foster safe, ethical, and inclusive digital environments for their future students. Creating interactive materials using digital tools (Canva, Kahoot, Mentimeter, etc.) enhances technical digital skills and pedagogical digital knowledge. The reflective component, where participants

develop ‘digital golden rules’, cultivates ethical awareness and responsible digital behaviour. This reflection fosters critical thinking about digital citizenship responsibilities, essential for professional conduct in education. In conclusion, this activity is an effective pedagogical strategy to build comprehensive digital competence, including safety and ethics, in pre-service teachers. It integrates theoretical knowledge, digital tool use, collaborative learning, and reflective practices essential for modern digital teaching environments in foreign language contexts.

Task Type 6: Reflective and Analytical Tasks. Reflective and analytical tasks in the Manual Digital Tools play a crucial role in developing future teachers’ awareness of digital literacy and their ability to critically evaluate the role of technology in education. These tasks require students to think deeply about their personal experiences with digital tools, analyze how technology shapes learning processes, and assess both its benefits and challenges. By engaging in reflective discussions, self-assessment activities, and analytical comparisons, learners move beyond simple tool usage to understanding why and how technology should be integrated into teaching. For instance, activities such as “How has the use of digital technologies impacted your daily life?” or “What is the role of technology in your learning?” stimulate self-examination of digital habits and promote critical thinking.

LEAD-IN (1-2-4 ACTIVITY):

▪ Think over the possible answers to the following questions.

▪ Discuss the questions with your partner and then in a group of 4. Share the common ideas with the whole group.

- ❖ How has the use of digital technologies impacted your daily life?
- ❖ How digital technologies help to you in your learning?
- ❖ How did the use of digital technologies change the way you interact with teachers and group mates?

Figure 3.9. Task type 6: Reflective task example

Through reflection, students identify their strengths and areas for improvement in digital competence. Analytical components, such as evaluating different types of technologies or comparing platforms, help them make informed pedagogical choices. Ultimately, reflective and analytical tasks foster metacognitive awareness, encouraging future educators to view technology not just as an instrument but as a transformative element in the learning environment. This mindset is fundamental for developing responsible, innovative, and adaptive teachers in the digital age. The results of the reflection task are given in Appendix B.

Task Type 7: Problem-Solving and Case-Based Tasks. Problem-solving and case-based tasks are designed to engage future teachers in authentic, real-life situations that require them to apply digital knowledge, creativity, and critical thinking to find effective solutions. In the Manual Digital Tools, such tasks include analyzing classroom scenarios, identifying challenges related to the use of technology, and proposing strategies to overcome them. For example, the case study about teacher's difficulties (Figure 4.11) in selecting appropriate online tools prompts learners to assess digital options, evaluate their pedagogical value, and justify their decisions.

ACTIVITY 5

▪ Read the case study. Suggest solutions:

Ms. Olha Korol is a dedicated fifth-grade English teacher in Uman, Ukraine. She is renowned for her engaging lessons, innovative teaching methods, and exceptional lesson-planning skills. However, the teacher faces a significant challenge: selecting the most suitable online tools to enhance her classroom instruction. Despite her expertise in traditional teaching methods, Ms. Korol finds it time-consuming and frustrating to identify the ideal online tools for her fifth-grade students. The vast array of educational technology options available can be overwhelming, leading to confusion and inefficiency in her tool selection process.

▪ What technology is the teacher good at, and with what does she have problems?

Figure 3.10. Case Study solving task example

These tasks simulate realistic teaching contexts in which digital tools must be selected, adapted, and implemented to achieve specific educational objectives. Through collaborative discussion and evidence-based reasoning, students learn to make informed choices, balance technological possibilities with pedagogical needs, and anticipate possible challenges such as technical issues or learner engagement barriers. These activities enhance future teachers' ability to critically assess digital resources, apply technology to solve instructional problems, and reflect on their professional digital practices. Moreover, problem-solving tasks foster adaptability, decision-making, and innovation – core aspects of digital competence that prepare teachers to integrate technology purposefully and confidently in dynamic, technology-enhanced learning environments.

Task Type 8: Autonomous Learning Tasks. These tasks are designed to foster self-directed learning, enabling future teachers to take responsibility for their own educational progress while utilizing digital tools and resources. They encourage students to explore, manage, and evaluate their own learning processes, often through independent use of online platforms, learning management systems (LMS), or personal learning environments (PLEs). For example, in Session 8, learners are asked to reflect on and develop strategies for promoting learner autonomy in distance learning, encouraging them to think critically about how technology can support independent study and self-motivation. Autonomous Learning Tasks provide students with opportunities to practice organizing their learning schedules, selecting appropriate digital resources, and tracking their own progress. The example of this task is provided below in Figure 3.11.

ACTIVITY 4
- Work in groups.
- Design an activity for an online FL class that fosters learner autonomy.

Activities should:
✓ Incorporate digital tools (e.g., Quizlet, Duolingo, Padlet).
✓ Enable learners to set goals, reflect on progress, or collaborate with peers

Figure 3.11. ***Autonomous Learning t*****ask example**

Through engaging with digital tools that support self-regulated learning, such as digital calendars, task trackers, or online quizzes, future teachers become better equipped to guide their students toward greater autonomy in their learning journeys. The impact of these tasks on digital competence (DTC) development is profound, as they directly enhance self-management and independent learning skills. Learners develop the ability to make informed decisions about digital tools, access resources, and create personalized learning paths. Additionally, they build confidence in navigating digital platforms independently, which is essential for both their own professional growth and for supporting students in cultivating their digital literacy and autonomy in a digital world. In Appendix F, the examples of students' autonomous work are presented, illustrating tasks that involve the design and implementation of a web quest.

3.3.3. Methodological Implications for Teacher Education

From the analysis of these tasks, several methodological implications for teacher education programmes emerge. It is beneficial to sequence tasks from resource selection (Task 1) through collaborative design (Task 2), learner-artefact facilitation (Task 3), assessment design (Task 4), and finally ethics/safety workshop (Task 5). This mirrors developmental progression described by DigCompEdu (from newcomer to integrator and expert) (European Commission, n.d.). Although the participants of the course are future teachers, tasks require them to design for learners' digital competence (Task 3). This shift from teacher-as-user to teacher-as-designer aligns with modern conceptions of teacher digital agency. Tasks must simulate or use real digital environments (videos, cloud platforms, analytics, collaboration tools) rather than purely theoretical exercises. Authentic contexts increase relevance and motivation, supporting better transfer into actual teaching practice. The inclusion of dedicated tasks for digital safety and ethics (Task 5) addresses often-neglected domains of digital competence (e.g., data protection, accessibility, digital divide). This is supported in recent research emphasising these areas are critical for educators (Rubio-Gragera, 2025).

The assessment design task (Task 4) invites teacher-trainees to engage with analytics and data interpretation. This modern trend emphasises the role of teachers as data-literate professionals who adapt teaching using digital feedback loops.

Research indicates that pre-service foreign language teachers benefit more if they receive scaffolding and systematic checklists rather than only consultation. For instance, a study found that “pre-service FL teachers who were consulted by in-service teachers and used checklists for systematising assessment of their digital skills … had higher results than those who were only consulted.” (Maiier & Koval, 2021). By implementing these methodological features, a teacher-education programme can more effectively foster digital competence in future foreign language teachers, making them ready for the digitally enriched and hybrid environments of contemporary language education.

In summary, the course "Digital Tools in Foreign Language Teaching" uses a carefully constructed sequence of tasks to scaffold the development of digital competence in future foreign language teachers. The integration of well-designed, reflective, and technologically embedded tasks into the curriculum of foreign language teacher education offers a viable and effective pathway for the development of digital competence. This, in turn, enhances teacher readiness for contemporary language education contexts characterised by blended learning, learner autonomy, digital collaboration, and responsive pedagogies. Future research might examine the longitudinal outcomes of such courses, including the actual classroom integration of digital tools, learner outcomes in language achievement, and sustained teacher digital growth.

3.3.4. New subjects in the FL Teacher's Training Curriculum: English Media literacy

The increasing integration of digital technologies in education necessitates that preservice foreign language (FL) teachers develop robust digital competencies to effectively navigate and utilise these tools in teaching and learning environments. Central to these competences is media literacy in English, which encompasses the skills to critically engage with, create, and communicate digital content in the target language. Media literacy enables teachers not only to use digital resources

responsibly but also to foster students' critical thinking and ethical online behaviour in a foreign language context. Research indicates that media literacy education enhances preservice teachers' digital self-efficacy and readiness to implement technology-enhanced language teaching, thereby bridging the gap between technological proficiency and pedagogical application (Er, 2024; Mujiyanto, 2020; Botturi, 2019).

Despite its recognized importance, media literacy often remains marginal in teacher education curricula, creating a need for targeted interventions that blend theoretical knowledge with practical digital skill development. When embedded in language teacher education, English media literacy fosters critical reflection on digital citizenship and promotes the ethical use of media technologies in intercultural communication contexts – key components of effective foreign language teaching in a digital era (Botturi, 2019; Lütge, 2022).

Moreover, the dynamic nature of digital environments in which FL teaching occurs requires preservice teachers to be adept at evaluating the quality of digital content, protecting learner data, and adopting inclusive practices. These capabilities are crucial for creating safe, equitable, and engaging digital language learning environments. Thus, the development of English media literacy is indispensable for preparing future FL teachers capable of integrating digital tools thoughtfully and ethically in their professional practices (Ranieri et al., 2018).

Media literacy, the ability to access, analyse, evaluate, and create media messages, has emerged as a key dimension of educator preparedness in the digital era. For preservice foreign-language teachers of English, media literacy complements digital competence by enabling them not only to use digital tools, but to teach critically, ethically and creatively in multimodal environments. As Ranieri et al. (2017) found, "media and digital literacy are being increasingly recognized as a fundamental competence for teachers of the 21st century" (p. 10). Teacher training programmes that integrate media literacy help future educators shift from being mere users of technology to becoming designers of learning experiences mediated by digital and media resources (Redecker & Punie, 2017). Within the FL classroom,

media literacy supports authentic language input (e.g., news sites, social media, video streams), multimodal production (e.g., podcasts, blogs, micro-blogs) and safe, ethical engagement with digital content – all of which map directly onto the competence domains of the DigCompEdu Framework (Redecker & Punie, 2017). Research conducted with pre-service FL teachers confirms that digital competence is significantly enhanced when tasks engage them in resource-selection, tool-adaptation and critical reflection (Maiier & Koval, 2021). It is therefore imperative for teacher-education programmes to embed media-literacy oriented tasks alongside digital-skills training, so that future English teachers not only employ technology but lead learners to become discerning, resourceful and responsible participants in digital language learning contexts.

At Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University, the course English Media Literacy is formally included in the teacher-training curriculum as a discipline that combines language instruction with critical media and information competences. The MultiEd manual provides a structured CLIL-oriented programme of units and tasks (e.g., fact-checking, multimedia production, cyber-safety, media market analysis) designed to develop both English proficiency and infomedia literacy in pre-service teachers (Holovko et al., 2023).

Integrating media literacy within teacher education is pedagogically important for two interrelated reasons. Firstly, media literacy equips future teachers with the habits of critical evaluation and source appraisal required to navigate an overloaded and often misleading information environment – skills that are increasingly essential components of educator digital competence as conceptualised by the DigCompEdu framework (European Commission, n.d.). DigCompEdu articulates educator competences across areas such as Digital Resources, Teaching & Learning, Assessment, and Facilitating Learners' Digital Competence. Media-literacy tasks map naturally onto these areas because they require the selection, creation, critical appraisal, and ethical use of media resources. Secondly, UNESCO's Media and Information Literacy (MIL) guidance recommends that MIL be integrated into teacher curricula, enabling teachers to both model and teach safe, critical, and

creative engagement with media to their learners. This policy impetus underlines the institutional rationale for offering English Media Literacy as part of FL teacher training (UNESCO, n.d.).

The typical task types used in the course manual, along with the specific contribution each makes to digital competence development, are summarised below.

1. Source Evaluation and Fact-Checking Tasks. These tasks engage students in analysing English-language media texts – news articles, blog posts, or social media messages – to determine their reliability, bias, and factual accuracy. Using digital verification tools such as Google Fact Check Explorer, Reuters Fact Check, pre-service teachers learn to apply systematic evaluation strategies, triangulate sources, and identify misinformation techniques. This activity enhances critical information literacy, directly linked to DigCompEdu Area 2 ("Selecting and Evaluating Digital Resources") (European Commission, n.d.). Students develop the ability to assess the pedagogical appropriateness of digital content for classroom use, distinguishing between trustworthy educational materials and unreliable or manipulative media. Moreover, reflecting on the ethical dimensions of information sharing strengthens responsible digital citizenship (Area 6) (European Commission, n.d.). The metacognitive aspects, which involve articulating why a source is credible, promote analytical reasoning and self-regulation – essential for designing learning tasks that cultivate learners' critical thinking and digital discernment in authentic communicative contexts. The examples of these task types are seen in Figures 3.12 and 3.13.

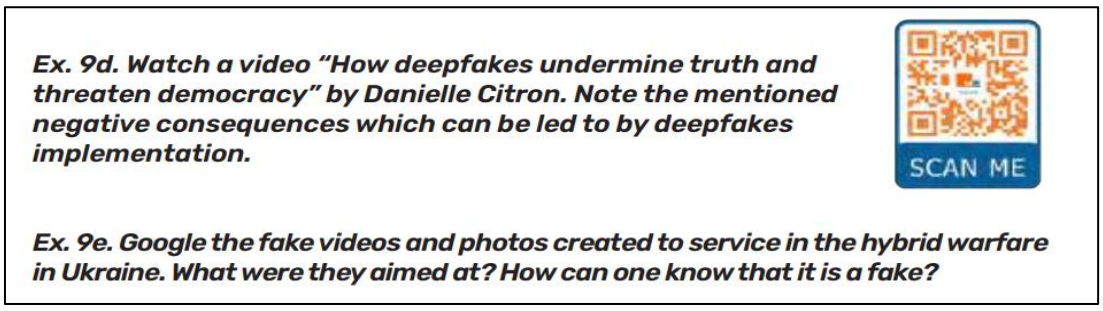


Figure 3.12. Source Evaluation and Fact-Checking Task (example 1)

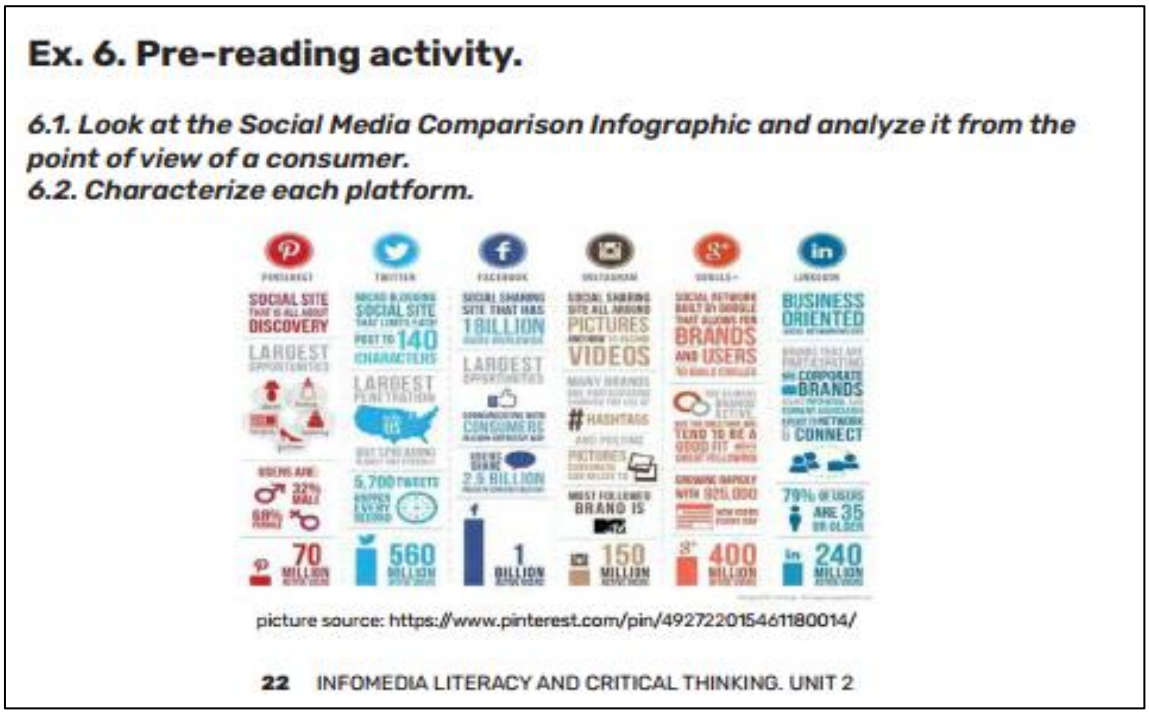


Figure 3.13. Source Evaluation and Fact-Checking Task (example 2)

Some additional assignments, such as “Watch and analyse misinformation,” “Create a system to combat misinformation,” and “Post-Truth Society” (Golovko, 2023, pp. 107-108), explicitly require identifying fake news, analysing media manipulation, and applying fact-checking logic – ideal for illustrating critical evaluation and verification. These activities move learners beyond surface comprehension of texts to deep evaluation of how media messages are constructed and manipulated. By identifying types of false or misleading content and proposing strategies to counteract them, pre-service teachers practise the analysis–evaluation–creation cycle. The tasks foster evidence-based reasoning, encourage the use of fact-checking tools and cross-referencing techniques, and heighten awareness of information ethics and verification. Moreover, discussing the “post-truth” concept promotes metacognitive reflection on emotional responses and cognitive bias – skills vital for responsible information consumption and classroom modelling. Thus, these exercises simultaneously enhance linguistic competence in English and cultivate educators’ ability to guide learners toward critical, ethical, and autonomous engagement with digital information.

2. Multimodal Production Tasks. In these assignments, students design and create original digital artefacts: infographics, video blogs, digital posters, or short podcasts – on educational or cultural topics in English. The process involves planning content, selecting digital platforms (e.g., Canva, Adobe Express), and integrating text, visuals, and audio in a coherent manner. Such creative production develops technical fluency and media design competence. Students not only master digital tools but also reflect on their pedagogical usability, including accessibility, visual clarity, copyright, and inclusivity. Producing media for authentic audiences nurtures confidence in using technology for communicative and educational purposes. Additionally, peer evaluation of created artefacts enhances digital collaboration and feedback skills (Area 4), helping future teachers recognise how multimodal resources can facilitate engagement and comprehension in language learning, thus aligning creativity with pedagogical intent. The example of this task is Ex. 10: *Read the text. Transform the text into an infographic. Use free infographic makers (look for the list of free infographic makers after the text).* The task is accompanied by a list of tools that can be used for infographic creation.

Exercises 15(c) and 16 in Unit 15, which ask students to design a social advertising poster and to create a short video or blog post on Internet safety, provide authentic, production-based opportunities to integrate linguistic, creative, and digital skills. By conceptualising, scripting, and producing media messages in English, pre-service teachers engage in multimodal composition. These tasks require learners to combine visual and textual elements effectively, apply principles of clarity and audience awareness, and adhere to ethical standards such as copyright and citation. The creation of media content on topics like online privacy and responsible behaviour further develops critical digital citizenship and strengthens students' understanding of how media can promote social awareness. Collaborative peer review and discussion of the finished products enhance feedback literacy and reflective practice. Consequently, these exercises not only advance technological fluency but also model pedagogically meaningful ways of using digital media to

support language learning, creativity, and ethical communication in future classroom contexts.

3. Designing Media-Based Collaborative Projects. Collaborative lesson-design projects require students to work in teams to construct technology-enhanced English lessons using authentic media materials. Typical tools include Padlet, Google Sites, and Gamma AI, which allow for integration of text, visuals, and interactive elements. This process combines pedagogical design with digital teamwork, reflecting DigCompEdu Areas 1 and 3 (European Commission, n.d.). Students collaboratively select and adapt media resources, plan communicative objectives, and decide how technology can enhance learner autonomy and participation. Through iterative peer discussion and joint problem-solving, they develop collaborative digital competence, a crucial skill for modern educators working in online or blended environments. The emphasis on lesson coherence and learner engagement encourages reflection on the functional rather than decorative use of technology. As a result, trainees transition from technology consumers to informed designers capable of orchestrating media-rich, learner-centred activities in their future teaching practice (see Figure 3.14).

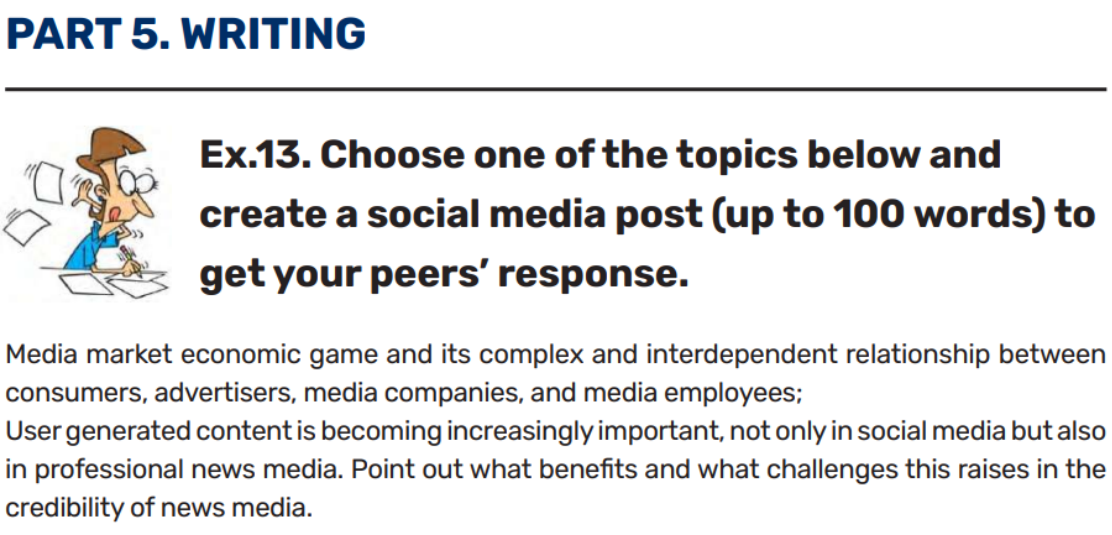


Figure 3.14. Designing Media-Based Collaborative Projects

Ex. 11–13 (Golovko, 2023, pp. 41-42) involve analysing news coverage and then creating social-media posts; these can be used to demonstrate group-based lesson planning or CLIL-style media tasks for classroom integration. Analysing English-

language news content directly shapes digital competence in the field of information literacy, requiring critical evaluation of source credibility and counteracting disinformation. The next stage, creating social media posts, strengthens the target competence in digital content creation and communication. This teaches FL pre-service teachers to adapt complex information to various digital formats while consciously managing their own digital identity. FL pre-service teachers integrate these skills into a professional context, developing authentic, collaborative, and content-driven tasks for students.

4. Cyber-Safety and Ethics Workshops. These workshops are more connected with ethical and responsible technology use. By researching digital risks and presenting practical prevention strategies, pre-service teachers internalise the principles of digital well-being, responsibility, and professional ethics. They also gain experience in transforming abstract regulatory concepts (such as GDPR and Creative Commons) into accessible classroom materials. Delivering the workshop in English enhances both language proficiency and communicative confidence in discussing complex social and digital issues. Reflection on audience feedback further cultivates critical self-assessment and awareness of professional boundaries in online settings. Through such practice, future teachers develop a pedagogically grounded understanding of digital ethics, preparing them to model and teach safe, inclusive, and respectful digital behaviour. See the example in Figure 3.15.

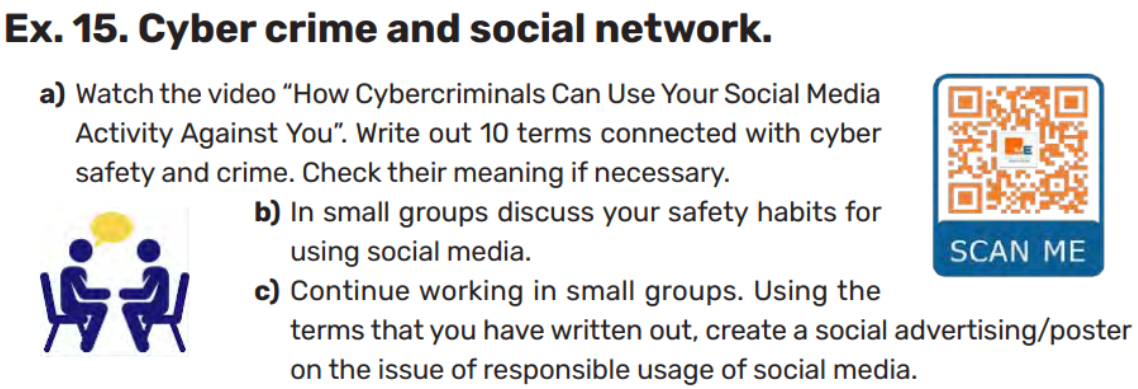


Figure 3.15. Cyber-Safety and Ethics task

Tasks like analyzing English news coverage (Ex. 11–13) (Golovko, 2023, pp. 219-220) cultivate information literacy, demanding critical evaluation of source credibility and counteracting disinformation. Subsequently, creating social media posts strengthens digital content creation and professional communication skills. Beyond these foundational domains, the curriculum integrates crucial ethical and pedagogical dimensions. Activities 14–17 p. 221 (Golovko, 2023), which involve group discussions on online safety, designing social-advertising posters, and producing digital security materials, directly model the facilitation of ethical-use workshops. This reinforces the pedagogical digital competence needed for lesson planning and CLIL-style tasks, which are grounded in professional responsibility, collaboration, and the didactic integration of authentic, modern FL content.

5. Media Literacy Action Projects. The most integrative form of activity, media literacy action projects, requires students to design and implement a long-term initiative, such as a digital awareness campaign, educational blog, or school media club, addressing issues of misinformation, online empathy, or intercultural communication. These projects synthesise all aspects of digital competence: planning, content creation, collaboration, and reflection. Students engage in authentic communication with target audiences, using digital platforms strategically to convey messages responsibly. It develops strategic thinking and project management skills, while fostering sustained digital creativity and ethical leadership. As a result, pre-service teachers demonstrate the ability to apply digital and media literacy principles beyond the classroom, acting as mediators of responsible digital culture in education and the wider community. As an example, we can analyse exercises 5-6 on p. 172 (Golovko, 2023), which require pre-service teachers to research and debate rationales for teaching media literacy, establish their professional profile by linking theoretical knowledge to practical classroom implementation through reflective or action-project examples. Building on this foundation, instrumental tasks such as analysing English news coverage (e.g. 11–13, p. 175-176 (Golovko, 2023) cultivate information literacy, demanding critical evaluation of sources and counteracting disinformation. Subsequently, creating social media posts strengthens digital content

creation and professional communication skills. Furthermore, Activities 14–17 p. 177-181 (Golovko, 2023) (involving online safety discussions and producing digital security materials) directly model the facilitation of ethical-use workshops.

In conclusion, it is worth noting that the variety of tasks outlined in the course manual ensures the comprehensive and systematic development of Foreign Language (FL) pre-service teachers' digital competence, integrating technical skills with pedagogical and ethical responsibilities. The Key Findings of the analysis are as follows:

1. Critical Thinking Literacy: Tasks focused on Source Evaluation and Fact-Checking cultivate critical analysis skills by requiring pre-service teachers to use digital verification tools, triangulate sources, and identify misinformation techniques. This reinforces the ability to select, evaluate, and critically judge the trustworthiness and pedagogical appropriateness of digital resources.
2. Digital Content Creation and Fluency: Multimodal Production Tasks require pre-service teachers to design original digital artefacts (such as infographics, vlogs, or posters). This process enhances technical fluency and design competence, aligning creative media production with essential pedagogical considerations like accessibility, copyright adherence, and visual clarity.
3. Pedagogical Design and Collaboration: Designing Media-Based Collaborative Projects immerses pre-service teachers in digital teamwork, using platforms to jointly construct technology-enhanced FL lessons. This develops both collaborative DC and strategic pedagogical competence, transforming trainees from passive technology consumers into informed designers of media-rich, learner-centred activities.
4. Digital Citizenship and Ethics: Cyber-Safety and Ethics Workshops and related content production directly address responsible digital behaviour. By researching digital risks and creating preventative materials, pre-service teachers internalise principles of digital well-being, professional ethics, and strategic digital safety, preparing them to model and mediate safe, respectful, and responsible digital culture in the classroom.

5. Integrative Strategic Application: The most complex activities, such as Media Literacy Action Projects, synthesise all acquired skills—planning, creation, collaboration, and ethical leadership—in sustained, authentic community-facing initiatives (e.g., awareness campaigns). This demonstrates the pre-service teachers' strategic ability to apply DC principles to real-world educational and social contexts.

Conclusions

The evolution of digital competence as a concept in education has undergone a significant transformation, reflecting the ongoing adaptation of teaching and learning to technological advances and societal shifts. Initially framed as computer literacy, focusing on fundamental operational and technical skills, the concept expanded to digital literacy, incorporating critical evaluation, information management, and responsible communication in digital contexts. This broader understanding matured into the concept of digital competence, which integrates technical proficiency with creative, ethical, and cognitive capacities to solve problems, collaborate, and engage in lifelong learning. Within education, and particularly in teacher professionalism, digital competence extends beyond mere technological fluency to encompass pedagogical adaptability, critical reflection, and ethical responsibility. The most developed stage, digital pedagogy, emphasizes the intentional, reflective integration of technology in teaching, positioning educators as designers and innovators of digital learning experiences rather than just users of tools. This trajectory underscores the essential nature of digital competence in the modern educational landscape, a necessity further highlighted by the COVID-19 pandemic's acceleration of digital transformation. National and international initiatives underscore equity, access, and the promotion of a culture of innovation and ethical use of technology, making digital competence foundational for effective teaching and learning in the interconnected 21st century.

In Ukraine, the modernization of foreign language teacher education exemplifies this global trend by progressing from basic technological awareness toward strategic integration of digital competence within professional training. Early

efforts in ICT training introduced essential topics, such as digital learning platforms, mobile learning, and collaborative tools; however, the rapidity of technological advancements and rising expectations necessitated a comprehensive, systematic approach. The introduction of the full-scale course “Digital Technologies in Foreign Language Teaching” at Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University marked a significant step in aligning teacher education with contemporary demands and European frameworks, such as DigCompEdu (European Commission, n.d.). The course melds theoretical insights with practical applications, fostering pre-service teachers’ ability not only to use technology but to integrate it ethically and creatively in designing interactive and inclusive learning environments. Consequently, graduates emerge as digitally empowered professionals capable of meeting the linguistic, pedagogical, and technological challenges of modern classrooms.

This course effectively implements the six competence areas of the DigCompEdu framework, encompassing Professional Engagement, Digital Resources, Teaching and Learning, Assessment, Empowering Learners, and Facilitating Learners’ Digital Competence. Through diverse task types: Digital Resource Tasks, Collaborative Design Tasks, Learner-Creation Tasks, Digital Assessment Tasks, and Ethics and Safety Tasks, students cultivate competencies that integrate digital skills with pedagogical knowledge and ethical awareness. For instance, the course emphasizes collaboration via cloud-based project work, critical evaluation and adaptation of digital materials, learner-centered activities fostering autonomy and creativity, and responsible use of technology addressing data protection and online safety. Reflective and analytical tasks reinforce self-awareness and critical thinking, while problem-solving and autonomous learning tasks promote professional growth and lifelong learning. This structured, experiential design transforms pre-service teachers from passive technology users to active agents who design, assess, and reflect on digital learning, thus fulfilling the comprehensive educational vision of modern teacher competence.

The English Media Literacy course at the same university further advances teacher education by blending foreign language pedagogy, media literacy, and digital

competence. Grounded in the MultiEd Media Literacy manual (Golovko, 2023), this course fosters critical media analysis, digital production skills, and ethical participation. Beginning with tasks aimed at combating misinformation, developing epistemic vigilance, and critically analyzing media narratives, pre-service teachers deepen their cognitive and evaluative skills aligned with DigCompEdu's Digital Resources and Facilitating Learners' Digital Competence areas (European Commission, n.d.). These activities are complemented by multimodal production assignments, such as creating social advertising posters and videos on digital safety, that enhance technical fluency while integrating civic responsibility. Collaborative design projects simulate real-world teaching scenarios using authentic media, promoting professional engagement and nuanced understanding of pedagogical technology use. Crucially, cyber-safety and ethical awareness workshops emphasize data protection, copyright, digital empathy, and inclusive communication. The final media literacy action projects synthesize every dimension of digital competence, reinforcing teachers' professional self-awareness and agency while cultivating reflective capacities essential for their role as active contributors to global digital educational culture.

Pedagogically, the English Media Literacy course exemplifies a spiral model of digital competence development, moving from critical analysis through creative production and collaboration to ethical action and reflection. Each phase supports the next, ensuring digital competence is contextualized within language and media education and oriented toward real-world applications. The reflective, project-based nature encourages continuous professional development and adaptability. The course's dual focus on linguistic proficiency and digital empowerment exemplifies the new educational paradigm in which technology is not an add-on, but an integral epistemic environment for language teaching and learning. This alignment fosters teachers' lifelong learning orientation, which is essential for navigating the evolving digital landscape.

In conclusion, the concept of digital competence has evolved from basic technical skills to a multifaceted framework encompassing critical, creative, ethical,

and pedagogical dimensions crucial for 21st-century education. In Ukraine, this evolution is embodied in the modernization of foreign language teacher education, notably through comprehensive courses at Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University that systematically develop digital competence in alignment with European standards. The integration of digital resources, collaborative design, learner empowerment, assessment tools, and ethics prepares them for meaningful participation in digital societies. Furthermore, media literacy education enhances this competence by fostering critical thinking and responsible digital citizenship, aligning with international frameworks and principles of pedagogical innovation. Together, these educational reforms signify the transformative potential of digital competence to foster educational resilience, inclusivity, and innovation, empowering educators and learners to thrive in an interconnected global environment.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Task type 5: Preparing to Microteaching

ACTIVITY 5

1. *In small groups (3–4 participants), design and conduct a short Digital Safety and Ethics Workshop, which should focus on one or several key issues of digital citizenship in the context of foreign language learning.*

Each group follows the stages below:

- ❖ Topic Selection and Research
- ❖ Choose a relevant theme such as:
- ❖ Protecting learners' data in online classrooms
- ❖ Copyright and fair use of online materials
- ❖ Digital identity and professional conduct for teachers
- ❖ Ethical communication and online behaviour in intercultural contexts
- ❖ Accessibility and inclusivity in digital learning environments

2. *Create interactive materials (e.g., slides in Canva or Google Slides, a Kahoot or Mentimeter quiz, short videos, discussion prompts).*

- ❖ Plan the structure of the 20–30-minute workshop:
- ❖ Introduction (icebreaker or scenario illustrating an ethical dilemma)
- ❖ Core activity (interactive quiz, group problem-solving, or case discussion)
- ❖ Reflection (participants formulate "digital golden rules" for teachers and learners).
- ❖ Ensure all materials are visually clear, accessible (fonts, contrast, captions), and adhere to copyright principles.

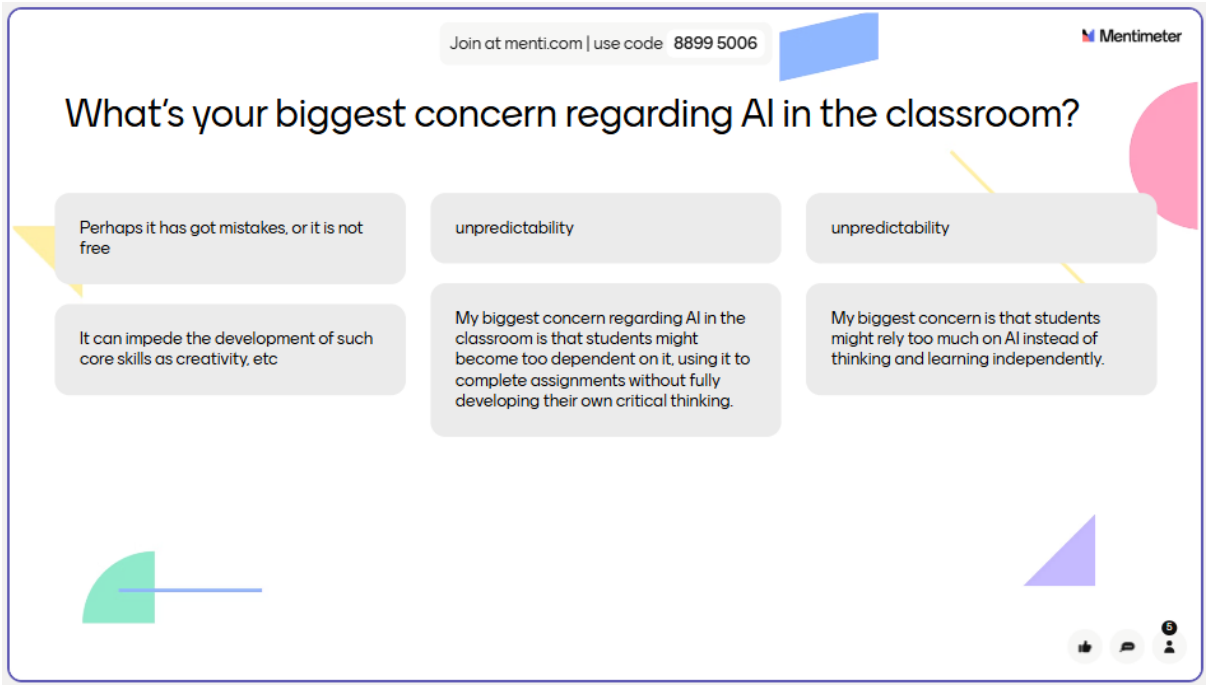
3. *Deliver the workshop live (via Zoom, Teams, or in class).*
4. *Record or document the session for reflection.*
5. *Collect anonymous feedback from participants through a short digital survey (e.g., Google Forms).*
6. *Prepare a short reflective report (400–500 words) including:*

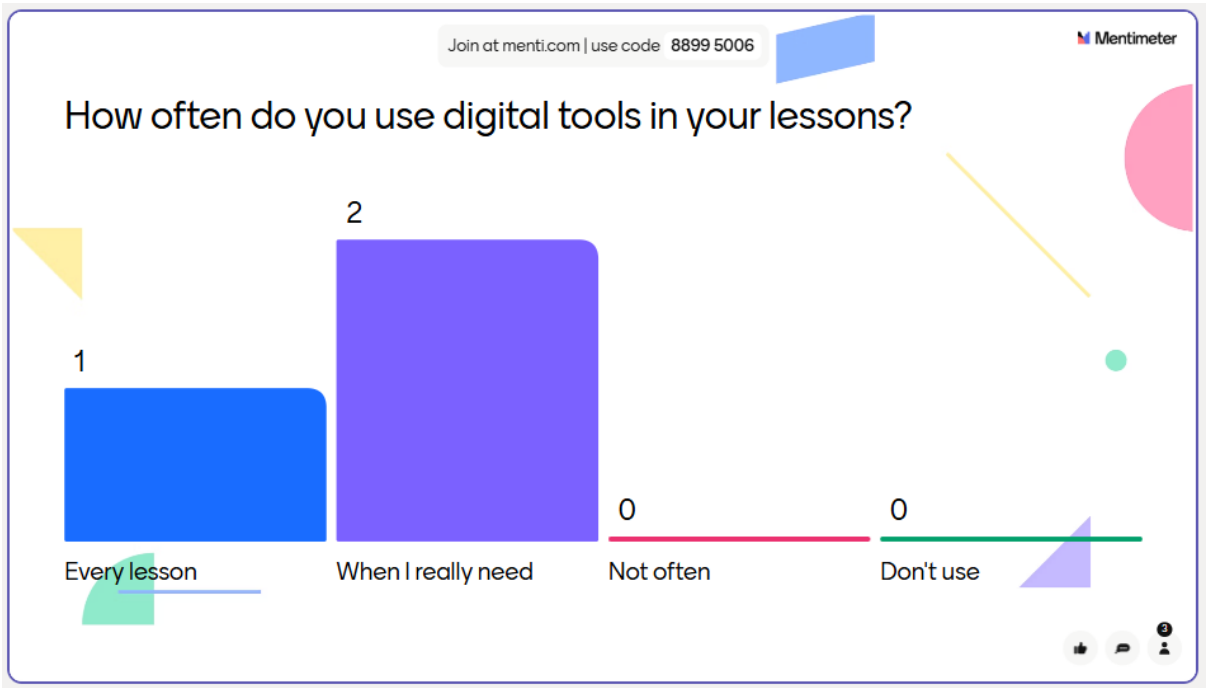
- ❖ A summary of workshop content and digital tools used;
- ❖ Analysis of challenges encountered and solutions applied;
- ❖ Reflection on how the activity enhanced the group's awareness of digital ethics and safety;
- ❖ Suggestions for embedding digital ethics into everyday teaching practice.

Digital Tools: Canva, Google Slides, Padlet, Mentimeter, Kahoot, Zoom, Google Forms, Jamboard (or similar).

Appendix B

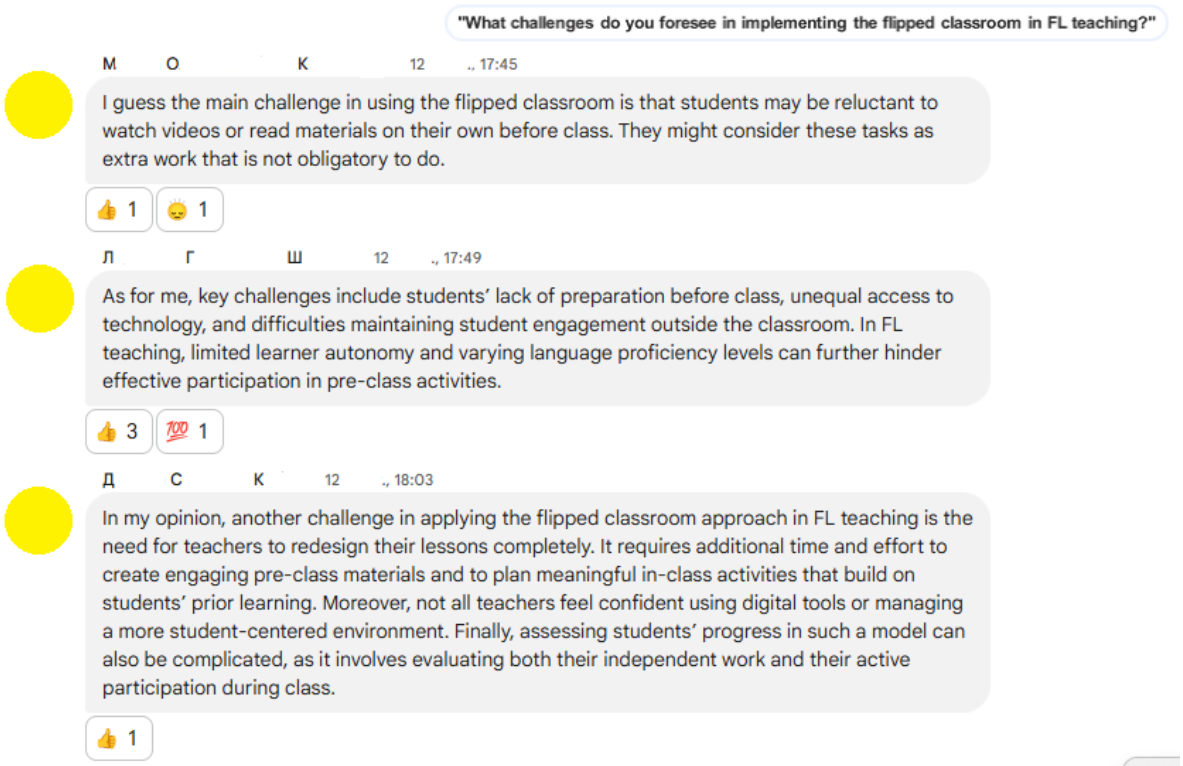
Task type 6: Reflective and analytical task examples



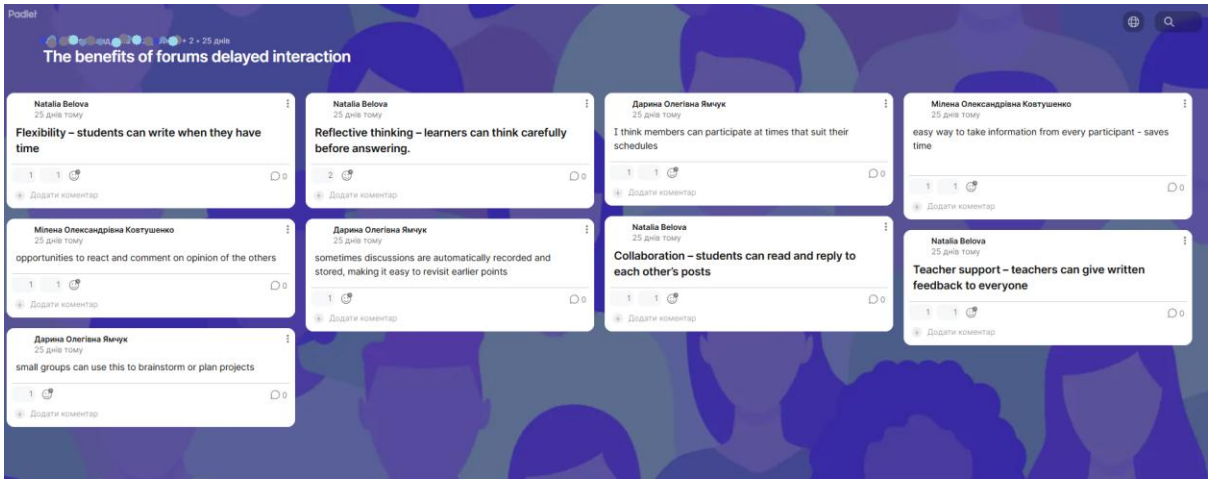


Appendix C

Students' reflection forum discussion (Google Chat tool)



Students' reflection forum discussion (Padlet)



Appendix D

Case-study examples

Case Study 1: Too Many Options, No Focus

Ahmed is an adult learner studying Spanish to advance his career. He uses various online resources, including YouTube, language apps, and discussion forums. However, Ahmed feels scattered and isn't sure if he's making progress. He jumps between activities without clear goals or tracking his achievements.

Discussion Questions:

1. How can Ahmed's teacher help him create a personalized learning plan?
2. What tools could Ahmed use to track his progress and reflect on his achievements?

Case Study 2: Fear of Speaking in Online Settings

Sofia is a university student taking an online English course. She excels in written assignments but avoids participating in speaking activities during virtual classes. She is afraid of making mistakes and receiving negative feedback from peers. Sofia doesn't practice speaking outside of class.

Discussion Questions:

1. How can Sofia's teacher create a safe and supportive environment for speaking practice?
2. What autonomous learning activities can Sofia use to improve her speaking skills outside of class?

Case Study 3: Overwhelmed by Technology

Li is a college student enrolled in an online German course. The course uses a variety of digital tools, including a learning management system (LMS), collaborative platforms like Padlet, and language apps. Li finds it hard to navigate between platforms and often misses tasks because she doesn't check all
the required tools regularly. She feels frustrated and loses focus during lessons.

Discussion Questions:

1. How can the teacher simplify the use of technology for Li?
2. What strategies or tools can help Li manage her tasks effectively?

Appendix E

Task type 4: Online Test Creating

ACTIVITY 4

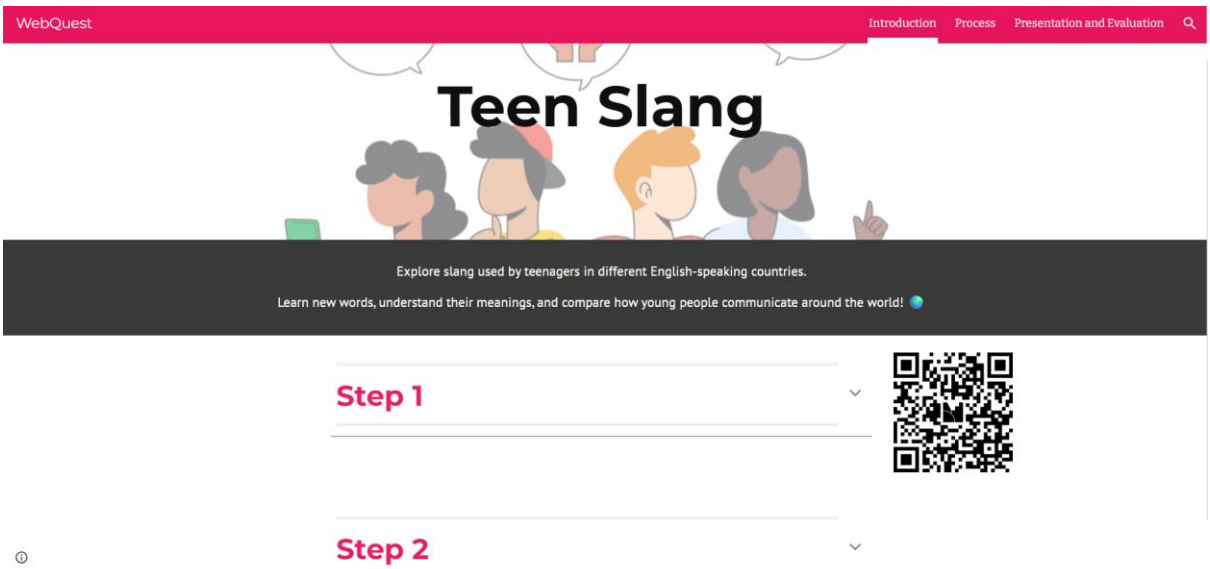
1. *Identify the target group (e.g., B1 secondary school learners) and the language objective of the test.*
2. *Define the type and number of test items (e.g., 10 multiple-choice grammar questions, 5 matching vocabulary tasks, 2 listening comprehension activities). Formulate assessment criteria and scoring system.*
3. *Use one of the recommended platforms (e.g., Google Forms, Quizizz, LearningApps, Moodle Quiz) to compile the test.*
4. *Incorporate multimodal elements (audio, video, images) where appropriate.*
5. *Enable automatic feedback and scoring functions to support formative learning.*
6. *Share the test with peers for piloting and collect responses.*
7. *Analyse the test results using built-in analytics (accuracy rates, completion time, most frequent errors).*

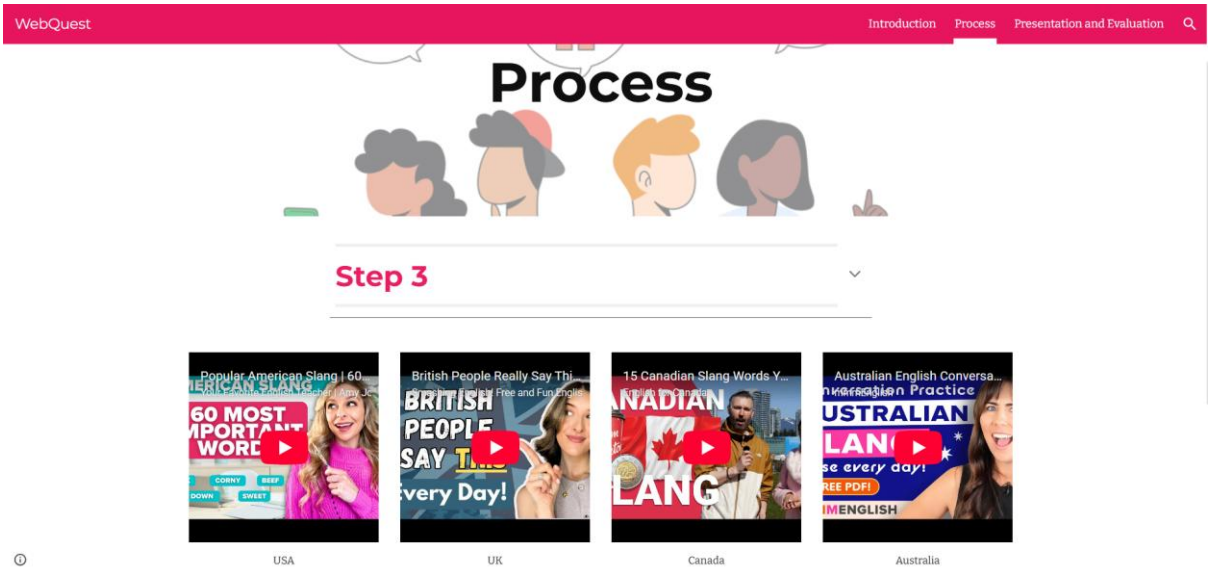
Reflect on the usability, validity, and reliability of the test in a short analytical report (300–400 words).

Appendix F

Students' completed assignments on creating web quests

Web quest 1





Web Quest 2

Can Social Media Save the Planet?

Social media has become one of the most powerful tools in the world. Every day, millions of people share photos, videos, and opinions — but some use these platforms to inspire real change. From climate activists like Greta Thunberg to influencers promoting zero-waste lifestyles, social media can raise awareness about global problems andmotivate people to act.

But can social media really save the planet, or is it just another trend?

In this WebQuest, you will explore how online influencers and campaigns promote environmental awareness and positive change. You'll investigate real examples, evaluate their impact, and create your own mini social media campaign to raise awareness about an issue that matters to you.



Can Social Media Save the Planet?

1. Research environmental influencers and campaigns.
2. Evaluate their impact — are they really helping or just posting?
3. Create your own social media campaign idea.
4. Present your findings to the class.



Can Social Media Save the Planet?

STEP 1: Research environmental influencers and campaigns.

Find 2–3 influencers or online movements that focus on protecting the environment

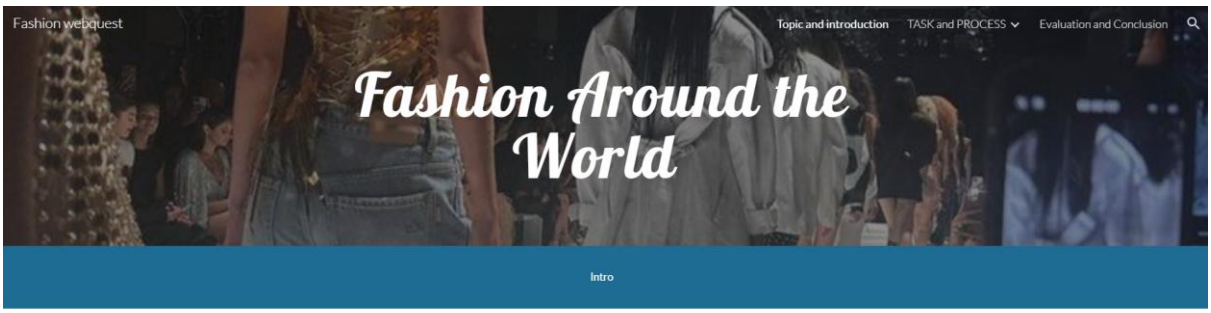
Influencer/Campaign	Platform	Main Message	How They Inspire Change	My Opinion

STEP 2: Analyze Their Impact
Answer the questions below: 1. Which campaign do you think is most effective, and why?
2. Did any of these influencers cause real-world change? Explain.
3. How do you know if a campaign is genuine or just for attention?

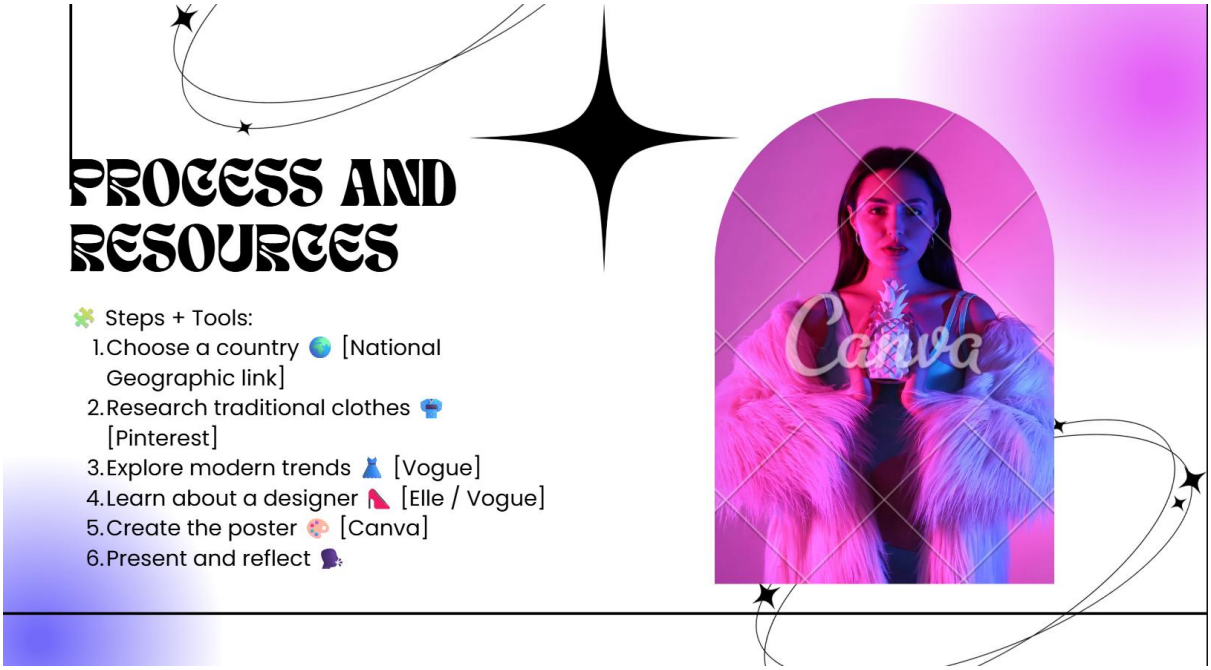
STEP 3: Create your own campaign

Think of an environmental issue you care about. Design your own social media campaign idea!

Web Quest 3



Fashion is more than clothes — it tells the story of people and culture.
In this WebQuest, you will explore fashion styles from different countries and create a short digital poster called *"World Fashion Gallery."*



CHAPTER 4. DIDACTIC MODELS OF CONTENT FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE OF HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS IN TEACHING AND METHODOLOGICAL MANUALS OF THE DEPARTMENT

Section 4.1. Introduction

The rapid changes taking place in all sectors of public life and dictated by the demands of the times are also transforming the main goal and content of foreign language education, such as to prepare competitive specialists capable of quickly and creatively solving tasks in a multilingual and multicultural global society. Such conditions generally affect the comprehensive language skills of higher education students and future foreign language teachers.

The main goal of foreign language teaching in higher education institutions is to ensure the communicative intentions of students, "to develop... intercultural communication skills as an important means of partnership interaction and a necessary mechanism in the dialogue of cultures" (Bondaruk Ya., 2019, p. 7). This goal is achieved through the content of basic textbooks and sets of communication-oriented tasks and exercises additionally developed by scientific and pedagogical staff for better understanding and assimilation of educational material in the process of studying professional disciplines at different stages of training.

It should be noted that the system of tasks and exercises in textbooks is focused on developing the key competencies of future English teachers, which are represented in four types of speech activity: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The problem of selecting and analyzing exercises for teaching a foreign language is not new in scientific literature. This issue has been studied by well-known Ukrainian scholars (I. Ziazun, M. Miroshnychenko, S. Nikolaeva, O. Nitsetska, V. Redko, Yu. Fedusenko, etc.) and abroad (B. Abbs, Z. J. Scrivener, J. Harmer, T. Hedge, J. Field, etc.). The analysis of scientific, pedagogical, and educational literature allows us to conclude that most exercises can be classified by type according to certain criteria

(nature of performance, function in the educational process, place of performance, focus on receiving and transmitting information, etc.).

It should be noted that in educational and methodological literature, an exercise is understood as a specially organized activity, educational actions aimed at forming and improving speech skills and abilities, which constitute the main part of the educational work in the classroom, the process of performing a conditional-communicative or communicative task (Kozachuk, S., 2016, p. 16); it is a specially organized, repeated performance of individual operations, actions, or activities in an educational setting with the aim of mastering or improving them (Lytvyn, S., 2019, p. 7); it is a structural unit of the methodological organization of educational material used in the educational process; it is a set of purposeful, interrelated actions that are proposed for implementation in accordance with the increasing linguistic and operational difficulties, taking into account the sequence of the formation of skills and abilities (Lytvyn, S., 2019, p. 8).

However, it is worth remembering that when teaching a foreign language, as with other subjects, it is difficult to find and select a unified system of exercises for all cases and for teaching different types of speech activity. In this regard, we consider it appropriate to also follow the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (Bevz O., Gembaruk A., 2024), which clearly outlines a common basis for the development of language training curricula, model programs, exams, textbooks, etc. In Europe it is an activity-oriented approach. Language users are considered “social agents” or members of society who can perform various tasks (not necessarily related to speech) (Melnyk, V., 2016, 17). Under such conditions, when selecting and methodically organizing exercises and tasks, along with the specific qualities of each individual, it is necessary to take into account their cognitive, emotional, and volitional abilities. The qualitative composition of exercises for each individual level of foreign language proficiency, as noted by V. Redko (Redko, V., 2017), depends on the complexity of linguistic and speech units and the difficulty of their assimilation, which can only be determined in the process of experimental testing. In our opinion, an important part

of such testing can be considered teaching aids and recommendations, which are an essential addition to the basic literature (textbooks, manuals) of professional disciplines at the Faculty of Foreign Languages.

Table 4.1.

Similarities and differences between the textbook recommended by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and the teaching manual prepared by higher education institution lecturers

Foreign language textbook recommended by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine	**Foreign language textbook prepared by university teachers**
Different	
The basis (foundation) of methodological support for the academic discipline	Additions or partial replacement based on new methodological approaches to a specific part of the textbook
Approved by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine as a normative publication	Approved at a meeting of the department or academic council of the faculty (university) as educational and methodological literature
Separate publication or part of the teaching and learning complex for a discipline	Part of the teaching and learning complex for the discipline
Developed in accordance with the Law of Ukraine on Education and general standards of foreign language education	Focused on the needs of the faculty (higher education institution) and its educational programs
Developers follow the recommendations of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine	The authors adhere to the requirements for the preparation of educational literature valid in higher education institutions
Common	
An educational publication that corresponds to the curriculum and provides a systematic presentation of the academic discipline	

The analysis of scientific, pedagogical, and educational literature allowed us to identify common and divergent characteristics of foreign language textbooks (manuals) recommended by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and foreign language teaching manuals compiled by higher education institution teachers for studying professional disciplines at the Faculty of Foreign Languages (Table 4.1). These characteristics demonstrate the significance and importance of developing and introducing additional teaching and methodological literature into the educational process of higher education students as a source of various tasks and exercises for studying English.

It is quite clear that a textbook is a broader concept than a teaching aid prepared by teachers of a particular higher education institution (Table 4.1). A textbook can be used to study a subject at different higher education institutions, while teaching aids developed by scientific and pedagogical staff are used in the educational process of a specific educational institution.

According to a number of laws (”On Education“ (Law of Ukraine “On Education”), ”On Higher Education" (Law of Ukraine “On Higher Education”) and orders of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, we can conclude that a foreign language textbook recommended by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine is an educational publication that contains a systematic presentation of the academic discipline, a set of exercises and tasks that facilitate the assimilation of acquired knowledge, skills, and abilities, corresponds to the curriculum of the discipline, and has the appropriate official approval. Then, a foreign language teaching aid prepared by teachers of higher education institutions can be considered an educational publication that supplements or partially replaces a textbook, contains a set of tasks and exercises that facilitate the assimilation of acquired knowledge, skills, and abilities of higher education students, also contains recommendations for organizing independent work of students, corresponds to the curriculum, and is oriented toward the educational needs of the faculty (university).

Therefore, we’ll make an attempt to analyze in more detail the system of exercises that influences the formation of key competencies of higher education

students in all four of the above-mentioned types of speech activity, using the content of teaching aids and recommendations from the faculty of the English and Methodology Department at Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University as an example.

We share the opinion of V. Redko (Redko, V., 2017) regarding the typology of exercises and tasks for teaching foreign language communication, which was created in accordance with the competence-based, communicative, and activity-based approaches to teaching, and its components take into account the individual needs of each person (Figure 4.1).

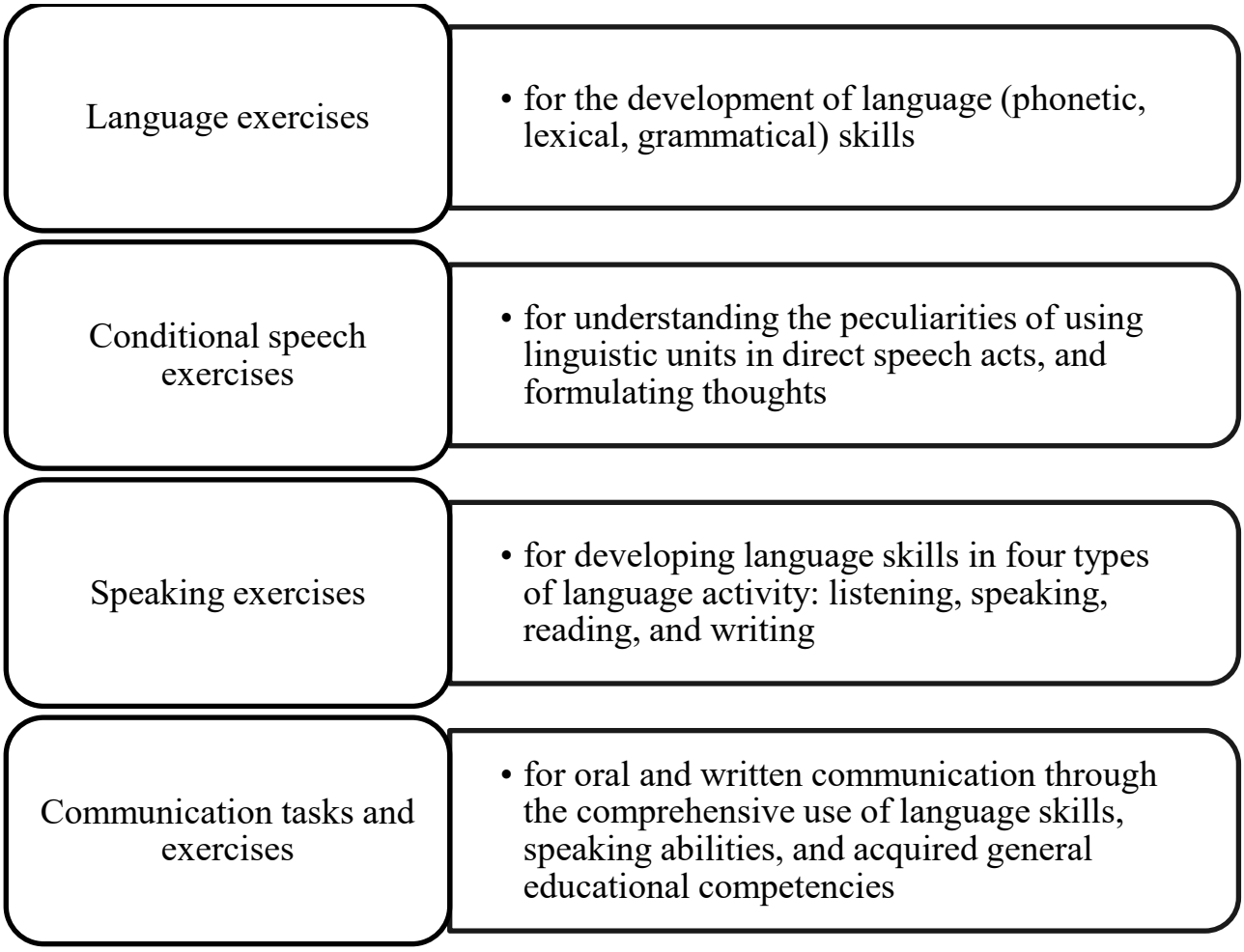


Figure 4.1. Typology of exercises for teaching foreign language communication in secondary education institutions

However, the proposed classification takes into account the dynamics of the gradual development of the process of assimilating educational material, which is

clearly demonstrated in textbooks focused on foreign language learning in secondary education institutions. We believe that such a sequence is somewhat difficult to determine in textbooks and manuals for studying English in higher education institutions, namely in the faculty of foreign languages. This is explained by the specifics of teaching professional disciplines at each stage of training (Table 4.2) and the fairly high level of English proficiency among students (B2-C1).

Table 4.2

Courses taught in English by teachers of the English and Methodology Department, Faculty of Foreign Languages, Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University

1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	Master's degree
● Practical Course of English; ● English Grammar; ● English Phonetics.	● Practical Course of English; ● English Grammar; ● English Phonetics. ● Methods of teaching English; ● History of English.	● Practical Course of English; ● Methods of teaching English; ● Grammatical problems in translation; ● History of English. ● A Communicative Grammar of the English Language; ● Theoretical Phonetics.	● Practical Course of English; ● Methods of teaching English; ● Theoretical Phonetics.	● Practical Course of English; ● Creative and Academic Writing; ● Methods of teaching English at Higher Institutions; ● Theory and Practice of Translation; ●Dialectology.

Despite these specifics, the analysis of the curricula and teaching materials of the English and Methodology Department suggests that in order to develop specific language skills at the initial stages of learning (first and second years) at the Faculty of Foreign Languages, a specific system of exercises has been developed that improves the assimilation of educational material in such professional disciplines as practical grammar, practical phonetics, and oral and written communication practice (OICP). Conditional speech exercises predominate in Practical Course of English manuals at all stages of learning. Most communicative tasks and exercises are contained in Practical Course of English manuals at the higher stages of learning (Appendix E).

In addition, the relatively high level of English proficiency among students of the Faculty of Foreign Languages and the wide range of disciplines with different content loads taught in English make it difficult to clearly divide exercises (linguistic, conditional-linguistic, and communicative tasks) proposed by well-known researchers and methodologists (Nikolaieva, S., 2016, p. 40). In our opinion, this situation allows us to construct a classification of exercises and tasks that most fully corresponds to the goals of educational and professional programs of higher education institutions and is dictated by the main goals and objectives of each class in particular. We believe that foreign language communication is taught through a system of exercises and tasks aimed at developing grammatical, lexical, and phonetic skills, as well as productive (speaking and reading) and receptive (listening and reading) skills (Figure 4.2).

So, let's take a closer look at the exercises for teaching different aspects of foreign language communication that are included in the teaching guides for different subjects from the English and Methodology Department.

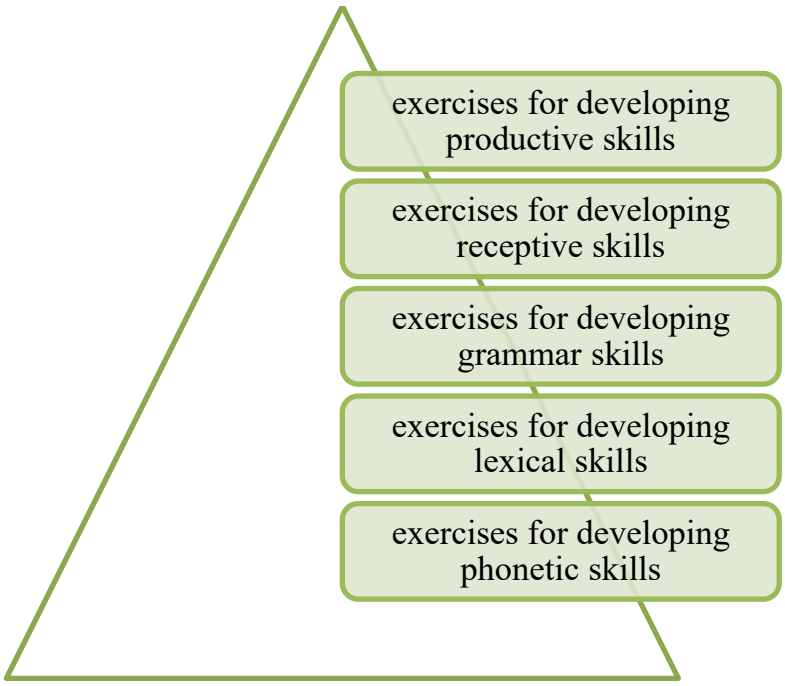


Figure 4.2. System of exercises and tasks for teaching foreign language communication in higher education institutions

Section 4.2. Exercises for Developing Phonetic Skills

Exercises for developing phonetic skills are mainly presented in the manual Listen and Practice for first- and second-year students (Bondaruk, Ya., Opryshko, A., 2020). Among the wide variety of exercises, those focused on the following deserve special attention:

- articulation exercises
  - *(Practice proverbs and sayings:*
  - *Near an ear, a nearer ear, a nearly eerie ear;*
  - *Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers,*
  - *A peck of pickled peppers Peter Piper picked.*
  - *If Peter Piper pa peck of pickled peppers,*
  - *Where's the peck of pickled peppers Peter Piper picked.)* (Bondaruk, Ya., Opryshko, A., 2020);
- development of auditory perception

- *(Listen carefully to the following conversational situations. Concentrate your attention on the intonation of the replies* (Bondaruk, Ya., Opryshko, A., 2020);

➢ developing phonetic skills

- *Make up alternative questions using the following sentences;*
- *Read the drill sentences according to the given models. Observe the difference in meaning;*
- *Listen carefully to the following sentences, repeat them* (Bondaruk, Ya., Opryshko, A., 2020).

It should be noted that the development of phonetic skills is not limited to practical classes in the discipline "Practical Phonetics." Such work, but in a more generalized form, is also carried out in classes on Practical Course of English. For example, when reviewing and analyzing laboratory classes in the manual "Listening" (Postolenko, I., Slobodianyk, O., 2016), there are tasks (mainly in the pre-listening section) aimed at transcribing and repeating individual words (exercises for developing auditory perception and articulation exercises):

1. *Study the following proper names. Transcribe them:* Mr. Chandler, France, Germany, Russia, the Middle East.

2. *Study the following words and phrases. Memorize and transcribe them:* an application form, to check the information, to go to secondary school (Postolenko, I., Slobodianyk, O., 2016).

Such significant attention to the development of students' phonetic skills in the first two stages of learning is dictated by the fact that the phonetic aspect of communication in English causes certain difficulties, since the orthographic principle of pronunciation dominates. It requires more detailed study and analysis in classes at higher education institutions.

Section 4.3. Exercises for Developing Lexical Skills

An important component of Practical Course of English manuals is typical exercises for developing lexical skills and mastering lexical units at three levels: 1) meaning level, 2) form level (word formation), 3) function level (limits and spheres of use) in speech activity (Bilenka Yu., Kolomiets M., 2022). Taking into account the levels of mastery of lexical units, the following types of exercises are distinguished (according to V. Redko (Redko, V., 2017, p. 305-306):

• exercises for semantization (presentation) of lexical units;

• preparatory training exercises of a receptive and productive nature: a) for differentiation, b) for repetition (duplication), c) for comparison, d) for grouping, e) for filling in, f) for selection according to certain criteria;

• substitution exercises:

a) filling in the blanks, b) replacement, c) supplementation;

• construction exercises:

a) constructing sentences from specific components, b) "correcting mistakes," c) completing speech utterances, d) filling in gaps in speech utterances, e) replacing individual words with their synonyms/antonyms, e) constructing speech utterances using the proposed components, f) determining the relationships between sentences/utterances and pictures;

• transformation exercises:

a) expanding a sentence/statement, b) shortening (compressing) a sentence/statement, c) rephrasing, d) replacing individual components of a sentence/statement with suggested ones, e) changing the meaning of a statement, e) transformation: direct speech into indirect speech, sentence predicates from one tense to another, f) replacement of individual components of a sentence/statement with others that are similar in meaning, g) retranslation of the content of dialogical communication into a monological statement, h) transformation of the content of the text in accordance with specific instructions;

• activation of lexical material:

a) supplementation, b) expansion, c) completion, d) composition, e) formulation of answers to questions (Redko, V., 2017, p. 305-306).

Here are some examples of exercises for developing lexical skills in the teaching manuals of the English and Methodology Department:

1. Answer the questions. Do you know anybody who…

- *is applying for a job? What kind of job?*
- *has just retired? How old is he / she?*
- *has been promoted recently? What to?.*

2. Give the English equivalents for: скеля, урвище, течія, гора, печера, etc.

3. You are going to watch the video about the truth of British rain. Before watching study the following words and phrases: moisture – волога, flood – повінь, emergency service – служба порятунку, etc*;*

4. Match the noun with the corresponding adjective and translate into Ukrainian.

5. Fiill in the gaps the most suitable words.

6. Look at the pictures and guess the profession they suggest, then say what each person in that profession does.

7. Define if the statement is true or false and give some additional information to support your words.

8. Consult the Contemporary English Dictionary to find the difference between words: dating back / since, setting / scenery, famous / notorious, ets.,

9. Consult the Contemporary English Dictionary to find the meaning the words: inhabitants – uninhabited – habitable – habitat – habitation, etc.,

10. *Find the odd one out.*

Familiar – formal – known – accustomed

Ignorant – backward – educated – airheaded

Propitious – bright – unfortunate – beneficial

Commonplace – outstanding – ordinary – vanilla.

11. Fill in the words from the table below:

Mechanic, editor, booksellers, engineer

11.1. A(n) ….. repairs car engines, whereas a(n) ….. uses scientific knowledge to develop machines.

11.2. A(n) ….. is responsible for the preparation and publication of a newspaper, book or magazine, while a(n) ….. prints them ready to be sold.

12. Fill in the correct word(s) from the list below. Use the words only once:

(a champion's to prove to damage to take to wear limit to give on equal terms to win tough popular casually): 1. a ….. world, 2. ….. sb the chance to, 3. ….. the legal right, 4. ….. your confidence, 5. there is no ….. to, 6. ….. with crowds, 7. ….. elegant, 8. ….. a test, 9. to fight ….. with, 10. ….. me hair loose, 11. …..himself, 12. to have ….. mentality.

13. Find the following words in the text:

13.1. A person who takes part in a competition – ….

13.2. A person who writes about the news in a newspaper or speaks about it on TV – … (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024).

This division of exercises and tasks for vocabulary learning is quite convenient, but recently, scientific and methodological literature has raised the issue of the complexity of distinguishing between exercises and tasks for learning vocabulary and grammar separately. This is because the concept of "learning the lexical composition of a language" (lexis) reflects a fundamental set, relationship, and approach to language, unlike the concept of "learning a set of words" (vocabulary), where each word is considered a separate lexical unit (Perederii, T., 2018, p. 40).

The increase in the number of teaching materials, dictionaries, textbooks, grammar guides, and other resources has placed new demands on the range of tasks and exercises for learning English. A peculiar "explosion" of changes regarding the importance of studying the lexical composition of the language began with the publication in 1993 of Michael Lewis's book The Lexical Approach, which focused on the weaknesses of vocabulary learning (Andriiko, I., 2018, p. 23).

Nowadays, learning words at the level of a single unit (dog, egg, teacher) or phrase (compact disk, stock market, go off) is not enough. It is important to "internally explore" the meaning of words and stable, semi-stable, traditional combinations and expressions that can be recalled and used quickly without thinking about the need to create new expressions or sentences and while remembering all the grammatical rules of sentence construction. Grammar should play a connecting role between phrases and expressions to express the exact and correct meaning (correct ending of a verb, noun, choice of pronoun, etc.).

We can say that fixed expressions and idioms form a kind of bridge between the study of vocabulary and grammar in English (Figure 4.3).

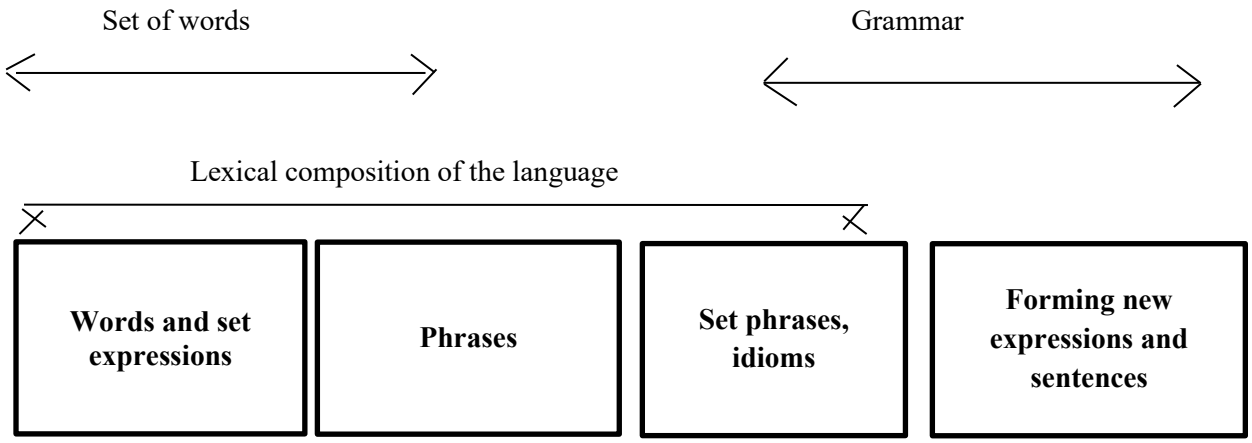


Figure 4.3. The connection between vocabulary and grammar in modern English

The above approach to vocabulary learning is used by teachers of the English and Methodology Department when teaching professional disciplines (Practical Course of English) and is reflected in the teaching aids developed by the department. For example, in the manual "Mastering English: Practice Guide" (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024), before listening to the text, a series of tasks are proposed for studying vocabulary with the aim of working on individual lexical expressions and fixed phrases and introducing them into sentences of the corresponding tense.

Task. *Explain the meaning of the following words and word-combinations:*

- *to give some dos and don'ts, to rely on smth / smb.,*
- *a hop-on-hop-off service, to feel humble about smth.;*

translate them into Ukrainian; make up sentences with words and expressions:,

- 3 affirmative sentences using Past Perfect Tense Forms;

- 3 negative sentences using Future Simple Tense Forms;

- 3 interrogative sentences using Past Simple Tense Forms (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024).

It is clear that an important stage in the acquisition of any lexical unit is practice: recognizing words in sentences and being able to use different forms of words in speech. In general, all tasks and exercises for developing lexical skills at the stage of practical use in the analyzed teaching and methodological literature can be divided into: 1) communicative tasks, discussions, dialogues using the learned lexemes; 2) use of vocabulary in written tasks.

The following tasks are vivid examples of such exercises (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024):

– match pictures to lexical items;

– match the nouns with corresponding adjectives;

– match the words on the right to the corresponding ones on the left (collocations, opposites);

– use the prefixes or suffixes to build new words from given items;

– classify words into given groups or lists;

– use the given words to complete the sentences;

– fill in crosswords, grids, diagrams;

– fill in gaps in sentences;

– make up the crammed story with the given lexical items;

– memory games.

Another feature of the exercises and tasks for developing lexical skills in the teaching manuals of the English and Methodology Department is that a significant

part of them is closely related to tasks for developing reading and listening skills. The advantage of this combination is that students have the opportunity to study lexemes in a real context and analyze their usage and meaning. These exercises can be divided into those that precede reading or listening to a text; those that are performed while reading or listening to a text; and those that are performed after reading or listening to a text. We consider it necessary to examine each of the above-mentioned groups of exercises and tasks in more detail. Another feature of the exercises and tasks for developing lexical skills in the teaching aids of the English and Methodology Department is that a significant part of them is closely related to tasks for developing reading and listening skills. The advantage of this combination is that students have the opportunity to study a lexeme in a real context and analyze its use and meaning. These exercises can be divided into those that precede reading or listening to a text; those that are performed while reading or listening to a text; and those that are performed after reading or listening to a text. We consider it necessary to examine each of the above groups of exercises and tasks in more detail.

Exercises that precede reading or listening to a text are mainly focused on repetition, learning, and practical application of individual lexical units or expressions. In this case, the vocabulary is selected in such a way as to make it easier to perform the main task. The task is reading or listening to the text.

For example, during a series of laboratory classes in the module “Every Man to His Trade,” dedicated to the topic of professions, second-year students are first asked to try to answer certain questions and then check their answers after listening to the text (Postolenko, I., Slobodianyk, O., 2016):

1. Here are the facts to prove that the person is successful or unsuccessful in adult life and career. Which of them are positive? Which are negative? Comment on your choice.

2. Brainstorming activity. What do employees have to do in the offices? Give as many examples of staff activities as possible.

3. Compare these job titles with the activities. Comment on the true / false statements. Cross out false ones and explain your point of view (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024).

The following tasks are the examples of pre-text exercises focused on learning thematic vocabulary (e.g., professions, prejudices, and traditions) (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024):

1. Read the title of the article. What kind of personality do you think you need to be a good political reporter?

2. Look at the photos. Do you think the people are typical English in the way they dress? Who do you think is dressed in the most eccentric way?

3. You are going to read an article about how the English dress. Before you read, discuss with a partner whether you think the following statement are true or false? (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024)

The system of exercises for developing lexical skills while reading and listening to texts in the analyzed teaching and methodological literature of the department is mainly represented by tasks such as: inserting a missing word or phrase, finding synonyms/antonyms for an expression, paraphrasing part of a sentence, etc.

1. *Guess the meaning of the word from the meaning of the text around.*
2. *Find some words in the text that mean …*
3. *What's the opposite of this word?*
4. *How many different words does the writer use to describe the …?*
5. *Find the answers to the questions as quick as possible.*

Post-text exercises for vocabulary learning are communication-oriented: discuss, act out a situation, create a dialogue using the learned lexemes (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024):

1. Make up and dramatize short dialogues on the subject Courts & Trials making use of the pattern (model).

2. Make up the association tree with the word "Trend".

3. Make up and role-play a dialogue between a reporter and a celebrity describing his / her ordinary day.

4. Ask five questions (of different types) about the text.

An important factor influencing the selection of exercises and tasks for developing lexical skills is the distinction between productive and receptive vocabulary. Students understand many more lexical units than the everyday vocabulary they use in class and in communication. Receptive vocabulary is understood as a set of lexical units that are recognized and understood in text or speech but are not used in everyday situations (Perederii, T., 2018, p. 43). Therefore, after analyzing teaching and methodological literature (English, Listening, Listen and Practice, Instructional and Methodological Recommendations for the Discipline "Practical Course of English" for Fourth-Year Students, Grammar in Practice: Part 1 – the Subjunctive Mood and Modals, etc.) on professional disciplines of the English and Methodology Department, we can conclude that most lexical units in teaching and methodological manuals are divided thematically (e.g., studying vocabulary related to professions, travel, medicine, theatre, etc.), grammatically or according to similar usage (e.g., adjectives for describing geographical locations, verbs for denoting movement), according to the tasks set (e.g., to persuade foreigners to visit the country).

Section 4.4. Exercises for Developing Grammatical Skills

Our next task is to analyze exercises for developing grammatical skills. The process of developing grammatical skills, as well as lexical skills, occurs in certain stages: familiarization (understanding the meaning); training (understanding the operations of formation); mastering the skills of applying/recognizing grammatical phenomena in various types of speech activity (Lytvyn, S., 2019, p. 7).

For many years, the study of grammar was considered key to the process of learning a foreign language. Nowadays, the approach to developing grammatical skills has changed somewhat and become more practical. Most scholars consider the

"present then practice" approach to be correct (Nikolaieva, S., 2016, p. 42). In other words, it is important to first introduce, present, define, explain, and clarify a grammatical phenomenon, and only then put it into practice (Figure 4.4).

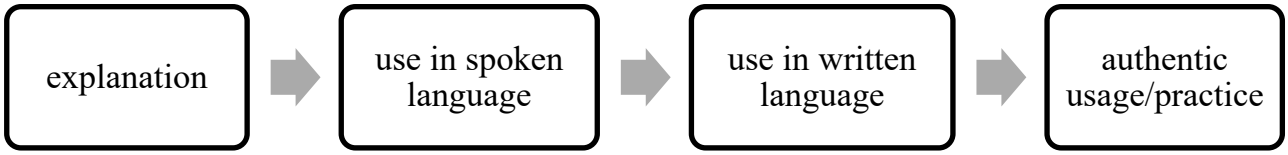


Figure 4.4. The "present, then practice" model of grammar learning

When using the "present and then practice" model for learning grammar, it is important to follow a clear sequence of steps:

I. First, it is advisable to use guessing, analogy, and comparison exercises to present the grammatical structure to be studied. Grammarians advise spending no more than two minutes explaining a grammatical phenomenon, as a 20-minute presentation can cause confusion and boredom in the classroom (Nikolaieva, S., 2016, p. 43). A good alternative for explaining grammatical material can be a set of tasks and exercises that help students, either independently or under the guidance of a teacher, formulate a rule, determine a grammatical form, and analyze mistakes. This approach is quite often practiced by teachers of the English and Methodology Department in practical grammar classes in the first and second years of study (Appendix A):

1. *Read the conversation. Look at the highlighted grammar examples. What are they? / Now read the sentences and choose the correct words in italics. The highlighted grammar examples will help you.*
2. *Fill in the table with the cases of the use of the modal verb CAN analysing the given examples of the sentences. Try to hypothesise rules.*
3. *Analyse errors and try to hypothesise rules* (Bondaruk, Ya., Slobodianyk, O., 2019).

II. The next stage involves practicing the use of the grammatical phenomenon that has already been explained, we mean its use in spoken language (Fig. 3.4).

Students practice using the grammatical phenomenon in spoken language, using the example provided by the teacher. An interesting task at this stage may be to search for a specific grammatical phenomenon in an authentic text.

As a rule, teachers ask students to find a certain number of grammatical units in books for home reading.

1. Read the first two chapters of 'Three men in a boat' by Jerome K. Jerome and find ten sentences where the forms of Gerund are used (Kolisnichenko, A., 2024).

III. Students complete written assignments using the grammatical phenomena they have learned:

1. Study the following examples and remember the forms of the Infinitive. Make up your own examples according to the given ones

2. Open the brackets, using the Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect or Perfect Continuous Infinitive Active.

3. Complete the following account with appropriate form of the infinitive (Kolisnichenko, A., 2024).

IV. Authentic use/practice: students have the opportunity to use the grammatical phenomenon they have learned in their speech. For example:

1. How would you advise someone who wants to conquer procrastination? Do a search on defeating or overcoming a procrastination. Read an article and prepare some advice. Report your suggestions to the class. Use as many as possible different forms of the Infinitive.

2. Answer the questions with your own information. Use the appropriate form of the Subjunctive Mood [8].

We should note that the issue of studying modern English grammar is somewhat controversial in academic circles. As T. Hedge presents, over the past 25 years, the study of grammar through detailed analysis of an endless number of rules has transformed into the development of grammatical skills necessary for understanding meaning (grammar as meaning), discourse (grammar in discourse), and style of expression (grammar and style) (Kozachuk, S., 2016, p. 39).

In classes on the subject “Practical Grammar” (first and second years of studing), teachers try to select a system of exercises and tasks that help students understand the peculiarities of the use of individual grammatical phenomena. Thus, striking examples of studying grammar from the point of view of meaning can be the tasks proposed during the study of the topic of modality:

1. Complete these sentences using the modal verbs can/could or to be able to. Sometimes it is possible to use either; sometimes only to be able to is possible.

2. Fill in the gaps using the verb must or the expression to have to followed by the appropriate infinitive to express the obligation.

3. Translate the following sentences into English using must, may, evidently, probably, to be sure to express supposition (Kolisnichenko, A., 2024).

It is equally important to study grammatical phenomena in order to understand the whole discourse, rather than individual sentences or utterances. In this case, the usual rules do not apply, and the meaning of individual grammatical phenomena takes on a different form in colloquial, scientific, journalistic, and other styles. It should be noted that the study of grammatical phenomena in the context of discourse construction is not studied within a single discipline or course. Individual exercises and tasks developed by teachers are performed with the aim of developing writing and speaking skills. In their work “A Communicative Grammar of the English Language” (Leech, G. Svartvik, p. 2013) propose six ways in which individual sentences can be combined into oral or written discourse:

1. Connective words: in oral and written communication classes, practical English courses, and practical grammar classes, students are encouraged to use certain fixed expressions in oral and written communication to introduce the beginning of a statement (e.g., to begin with, well), to change the topic of a statement (e.g., by the way, incidentally), to list items (moreover, to begin with, furthermore), to summarize (e.g., to crown it all, to cut a long story short), etc.

2. Connective constructions: these constructions mainly include conjunctions that help to connect complex sentences (e.g., and, or, of, because, however, etc.). Considerable attention is paid to the above-mentioned constructions in practical

grammar classes in the first and second years of study. These conjunctions are an integral part of the grammatical material on the use of the conditional mood of verbs, impersonal forms of verbs, etc. Students are asked to complete translation tasks, fill in the blanks, or give oral presentations, where the correct use of a conjunction determines the meaning and function of a particular grammatical structure or phenomenon.

3. Connections of general meaning: as a rule, such words include phrases with impersonal verb forms. For example, considerable attention is paid to the adverb too when studying the syntactic functions of verbs. Students are asked to complete tasks on the correct word order in a sentence, where the meaning of the whole sentence depends on the position of the adverb.

4. Substitution and omission: using pronouns instead of nouns or omitting verbs in a sentence to avoid repetition.

5. Presentation of information, attention: some of the exercises and tasks are designed to show possible unusual word order in a sentence in order to draw attention to individual words.

6. Order and stress: some exercises are designed to show possible variations in stress in a sentence or word. In this case, most of the exercises are related to the use of the pronoun it in different variations in a sentence. When studying the syntactic functions of the infinitive and gerund, students are offered a series of exercises using the pronoun it (Bondaruk, Ya., Slobodianyk, O., 2019).

1. Open the brackets using the appropriate form of the Gerund (Infinitive). Analyze the syntactic functions of the Verbal. Draw your attention to the place of IT in the sentence (Bondaruk, Ya., Slobodianyk, O., 2019).

Therefore, such a system of exercises and tasks, which is focused on learning grammar through discourse (oral and written), helps to gain a deeper understanding of certain grammatical phenomena and use them more confidently in speech. However, in this case, it should be remembered that this approach is more of an exception to the rule than a traditional way of using a particular grammatical structure.

Having established the feasibility of studying grammar through the meaning of individual sentences and discourse as a whole, we consider it necessary to note the importance of studying grammar through speech styles (formal and informal, business, everyday, literary, etc.). (Leech, G. Svartvik, p. 2013) believe that the study of speech styles should be part of exercises for developing not only lexical but also grammatical skills. Tasks of this type are focused on distinguishing between styles and the correct use of a particular grammatical construction (contracted verb forms, word order in a sentence, etc.).

It is necessary to mention that our analysis of teaching aids for the disciplines of the English and Methodology Department revealed a certain similarity in the selection of exercises and tasks offered by domestic and foreign methodologists.

Section 4.5. Development of Productive Skills

The next we are going to consider a set of exercises and tasks aimed at developing productive skills: speaking and writing. Language teaching in higher education institutions is carried out through working with oral and written texts, illustrative materials, and discussing topics, experiences, etc.

Currently, the communicative approach to learning English prevails in the foreign language education system. It is believed that the development of productive skills (namely speaking) occurs in three areas (Postolenko, I., 2025, p. 413): 1) the ability to retell and repeat (practice speaking in situations close to real life); 2) the opportunity to make maximum use of the language being studiedr (it is possible to track the student's progress and problems that arise in constructing statements); 3) the opportunity to activate various elements of the language (the more speech is practiced, the faster the statement becomes automatic) (Kozachuk, S., 2016, p. 36). Under these conditions, the teacher's task is to select a set of exercises and tasks that are aimed not only at promoting the development of students' foreign language speech under the guidance of the teacher, taking into account pronunciation,

vocabulary, and the correctness of speech construction, but also at the ability to speak with a specific purpose in specific situations.

Given these considerations, scholars increasingly use the concepts of fluency and accuracy when discussing the development of productive skills, such as speaking (Kozachuk, S., 2016, p. 39). It is necessary to develop grammatical and lexical skills, as well as communicative abilities. Attention to the language system is undoubtedly important, but one should not forget about the importance of the pace and speed of speech, as well as contextual relevance (Kozachuk, S., 2016, p. 39).

When selecting exercises and tasks, it is important to keep in mind the purpose of communication and the types of conversational situations. Scientists identify several such types (Lytvyn, S., 2019, p. 6):

1. A situation that does not require practical tasks.
2. A situation in which an equal number of participants is important.
3. The number of participants should be small and limited.
4. Short replies.
5. A conversation not intended for a wide audience.

The conversational topics are believed to be a more informal form of communication and they do not require specific memorized patterns. The purpose of such communication can vary from exchanging news, information, and opinions to making decisions. It can be argued that communication for the purpose of learning English can be divided into two general types: informal (interaction, establishing social relationships) and formal (exchange of information for the purpose of obtaining a job, business relationships).

So, let's look at some examples of speech exercises and communication tasks used to teach speech in teaching guides. Note that when evaluating exercises and tasks for developing productive skills, we were guided by the classification developed by V. Redko (Redko, V., 2017) for analyzing foreign language textbooks (Figure 4.5):

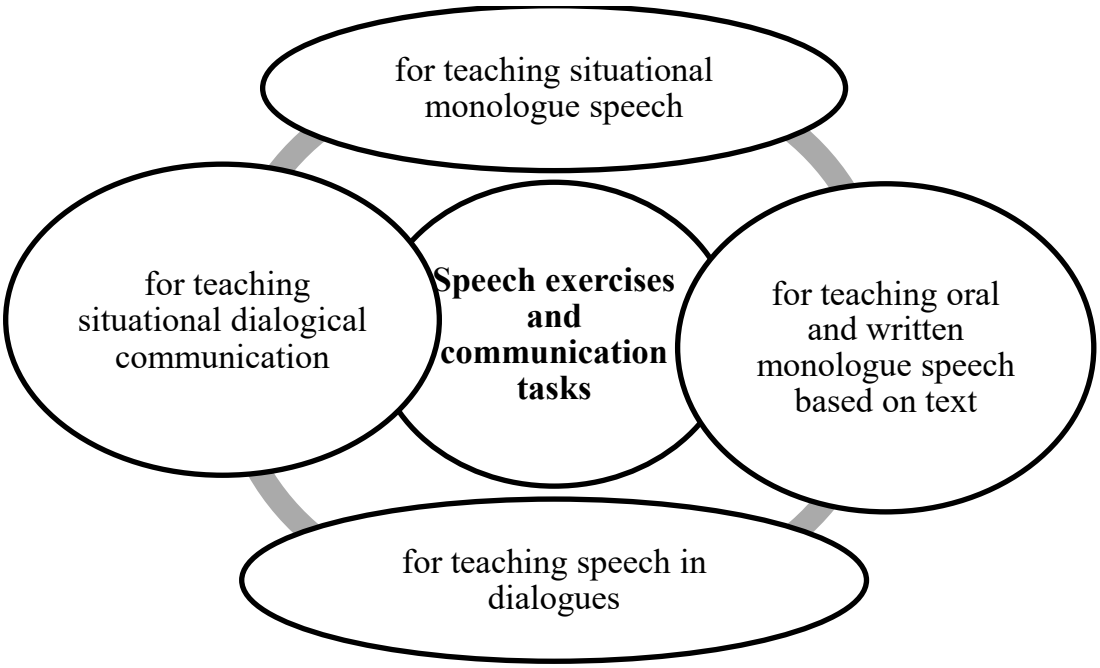


Figure 4.5. System of exercises and tasks for teaching monologue and dialogue speech

1. Exercises and tasks for teaching oral and written monologue speech based on the content of the text:

- what is the main idea of the work;
- describe a specific situation, fact, etc. mentioned in the text;
- agree or disagree with a fact, opinion, idea, etc. expressed by the author in the text;
- express your own opinion on certain information from the text;
- find key words and phrases in the text that will help you answer questions about the text;
- describe a picture or photograph using memorized language clichés and expressions, etc.

1. Look at the pictures and guess the profession they suggest, then say what each person in that profession does.

2. Compare and contrast the jobs in two pictures. Think of the qualities and qualifications needed, the advantages and disadvantages of each, and the lifestyle each job involves. Which of the jobs shown would you prefer to do? Why?

3. Read the given extract and answer the question:

- What is the language of Estate Agent?

- What personal traits can help characterize a good professional of any occupation?

- What do you think? Is it acceptable to deceive people for earning more money?

4. Read the text. Define if the statements are true or false and give some additional information to support your words. Use special language to sound persuasive.

6. Read the text below and decide if the author likes the Ukraine's capital or not. What words or expressions can help you understand the author's attitude?

7. Read the information about Ukrainian Castles with the Most Interesting Legends. What legend is the most striking? Speak on the interesting legend connected with the place you live in (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

2. Exercises and tasks for teaching situational monologue speech:

- agree/disagree with the proposed statement;
- read/listen to the sentence and continue the thought expressed in it;
- refute the idea expressed in the sentence;
- express your own point of view on...;
- evaluate...;
- rephrase the statement;
- talk about...;
- arrange the sentences in a certain order;
- from the list of sentences provided, select those that provide information about...;
- compose a statement using key words / according to a plan / using photos (pictures);
- describe...;
- convince your interlocutor of... (Redko, V., 2017);

1. Do you agree with the quote of a famous Scottish pioneering town planner given below? Prove your idea: "But a city is more than a place in space, it is a drama in time".

2. Read the text. Define if the statements are true or false.

3. What does this quote mean to you? Share your comments.

4. Look at the pictures and describe places using the Essential Vocabulary of the Unit.

5. Make up a menu for a beach barbeque. Make a list of food products you need for it. What is your specialty? (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

3. Exercises and tasks for teaching speech in dialogues:

- start a dialogue about...;
- compose a dialogue according to the model you have just listened to or read;
- compose a dialogue based on the suggested plan of replies, using the expressions and clichés you have learned earlier, etc.

1. Make up and role-play a dialogue between a Ukrainian and foreign students who are applying for an English summer course based on the text you've listened to.

2. Ask and answer questions about Russell Cook and his car using statistics. Roleplay the conversation between Russel Cook, Barry King and Tony Bond about his participation in the rally and his car (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

4. Exercises and tasks for teaching situational dialogical communication:

- compose a dialogue on the given topic;
- compose a dialogue based on the content of the excerpt you have read;
- compose a dialogue according to the outlined circumstances or situation.

1. Make up and role-play a dialogue between a tour agent and a tourist who wants to see some places of interest using the replies given in the dialogue you've listened to.

2. Make up and role-play a dialogue between a Ukrainian and foreign students who are sharing the impressions of their last trip to some place (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

The selection of tasks and exercises for developing productive skills is not limited to the proposed classification. The following forms of work are often practiced in class:

- free discussion, which helps not only to practice memorized situational dialogue and monologue speech, but also to communicate and develop students' interest in topics that interest them, where they can express their own point of view and share their experience. Traditionally, this form of work is most successful at the beginning or end of a class, a new topic, etc.;

- tasks with discrepancies in performance: students have two different pieces of information that need to be combined into one statement; draw a picture described by a partner, etc. (the task is aimed at improving the accuracy and clarity of speech).

An important part of monologue speech is the preparation of mini-projects and presentations by students. Traditionally, this form of work is offered at the end of each module studied. The purpose of this communicative task is to systematize and summarize all the knowledge and skills acquired within the studied topic. Students use a clear project plan that helps them to present the material systematically and comprehensively.

Here is an example of a tentative project plan on the topic “My career: the way I see it in the future,” which is carried out by second-year students at the Faculty of Foreign Languages:

Requirements for Structure

1. Inroduction

General information about the importance of getting / having a good job in people’s life, different jobs & professions.

2. The main body.

The description of your future career:

• *reasons for choosing,*

• *its importance in the contemporary world,*

• *features of character it requires,*

• *different skills it requires,*

• *its advantages and disadvantages.*

3. The conclusion (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

Examples of such projects and mini-presentations include the following samples proposed by teachers of the English and Methodology Department: group project “Presentation of Ukraine”, “Natural Wonders of Ukraine”, project on a conversational topic “This Amazing Place I Live in”, “Kyiv in One Day” (advertising the capital) (Appendix B), etc.

The assessment stage is no less important in this task. Students have the opportunity to analyze their own answers and those of their classmates, guided by certain criteria established by teachers: structure of the message; coherence and consistency of speech; correctness of language; use of learned phrases, expressions, and words in speech; form of presentation; manner of presentation (intonation, speed of speech, expressiveness, contact with the audience, etc.).

An interesting component of speech exercises and communication tasks is also students' reading at home. Systematic discussion of authentic books takes place at each stage of learning and includes various forms of work focused not only on developing reading skills, but also writing, speaking, and listening skills.

In terms of exercises for speech development, there are tasks such as:

- discussing the issues raised by the author in the book;

- finding interesting facts about a particular phenomenon, event, etc., using the suggested outline of statements or presentation plan;

- preparing questions based on the excerpt read;

- expressing one's own point of view on a particular statement by the author;

- try to evaluate the actions of the characters and suggest your own way out of the situation;

- come up with a different ending for the work, book, etc.

1. Work in groups to find new facts about Oxford University. Think of:

- What is Oxford University famous for?

- When was it established?

- Where are the students from?

- What about its world ranking?

2. Discuss positive sides of work in our life. Try to find out as many advantages as possible. Tell the group what you have found.

3. Explain the proverb "What the eye does not see, the heart does not grieve over" (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

Thus, an analysis of a number of teaching aids developed by the faculty of the English and Methodology Department at Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University showed that the selection of tasks and exercises for developing foreign language communication skills in higher education institutions depends on the purpose of the lesson, the level of difficulty of the exercise, the time, and the stage of learning.

For quite a long time, educational, methodological, and scientific literature held the view that developing writing skills should not be given as much time and effort as reading, speaking, listening, or phonetic skills. Scientists believed that it was enough to voice the task and ask students to complete it in writing, then evaluate their work (Bevz O., Gembaruk A., 2024). However, a study of a number of scientific and pedagogical sources has now revealed considerable interest among methodologists in the selection of exercises and tasks for developing writing skills. Writing skills are important for the following reasons: scientific work, exam preparation, and business English are the most important areas of education where writing plays a significant role; it is an opportunity to record the teacher's thoughts in the original language; writing activates various mental processes – more time to think, reflect, prepare, repeat, find the best option for expressing an idea, etc.; writing changes the pace of the lesson, its "mood"; writing is the basis of professional communication (proposals, reports, statements, preparatory measures, letters, etc.) (Lytvyn, S., 2019, p. 9).

In addition to mastering foreign language writing, it is important to develop and improve other skills, such as metacognitive ones. Determining the purpose of the written expression, planning it, choosing the style of writing, logical structure, checking what has been written, etc. is not the entire list of actions necessary for

constructing a successful written work. It is these reasons that allow us to conclude that writing skills are one of the important components of learning foreign language communication.

Of course, writing cannot be considered separately from other forms of work. But the selection of exercises for developing such skills depends on the purpose of the lesson itself, on the task setting. The formation and improvement of writing skills begins at the level of simple copying and gradually transforms into free creative writing.

After analyzing the teaching and methodological literature of the English and Methodology Department, we note that a set of writing exercises can be classified according to the following criteria:

– Copying (copying certain information from the board, slide; writing out examples from the text, etc.).

1. Read the poem. Note down different forms of the Infinitive;

2. Note down the sayings halves with Gerunds. Define the form of the Gerund (Bondaruk, Ya., Slobodianyk, O., 2019, p. 62);

– Performing exercises (filling in the blanks, completing sentences)

1. Use the appropriate form of the Gerund of the verbs in brackets;

2. Complete the following, using the Gerund (Bondaruk, Ya., Slobodianyk, O., 2019, p. 62);

3. Fill in the blanks with the words and expressions from the box making any necessary changes (Bondaruk, Ya., Slobodianyk, O., 2019, p. 40).

– Writing based on a model (writing a dialogue using the suggested model; writing a story using the suggested vocabulary, etc.).

1. Find the definitions of the words in below. Then make up your own story with them (Bondaruk, Ya., Slobodianyk, O., 2019, p. 40);

2. Most of us have procrastinated at one time or another. Write two or three paragraphs about a time when you put off doing something that needed to be done. Tell about the results. Speculate about the reasons for your procrastination and discuss the consequences. Use different forms of the Infinitive. Example: I've

had lots of experiences with putting off things that needed to be done, but one that sticks in my mind is about getting my car tuned up. I was scheduled to go on a cross-country trip, and I knew I needed to take my car in for a tune-up. One thing led to another, though, and I continued to procrastinate. Finally, the day of my departure arrived, and I hadn't had the tune-up done. I said to myself… (Bondaruk, Ya., Slobodianyk, O., 2019, p. 158).

– Free writing (writing an essay or letter on a given topic in the appropriate style).

1. You have the opportunity to visit a city / town in Ukraine for two weeks. Which city/town would you like to visit? Use specific reasons and details to explain your choice;

2. You have just visited two famous metropolises of the UK (London and Liverpool) and learned a lot about these places. Write down a letter to your best friend sharing your impressions about the trip. The use of the Essential Vocabulary is appreciated;

3. Fill in a car-hire booking form (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

– Free creative writing (writing a composition, letter, or message without any template, plan, or model).

1. Would you like to live in a big city or a small town? What accounts for your choice?

2. The world today faces serious changes: we don't really understand the way in which technology is changing our lives: education, communication, leisure, relationship – everything. If we don't understand today's world, how can we make sure tomorrow's world is a good one for ourselves, our children, our children's children (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

We consider it necessary to emphasize that the development of writing skills takes place at the Faculty of Foreign Languages of Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University at all stages of training while studying professional disciplines taught in English. However, in our opinion, the number of tasks and exercises aimed at developing and improving this skill is unevenly distributed. This

is due to the specifics of teaching disciplines, the number of academic hours, and the level of English proficiency of higher education students in different courses.

We should note that copying and simply completing exercises is unlikely to have a significant impact on the formation of writing skills, but it is a great way to improve vocabulary and grammar, which is quite important for the development of foreign language communication skills. In addition, it is worth remembering that learning to write is just as important as developing other productive (speaking) and receptive (listening, reading) skills, and is an integral part of them.

Section 4.6. Development of receptive skills

Therefore, the next stage of our research was to analyze a set of exercises and tasks for developing receptive skills (reading and listening) presented in the teaching and methodological literature of the English and Methodology Department, Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University.

In the process of learning English, reading performs a number of important functions, including: information from texts in most cases is the basis for oral and written tasks and exercises; a good source of language material with lexical units and grammatical phenomena; it is an inexhaustible source of additional information for the development of communication skills of higher education students, broadening their worldview, etc.

Nowadays, researchers increasingly use the term “interactive” when analyzing the process of reading in a foreign language. This concept can be interpreted in two ways. First, it helps to explain the dynamic relationship with the text when the reader tries to understand the meaning of what they have read. This “struggle” in higher education students begins at the level of reading the task itself: active processes begin to take place, which K. Goodman called a “psycholinguistic guessing game” (Bondaruk Ya., 2019, p. 60). From this point of view, reading can be seen as a dialogue between the reader and the text, between the reader and the author,

involving at least six types of knowledge to understand the content of what has been read (Bondaruk Ya., 2019, p. 62):

– knowledge of syntax;

– knowledge of morphology;

– general knowledge about the world;

– sociocultural knowledge;

– knowledge of literary genres (Bondaruk Ya., 2019, p. 64).

Secondly, the interpretation of the term "interactive," which is associated with the process of reading, is linked to additional knowledge necessary for understanding what has been read. Thus, knowledge of syntax and morphology forms linguistic or systemic knowledge that helps to decipher language. Sociocultural knowledge, general knowledge about the world, and literary genres are considered schematic, influencing the interpretation of word meanings.

As far as we can see, reading is considered a coherent component of various types of knowledge necessary for learning foreign language communication. At the same time, reading involves not only training-related activities, but also interaction between the reader and the text, mediated by acquired skills and knowledge.

In modern scientific and educational literature, there are a number of classifications, types, and styles of reading, which depend on its purpose, task, and time of execution. When analyzing exercises and tasks for developing students' reading skills at the Faculty of Foreign Languages, we were guided by the classification of exercises proposed by T. Hedge in his work "Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom". Thus, the researcher identifies the following reading styles used for teaching foreign language communication:

Receptive reading, when the reader quickly obtains part of the information from a specific source (a short story, a note from an article, etc.) (Andriiko, I., 2018).

1. Read the information about Summer Festivals in Edinburgh and answer the questions:

- What is the Fridge Festival?

- What does the term 'fridge' mean?

- What is the main purpose of festivals in Edinburgh?

2. Read the information about Ukrainian Castles with the most Interesting Legends. What legend is the most striking (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018)?

Reflective reading involves familiarization with a fragment of text and its analysis (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

1. Read the supplement written by Ashburton Guardian. Do you agree with the author's point of view? Get ready to analyze the highlighted phrases on you own (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

Skimming aims to obtain general information and impressions of the text content (quickly familiarizing oneself with an article, focusing only on certain headings and individual sentences) (Bilenka Yu., Kolomiets M., 2022):

– read a fragment of text or the whole text to understand the main idea;

– read the headline and guess the content of the message in the text.

1. Read the title of the article 'FROM LIBRARIAN TO POLITICAL REPORTER… IN A MONTH! How Jessica went from working in a local library to interviewing politicians on TV in just 28 days'.

a) What kind of personality do you think you need to be a good political reporter?

b) Read the text and put the following headings in the right place: the challenge, the programme, the training, the teachers, the contestant (Bilenka Yu., Kolomiets M., 2022).

Careful reading involves searching for the necessary information in the text (key points, ideas in a scientific report) (Bilenka Yu., Kolomiets M., 2022, p. 115):

- find a description of a particular phenomenon in the text;
- find the words and expressions used by the author to describe (people, phenomena, symptoms of disease, etc.);
- confirm a specific statement using expressions and words from the text.

1. Read the article 'Ukraine: Superstitions and Culture' and answer the questions:

Do you think any of the strengths and weaknesses of your nationality may not be completely true?

Are Ukrainians really superstitious? Is it just national tradition?

What are the key points of the information given in the text? (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

Intensive reading is aimed at detailed analysis of the text (reading a poem with the aim of analyzing word choice) (Bondaruk, Ya., Opryshko, A., 2020):

- read the proposed letter (essay) samples and identify the main features of different forms of letters (essays);
- study and memorize the rules for using a particular grammatical construction/lexical unit, etc.;
- read a book and identify the main issues addressed by the author, etc.

1. Read the following jokes. Choose the one you like most of all and explain its meaning. Do you often have a similar situation in your life?

2. Read the poem about city life. Present its literary translation;

3. Read the poem for children "A Pair of Potatoes Were Talking". Give its literary translation (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024).

Extensive reading:

– finding additional information about certain facts, statements, events, etc.;

– independent additional reading by students, which is not controlled by the teacher.

According to T. Hedge, the need for such a division of reading styles is due to different reading purposes: obtaining information, interest in the topic, completing a task, for pleasure, communicating with friends and colleagues, searching for specific information, etc. Different reading purposes involve working with different genres and text styles: articles, brochures, poems, short stories, maps, charts, diagrams, novels, etc. However, the limited time available in English classes does not allow for the full use of the above-mentioned genres. In this case, it is important to select the

right exercises and tasks that encourage students to read and strengthen their independent work.

In addition, an analysis of teaching aids prepared by teachers of the English and Methodology Department showed that most exercises and tasks aimed at developing students' reading skills can also be divided into three large groups: 1) pre-text; 2) exercises and tasks during reading; 3) post-text. Let us consider each of these groups.

The main task of pre-text exercises is to prepare students to perceive information in the text, to focus their attention on the purpose of such a task:

– to answer questions related to the topic of the text;

– to analyze the title, try to determine the content of the text;

– work through some of the words and expressions that may appear in the text;

– determine the purpose of the work;

– share experiences related to the topic of the text.

1. Read the title of the article. What kind of personality do you think you need to be a good political reporter?

2. Answer the following questions before reading.

3. Read the heading of the article. What do you think it is about? (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

The tasks given to students while reading are designed to increase their attention during the reading process and focus on specific information, lexical units, or grammatical phenomena:

- find English equivalents for the expressions in the text;
- put the subheadings of the paragraphs of the text you are reading in the correct order;
- find a specific grammatical structure in the text;
- find a series of synonyms/antonyms in the text for the given words.

We believe that post-text exercises and tasks are of great importance when reading. Teachers suggest involving students in discussing the content of the text in small groups and constructing key questions about the text. After the discussion, the most

interesting ideas are brought up for broader discussion. Post-text exercises can be focused on developing oral or written, monological or dialogical speech, as well as on forming phonetic, lexical, or grammatical skills. Here are some examples of post-text exercises:

1. Find the following words in the text.

2. Read the given extract and answer the question:

– What is the language of Estate Agent?

– What personal traits can help characterize a good professional of any occupation?

– What do you think? Is it acceptable to deceive people for earning more money?

3. Define if the statement is true or false and give some additional information to support your words. Use special language to sound persuasive.

4. Read the text below and decide if the author likes the Ukraine's capital or not. What words or expressions can help you understand the author's attitude?

5. Discuss the experience of globetrotters at the airport you`ve read about with the partner (Bilenka Yu., Shulha N., 2018).

In our opinion, foreign language communication is best learned through detailed and critical reading, when the reader's attention is focused not only on certain aspects of the text, but also on understanding the entire material read. On the other hand, any approach to reading requires understanding the meaning of individual words, their pronunciation, and their usage in relevant sentences. As a result, all this is closely intertwined with the lexical, grammatical, and phonetic skills of higher education students and confirms their inseparable connection in the process of teaching foreign language communication skills.

In addition, when planning exercises to develop reading skills, a three-stage model is quite popular: exercises performed during reading; pre- and post-text exercises. Most of the tasks in the department's teaching aids are structured according to this scheme (Fig. 4.6).

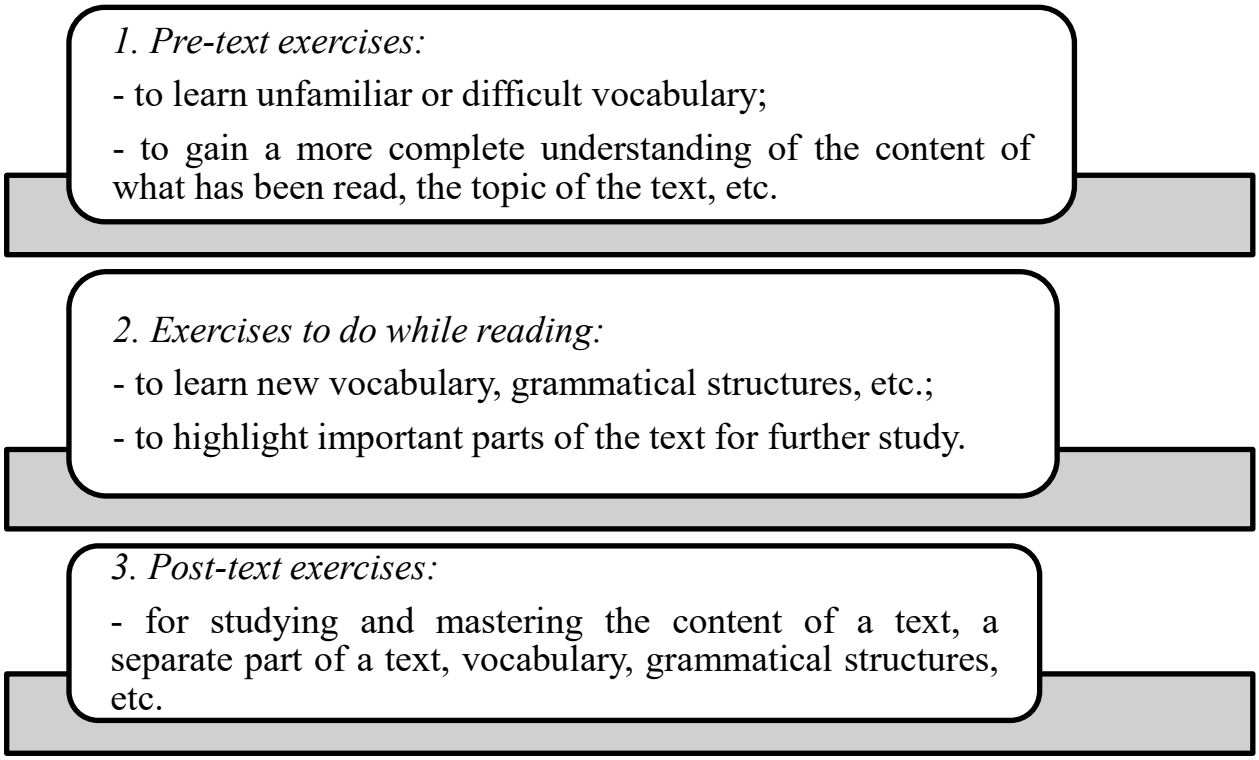


Fig. 4.6. Exercises for developing reading skills for higher education students

A striking example of such a model of exercises aimed at developing the reading skills of higher education students is a series of methodological materials developed for home reading (Bilenka Yu., Kolomiets M., 2022).

At the first stage, students are asked to study additional literature to find specific information that more fully reveals the topic of the text, introduces the reader to additional facts or events that may influence the process of assimilation and study of what has been read, and helps to gain a deeper understanding of the lexical or grammatical structures in the text.

1. Everyone has visited a parade (festivals or fairs) at least once in his/her life. Work in pairs to find the interesting information about the origin of some parade and its features.

2. Where is 'the best and maddest' bargaining in the world? Find the information about this.

3. Think over the synonyms and antonyms for the following:

✓*cacophony – a) disharmony, dissonance; b) harmony*

✓*collapse – a) crash, failure; b) success*

✓ *dawn – a) daybreak, peep of dawn; b) setting, sundown* (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024).

Exercises performed while reading help students focus on specific lexical units, grammatical structures, syntactic or artistic design of the text, etc.

1. Give English equivalents of the following words and word combinations. Recall the situations these phrases belong to:

Дівоче прізвище;

Підтасовувати/ фальсифікувати події;

Вселитися / влаштуватися на новому місці;

Суперництво, конкуренція (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024).

2. Find as many as possible adjectives, & word combinations describing person's character. Say the characters these adjectives portray.

3. Paraphrase some words and phrases in bold type. Use the words from the chapter you are reading:

a) It was a novelty sleeping under mosquito nets.

b) He must be the new intake from 'Blighty'.

I've been short-handed in India (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024).

Post-text exercises are tasks that help students analyze and draw conclusions from the text. The most common exercises are:

1. Mark statements as 'True' or 'False';

2. Guess what situation each sentence belongs to. Speak on it.

Get ready to speak on the topics after reading this chapter (Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O., 2024).

We believe that most of the exercises and tasks included in teaching aids can only be conditionally divided into those focused on acquiring reading or listening

skills, speaking or writing skills, vocabulary or grammar, etc. This is because the tasks are designed in such a way that they develop several skills and abilities at once.

It should be emphasized that despite the multifaceted approach to finding exercises and tasks for reading, one of the main tasks in all cases remains unchanged: the development of critical thinking in students, the ability to approach problem solving creatively, and the ability to work with authentic texts.

Next, we will look at exercises and tasks that promote the development of another receptive skill – listening (audition). For quite a long time, it was believed that the ability to listen, perceive, and understand information in a foreign language develops naturally when a student studies grammar, vocabulary, and phonetics. However, when learning English, as with any foreign language, the ability to understand and participate in live communication is valuable. The impetus for this change in perspective was the realization of the importance and role of listening comprehension—listening is the key to understanding a foreign language.

In scientific literature, there is an opinion that any listening process can be divided into two stages:

1) Listening focused on understanding the essence, the main content of what is heard (bottom-up listening). In order to understand the information heard, several factors are identified:

– First, we pay attention to the pace of speech, intonation, pauses, the speaker's reaction, and behavior. All this helps to understand the nature of the statement and, in part, its content.

– Lexical skills help to build and understand the logical connection between words and sentences.

– Understanding syntactic and grammatical phenomena in a message helps to analyze and comprehend the information heard (Kozachuk, S., 2016, p. 42).

2) Listening that requires deeper knowledge and concentration (top-down listening). In this case, the listener must not only apply the above-mentioned skills and abilities, but also be prepared to connect the information heard with previously acquired knowledge.

In any case, the purpose of listening can vary. After analyzing our exercises and tasks, we can identify some of the goals of listening to information: exchanging information, impressions, feelings; watching movies, listening to music, radio (for pleasure); listening for the purpose of completing a task or exercise; listening to a lecture or seminar, etc. This list could go on forever; it depends on the type of exercise and task.

Conclusions.

Higher education institutions attach great importance to the development of listening skills. The teaching aids developed guide students to work with authentic audio recordings, grouped by topic and level of difficulty, in accordance with the requirements of the curriculum for professional disciplines – oral and written communication practice, and practical English language courses. The methodology of audio workshops involves the acquisition of a set of knowledge aimed at developing students' understanding of foreign-language texts, followed by lexical, grammatical, and creative exercises. The tasks include listening to a text with prior familiarization with unfamiliar lexical material, searching for English equivalents in the proposed texts, answering questions, as well as creative exercises for the development of monological and dialogical speech based on the audio material listened to (Appendix C). Most of the tasks in such manuals are designed for listening to texts in a language lab, followed by checking students' comprehension within 60–64 hours of classroom time. In addition to the tasks and exercises that can be completed within the classroom hour, students listen to additional texts and complete a series of tasks; they watch films and programs, which are also discussed in class.

Studying the development of students' listening skills, J. Field proposed seven approaches to organizing exercises and tasks, which, in his opinion, can be considered alternative, independent approaches to listening training:

1. Procedural approach: includes practical tasks focused on developing specific aspects of listening (understanding individual words, parts of a text); such listening is quite short (10 minutes).

2. Approach involving the completion of specific tasks: the main task is to understand as much as possible from what is heard.

3. Targeted approach: it is important not only to listen to the test, but also to think about the idea and theme of the text before listening.

4. Diagnostic approach: involves listening to the text with one goal in mind, which is to provide clear answers to specific questions about the text.

5. Autonomous listening is the most convenient way for students to work with the text, as it allows them to listen to the text several times and complete the tasks at a pace that is convenient for them.

6. Gradual increase in the number of authentic texts for study.

7. An approach that involves developing the ability of higher education students to perceive and analyze authentic speech sounds.

It is noteworthy that such approaches to developing receptive skills – listening – are often used by teachers in oral and written speech practice classes, as demonstrated in the department's teaching manuals (Appendix C).

We believe that the typology of exercises for developing listening skills can be roughly compared to reading tasks: pre-text; those performed while listening to the text; post-text (Appendix C). So, let's look at some exercises and tasks for developing listening skills in students.

1. Pre-listening tasks help students focus on the purpose of listening to the text, pay attention to certain lexical units, grammatical phenomena, or the pronunciation of individual words:

– transcribe individual words or expressions;

– read the task with different answer options, try to guess what the text will be about;

– comment on a specific expression or phrase;

– find additional information about... .

2. Tasks during listening are usually necessary to test students' lexical or grammatical skills and help them understand the text more deeply:

– choose the correct answer from the list provided;

– insert the missing words or part of the sentence;

– determine whether the statement is true;

– find equivalents for the given words or expressions;

– pay attention to the pronunciation of individual words, expressions, and the intonation of the message.

As mentioned above, post-text exercises are more creative and communicative in nature:

– comment on the situation you have heard;

– answer questions;

– compose and present a dialogue appropriate to the situation;

– prepare a message according to the proposed topic;

– compose a story, etc.

Thus, our analysis has made it possible to determine the sequence of structuring the process of applying various exercises and tasks during the teaching of English to higher education students. To a large extent, their selection depends on the stage of training, the topic to be studied, and the main textbook used by the department's teachers in classes. Another important feature of teaching aids is that they do not clearly distinguish between types of exercises, which allows for the development of receptive and productive skills within a single class or part of a class.

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Appendices

Appendix A

SAMPLE EXERCISES BASED ON THE "PRESENT, THEN PRACTICE" MODEL FOR LEARNING GRAMMAR

Task 1. ***Explain the difference between the use of NEED as a modal and a normal verb.***

NEED AS A MODAL AND A NORMAL VERB

MODAL VERB	NORMAL VERB
E.g. He *need say* something at the moment	**E.g.** He *needs to say* something at the moment.
E.g. You *needn't tell* me such things.	**E.g.** You *don't need to tell* me such things. He really *needs your help*.
E.g. She *need wait* for some time.	**E.g.** She *needs to wait* for some time. She *needed to wait* for some time.
E.g. *Need* you *go* there right now? You *needn't go* there right now.	**E.g.** *Do* you *need to go* there right now? You *don't need to go* there right now.

Appendix A (Continued)

Task 2. ***Explain the use of the BARE INFINITIVE taking into account the following examples.***

1.	I *don't know* what to do in this situation.
2.	We *must do* it immediately.
3.	I *heard* them *talk* very loudly in the kitchen. I *saw* him *cross* the street. I *felt* her *put* her hand on my shoulder. I *have never known* (= have never seen) Jane *behave* like this before.
4.	Why did you *let* her *go* there alone? They *made* me *say* it. I *won't have* you *talk* like this in my presence.
5.	Will you *help* me *do* it?
6.	She *bade* me *have* another cup of tea.
7.	You *had better tell* me the truth right now. I *would rather stay* here a bit longer. He does *nothing but walk* in the park all day long. We *couldn't choose but wait* for them.
8.	*Why stay* here so late? *Why not go* for a walk on such a nice day?

Bondaruk, Ya., Slobodianyk, O. (2019). Grammar in Practice: Part 1 – the Subjunctive Mood and Modals, 166.

Appendix B

EXAMPLES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMMUNICATIVE PROJECTS DEVELOPED BY TEACHERS OF THE DEPARTMENT, FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES, PAVLO TYCHYNA UMAN STATE PEDAGOGICAL UNIVERSITY

Group Project

'Presentation of Ukraine'

Requirements for Structure:

1. Introduction

General information about Ukraine, its geographical position.

2. Main Body

- Specific information about its climate, soil, water resources.
- What mineral resources are found on its territory?
- Some renowned features of Ukraine.

3. Conclusion.

Student's Presentation

'Natural Wonders of Ukraine'

Requirements for Structure

1. Introduction

General information about Ukraine's nature, its wonders.

2. Main Body

Describe one of Natural Wonders of Ukraine (Use special language to sound persuasive):

- The reason of your choice
- A brief history of the place
- Specific characteristics

Persuade foreign tourists to visit a place (Use special language to sound persuasive)

3. Conclusion.

Conversational Project

'This Amazing Place I Live in'

Requirements for Structure

1. Introduction

Express the main idea about the place you are going to describe

2. Main Body

Describe the place where you live (Use special language to sound persuasive. Essential Vocabulary is appreciated):

- The geographical position
- Some interesting historical facts, or legends
- Its uniqueness
- Your personal impression of the place
- What you would / wouldn't change

3. Conclusion.

Criteria for assessment

Criteria	*Number of points*
Structure	**2**
Coherence and cohesion	**2**
Speech accuracy	**2**
Relevant number of new words and expressions (not less than 10)	**1**
PowerPoint presentation	**1**
Manner of presentation (proper intonation, fluency of speech, eye contact, expressiveness etc.)	**2**
Total	**10**

Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O. (2024). Mastering English: Practice guide. Vizavi, 180.

Appendix C

SAMPLE EXERCISES FOR DEVELOPING LISTENING SKILLS IN THE FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Laboratory Work 22 (Cycling Trainer)

Pre-Listening

Task 1.1

Study the following words and phrases. Memorize and transcribe them:

race preparation	підготовка до перегонів
bike	велосипед
to kick off	розпочинати
to fall off	падати (з велосипеда)
to build up	закладати, створювати
an integral part	невід'ємна частина
stuff	речі; продукти харчування
to give off	виділяти, випускати
to stay up late	довго не лягати спати

Task 1.2

Answer the questions.

1. What things do you think are important for doing well at a sport?
2. What things do you think are particularly important for cycle racing?

Task 1.3

Here are some things students said about sport and exercise.

Match the beginnings of the sentences 1-5 with the endings a-e.

1 To be good at a sport, you must…
2 It's important that you have all…
3 Without following a suitable diet, you…
4 If you look at successful sports people, you'll…
5 You need to have a good trainer to…

a. have a high level of physical fitness,
b. won't develop your full potential,
c. help you bring out the best of your ability,
d. see that they're extremely ambitious,
e. the correct equipment.

Listening

Task 2.1

You are going to hear about a sports trainer talking to a group of cyclists about different aspects of training. Before you listen, read though the notes below, and think carefully about the kinds of words that you will need to write in the spaces.

Cycle training
Choice of bike is the first thing

1. *having the right _____ protects you*
2. *need to develop a suitable_____*
3. *must have _____ to develop performance*
4. *learn how to _____ when not training*
5. *if you don`t _____ well, performance will decrease*
6. *try to stay _____ at all times*

Task 2.2

Find the English equivalents in the text.

1. Вибір правильного велосипеда для тебе – це те, з чого все починається.
2. Напруга може бути реальним ворогом.
3. Якщо ви не розраховуєте на перемогу, не вірите, що зможете, то у вас нічого і не вийде.
4. Не куріть, не пийте, не засиджуйтеся допізна – завжди тримайтеся здоровими.
5. Я лише скажу декілька слів про тренування та підготовку спочатку.

Post-Listening

Task 3.1

Answer the following questions:

1. What are the basics of the race preparation?
2. What did you listen to?
3. What can be the real enemy of the racer?
4. What is the body? Does it differ from the machine you choose to ride?
5. What can you say about the stressed out rider?

Task 3.2

Ask 5 questions (of different types) about the text.

Task 3.3

You are preparing for the races. Explain to your groupmates the way you choose the bike and get ready for the race.

Postolenko, I., Slobodianyk, O. (2016). Listening: textbook. Vizavi, 161.

Appendix D

SYSTEM OF EXERCISES WITH DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO TEACHING LISTENING

UNIT 6

CROSSING BORDERS

Laboratory Work 11

"National Stereotypes: Truth or Myth?"

If you speak three languages, you are trilingual. If you speak two, you are bilingual. If you speak one, you are English.

German joke

Pre-listening

Task 1. Say if you agree or disagree with the sentences below.

1. The British are usually less friendly than the Americans.
2. The Italians dress better than any other nationality.
3. The rich are always meaner than the poor.
5. The elderly are best looked after in residential homes.
6. The unemployed should not receive state benefits.
7. Small towns are better places to live than big ones.
8. It's better to buy expensive clothes if you can afford to, because they last longer than cheap ones.

Task 2. Explain the meaning of the following traits of character.

Melancholic, nostalgic, open-minded, insular, self-satisfied, arrogant, keen travelers.

Listening

Task 3. Listen to four people talking about the typical characteristics of people from their country (England, Ireland, Scotland, and the USA). Match the speakers 1-4 with their nationality. Use their accent and what they say about people from their country to help you.

English	Scottish
Irish	American

Task 4. Find two extracts from each speaker. Write in the missing words. What do you think they mean?

1. a) We think that if we work hard we can _____ anything.
   b) I think I have _____ the typical optimism and drive.
2. a) Historically there has always been a lot of _____ .
   b) It's probably because of our _____ and our history.
3. a) It's difficult to generalize about us as a people, especially as our big cities now have such a _____ population.
   b) Just think of our inability, or our _____, to learn foreign languages!
4. a) There is also a negative _____ towards our neighbor.
   b) I feel that we tend to focus too much on the _____ done to us in the distant past.

Task 5. Write down at least one negative and two positive characteristics about each nationality. Does each person think they are typical or not? Why (not)?

Post-listening

Task 6. Make up five questions of different types to the extracts. Ask your fellow-student to answer them.

Task 7. In many parts of the world there is a joke which is based on national stereotypes. Complete 'Heaven' with five different nationalities. Then do the same for 'Hell'.

HEAVEN

'Heaven is where the police are _____, the cooks are _____, the mechanics are _____, the lovers are _____, and everything is organized by the _____.'

HELL

'Heaven is where the police are _____, the cooks are _____, the mechanics are _____, the lovers are _____, and everything is organized by the _____.'

Task 8. Discuss the questions.

1. What do you think are the strength of your nationality?
2. What are the weaknesses?
3. In what way would you say *you* are typical?

Bondaruk, Ya., Opryshko, A. (2020). Listen and practice: textbook. UDPU, 100.

Appendix E

SYSTEM OF EXERCISES USED FOR DEVELOPING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

UNIT 2

OPINION

2.1. Vocabulary

Learning and experience

Exercise 1. Complete the conversation with one word in each gap. The first letter of each word is given.

A: How has Eva settled into her job? Has she found her f_____ yet?

B: Well, she's still learning the r_____, but so far she's shown fantastic potential.

A: Great, I'm glad I recommended her. She'll be able to take a _____ of far more opportunities in your department than mine. By the way, I'm sorry to hear about the s _____ with your project. Will the delay be long?

B: I hope not, but this it's a new market for us and there's always a steep learning c_____when you move into something new.

A: Don't worry – trust your i_____. They're usually right.

B: You're right. Sometimes you have stop looking at the facts and figures and just go with your g_____.

Metaphors

Exercise 2. Find and correct the mistake in each sentence.

1. With his charm and intelligence Liam will go further in life.
2. I've achieved all my goals and have finally reached the point of my career.
3. I argued with some customers and got some bad reviews online. Since then, my business has gone down fast.
4. I'm not sure whether to go to uni or not. I'm at a real roundabout in my life.

5. My sister never thinks anything through. Her ideas are always under-baked.
6. Abraham said he climbed Mount Fuji in an afternoon. I found that a little hard to chew.
7. We could always go to the beach instead of the museum. It's food for mind, anyway.
8. I make sure I put away some time to do some yoga every day.
9. Just because Ed can memorise a lot of facts and figures and swallow them in meetings, doesn't make him the best employee.
10. Come on, let's not throw away precious time chatting. Let's do some shopping!

Exercise 3. Underline the correct alternatives.

1. If you know what you're doing, you can make a *war / killing / fight* on the stock exchange.
2. I wasn't good at academic subjects, but I really *lit /shone / glowed* at athletics.
3. The teachers all thought I was pretty *dim / dark / dull* when it came to maths.
4. They should stop fast food companies from *targeting / pointing / aiming* children in ads.
5. Rachel is obviously a *bright / shiny / clear* girl.
6. In a flash of *idea / inspiration / thinking*, Ampere made a discovery about electromagnetic forces.
7. If those two manufacturers joined *forces / teams / groups*, they could really make a great product.
8. Research evidence doesn't really *approve / show / support* your theory.

Collocations: opinions

Exercise 4. Put the letters in italics in the correct order to complete the sentences.

1. We all have _____ *sciencetornpop* about other countries before we visit them.
2. That sitcom was awful. The characters were all _____ *petersyesto*.
3. I was planning on going travelling for six months, but now I'm having _____*codens thugshot* about it.
4. Olly's not interested in other cultures or ideas. He's so ___*warnor-denmid*.
5. That programme showed a whole new _____ *trice sveep* on the life of Gandhi.
6. Ken tried to change our minds, but his arguments weren't very _____ *gnicnocniv*.
7. My first visit to London as a child was certainly _____ *eey- gonepin*.
8. You have to keep an _____ *pneo dimn* if you want to learn about different people and cultures.

Exercise 5. Find and correct the mistake in each sentence.

1. It's my private opinion that we should all give more to charity.
2. You shouldn't criticise Lydia for her views. Everyone's allowed to their own opinion.
3. I don't think they had an argument as such, just a contrast of opinion.
4. The main opinion is that global warming is having an effect on our world.
5. We'll never decide anything if opinion is shared.
6. There's no right or wrong answer. It's just a topic of opinion.
7. I don't care if you hate my mother's meat loaf! Save your opinion to yourself.

Idioms of opinion

Exercise 6. Match a beginning in A with a word/phrase in B and an ending in C to make sentences.

A	B	C
1. I love creating a good discussion by playing	on the	mind.
2. I'd like to know what you really think, so please speak	about the	advocate.
3. You never seem to have a clear opinion. You just sit	your	fence.
4. Come on, tell me what you really think. Don't beat	devil's	bush.

Focus on keep

Exercise 7. Match the underlined phrases with their meanings a)–n).

1. I have one of those apps that keeps track of the distances and speeds I run.
2. You're doing really well. Keep up the good work!
3. I'm trying to keep my weight down by not eating bread.
4. Giorgio keeps a low profile in meetings to stop himself from saying anything silly.
5. Good drivers keep their cool, even when stressed.
6. How can we keep these wasps away from the food?
7. Mr Jones never keeps to the topic in his lessons. He always goes off onto other topics.
8. Keep off the grass please. Walk on the path.
9. I hope your mum's operation goes well. Keep me posted.

10. Can you keep an eye on that pan for a minute while I go to the bathroom?
11. You should keep your opinions to yourself. Not everyone wants to hear them!
12. Slow down, I can't keep up with you!
13. Justin promised he'd be here on time and he usually keeps his word.
14. Come on, don't stop now. Keep going!

a) not go into an area
b) move at the same speed as
c) continue moving; not stop
d) continue doing
e) let me know what's happening
f) monitor
g) stop the size or level of something increasing
h) stays with
i) do something you said you will do
j) stop (something) from going near something
k) try not to get noticed
l) watch (something)
m) not give everyone your views
n) not get angry

Exercise 8. Complete the sentences with the correct form of phrases.

1. You're so quick in class. I just can't _____ with you.
2. Why did you get so angry? You usually _____ in situations like that.
3. Chas is working fifteen-hour days. If he _____ like this, he'll burn himself out.

4. Please _____ your shoes _____ the seats or you'll get them dirty.
5. The government is trying to _____ the number of children who skip school.
6. Verity's been _____ since she told our economics professor that he couldn't teach.
7. You promised me we'd go away this weekend. You'd better.
8. It's better if we _____ from Alain today. He's not in a very good mood.
9. Attached is next week's trip schedule. We'll _____ of any last-minute changes.
10. I usually _____, but sometimes I just have to tell people what I think.
11. Try to _____ the plan and do not make any changes.
12. So, you were in Canada two weeks ago and China last week. Wow, I can't _____ of all your travels!
13. I really want to _____ my German lessons, but it's hard to find the time.
14. I have to _____ on the time. I don't want to miss my train.

2.2. Reading

Exercise 1. Work in pairs and discuss. Use the ideas below.

1. If you want to find some information about a particular topic, what do you do?
2. What do you think most people do?
3. What don't people do very often anymore?

- Go to a library to do some research.
- Watch an online lecture.
- Look it up on Wikipedia or another online encyclopedia.

- Do a Google search and follow the links.
- Ask somebody you know for advice.
- Attend a conference by an expert in the field.

Exercise 2. Read the article about accessing opinions and facts in the digital age. How would the writer of the article answer question 1 in Ex. 1?

An Online World of Information

The digital age is one of instant gratification. The situation may be familiar to you: you're having coffee or dinner with some friends when somebody asks a general knowledge question. Nobody knows the answer but at least one person gets their smartphone out ready to find it. Where do we go for that info? Chances are it will be a random Google search or a check on Wikipedia. Triumphantly, they provide you with the answer. It's information which you don't argue with and then instantly forget – it's **ephemeral**.

The internet seems to be the most popular place to find information these days and it's not hard to see why – it is all just a click away. But, couldn't that also be why problems **arise**? After all, how do we know that the information we read is correct? What is the original source of these facts? And do we really understand the difference between opinion and fact?

Many people argue that all this is a natural consequence of the digital age. It is a more democratic age: we can write and upload our own content and share it happily with others. But generally, online writers **dumb down** the ideas they write about. All that information is there at our fingertips, but it's expressed in shorter, simpler ways and, worse, it's possibly **inaccurate**.

We not only have greater access to information – it is also delivered in ways that previously would have seemed **inconceivable**. In the past if you had wanted to find some academic knowledge, you would have needed to attend a lecture by an expert in the field. Now, websites like TED, Big Think and 99 Percent provide

online access to **thought- provoking** talks on all manner of subjects. The most viewed talk by Sir Ken Robinson, called 'Do schools kill creativity?', has been viewed over 36.5 million times. That many views of an academic talk on education surely is worth celebrating.

Does this mean we can trust the internet for opinions, but not so much for facts? That might be a rather simplistic argument, but I think there is some truth in it. Online lectures are a good example. It's also true to say that complex ideas can be made more accessible and dynamic via video. For example, the RSA (the Royal Society of Arts) has a number of online animated lectures, including one on kinetic typography. As the lecturers speak, words and images expressing their ideas **pop up** on the screen making the ideas easier to **assimilate**. It makes academic information more fun!

All this doesn't mean that the digital age has turned us into **hermits** watching everything online. In fact, people attend conferences more than ever before to watch experts deliver their words of wisdom live. Perhaps so much time online means we **crave** that human contact. Whatever the reason, we now have more choice than ever before about where to go for our information. We just have to remember to be critical in our appreciation of it!

Exercise 3. Read the article again. Are the sentences true (T) or false (F)? Correct the false sentences.

1. Nowadays, people are used to getting what they want when they want it.
2. The information we find online is always trustworthy and accessible.
3. Problems arise because information is too easy to obtain.
4. The kind of information we find is different but the way we receive it has not changed dramatically.
5. It is not necessarily a good thing that people watch serious talks about education.

6. With technology's help we can take in complex information more easily.
7. When it comes to obtaining information, attending events and conferences is something long forgotten.

Exercise 4. Look at the words and phrases in bold in the text and try to guess what they mean. Then complete the sentences 1–10 with the correct form of the words/phrases.

1. A problem *has arisen* with your booking. I can't find your details online. When did you book the room?
2. She became _____ and shut herself away, but that's when she produced her finest work.
3. The jury were given _____ evidence about the case and the accused was convicted of a crime he didn't commit.
4. A lot of the information on social media is _____. You don't remember any of it the next day.
5. One of the most _____ films to come out this year, it could be a candidate for an Oscar.
6. When you're _____ a favourite food, like some chocolate, it's difficult to resist the urge.
7. That video was too fast for me _____ everything. Can I watch it again?
8. Travelling around the globe like we do today would have been _____ years ago. Now we take it for granted.
9. The audience didn't know much about the subject so I _____ some of the more complex ideas.
10. When you're online, information keeps _____ all the time. It can be very distracting.

Exercise 5. Work in pairs and discuss.

1. Do you agree with what the article says about online information? Why/Why not?
2. What do you think the writer means in the last line of the article?
3. Can you think of any ideas or opinions that you have accessed online recently and that you would recommend?
4. How did you access that information?

2.3. Grammar

Conditionals and regrets

Exercise 1. Which conditional do we use to talk about:

1) likely conditions (things which are very likely to happen)?
2) unlikely conditions (things which might happen, but probably won't)?
3) impossible conditions (things which are unreal and did not happen)?
4) general conditions (things which can occur at any time and often occur more than once, and their results)?

Exercise 2.

A. Match 1–8 with a pair of clauses (a–h) to make sentences.

1. If they'd brought a map,
2. If you solve the problem,
3. If I were you,
4. If I had my own car,
5. If I'd worked harder,
6. If you don't leave right now,
7. I'll phone the hospital
8. If the ball touches the line,

a) I'll phone the police. / you'll regret it.
b) It's in, not out. / don't blow your whistle.
c) I could have gone to college. / I'd have passed the exam.
d) I'll buy everyone dinner. / you'll feel a lot better.
e) I'd listen to her very carefully. / I wouldn't tell her.
f) I'd go away every weekend. / you wouldn't have to take me to work.
g) if you don't have time. / if you want.
h) they wouldn't be lost now. / they would have arrived on time.

B. Match the sentences in Ex. 2A with their functions.

a) advice
b) offer
c) promise
d) instructions/rules
e) criticism
f) regretting
g) threats
h) imagining, wishing

Exercise 3. Complete the conditional sentences with the correct form of the verbs in the brackets.

1. I _____ (join) an amateur operatic club if I _____ (can) sing better, but my voice isn't great.
2. The personnel department _____ (not overlook) you if we _____ (have) your details on file, but we don't appear to have them.
3. It's quite easy. If you _____ (put) the coins in and _____(press) the green button, the machine _____ (print) the ticket.
4. We _____(not sell) our old hi-fi if you _____(tell) us that you wanted to keep it!
5. It's about time for a career change, so if the hospital _____ (offer) me that job, I think I _____(take) it.

Verb patterns

Exercise 4. Choose the correct form to complete the sentences.

1. I really want *work / to work* for a national newspaper.
2. He doesn't mind *to work / working* late.
3. My teacher persuaded me *study / to study* journalism at college.
4. My boss wouldn't let me *write / to write* the story about the police and the politician.
5. My boss encourages us *to take / taking* tea breaks during the working day.
6. Do you remember *to go / going* for your first job interview?
7. She promised *to file / filing* the story before midnight.
8. I can't stand *read / reading* about celebrity gossip.
9. She blamed me for *delete / deleting* the file, but it wasn't me!

Exercise 5. Complete the sentences with your own ideas. Use the correct verb patterns. Then work with a partner and compare your answers.

1. I don't mind _____.
2. My parents persuaded _____.
3. I promised _____.
4. Next year I really want _____.
5. My parents always encouraged _____.
6. I can't stand _____.
7. Once I blamed my friend _____.
8. I remember _____when I was a child.
9. When you go out, you must remember _____.

Exercise 6. Complete the sentences with the correct form of the verbs in brackets.

1. Working on a newspaper, I really enjoy _____ (see) the publication process from start to finish.___
2. The newspaper urged its readers _____ (not vote) in the forthcoming European election.
3. The corporation will continue _____ (broadcast) controversial programmes.
4. With your health problems, you really need to consider ___ (not spend) seven days a week in the office.
5. The travellers were made _____ (empty) their bags on the airport tarmac.
6. Is everything OK with Kyle? He appears _____(be) rather short-tempered today.
7. The minister was criticised for _____(not reveal) the extent of the budget deficit.
8. Several paparazzi watched the two cars _____ (crash) into each other and did nothing to help.

2.4. Writing

A discursive essay

Writing tip

A discursive essay *is an essay that explores a particular subject. A discursive essay needs to be balanced: you should present arguments on both sides in a neutral way before you express your own opinion.*

Exercise 1. Read the essay and say if these statements are true (T) or false (F).

1. The author gives a firm opinion on the subject in the introduction.
2. The second paragraph supports the proposition in the title.
3. In the third paragraph the author says that he thinks healthcare and university should be free.
4. The author offers an extreme opinion in the final paragraph.
5. In general, the essay is balanced.
6. There are too many paragraphs in the essay for the content. Two would be enough.

Should Students Pay Their Own University Tuition Fees?

Twenty years ago, if you went to university in the UK, all of your tuition fees were paid for by the government. Now, **however**, you have to pay for them yourself. There is currently a lot of debate about which of these two situations is better. **What is more,** there are no straightforward answers.

In an ideal world, all education would be free, including tertiary education. **Nevertheless,** the fact of the matter is that we do not live in an ideal world and there is not an unlimited supply of money.

In addition to this, the more money the government spends, the more it taxes its citizens, and the less money they have.

On the other hand, it could be argued that in a modern democratic society, citizens have some basic rights. For example, many people would agree that universal free healthcare is a basic right: no one should go without medical attention because they can't afford it.

Likewise, a significant number of people also think university fees should be free of charge. After all, they maintain, if healthcare is free, why shouldn't university be free, too?

In my own view, university tuition fees should not be totally free. If they are, many people will go to university just because they don't know what to do after secondary school. **Obviously,** this is not the purpose of going to university. At the same time, fees should not be so expensive that they put off people from poor families from carrying on with their studies. **Consequently,** the best solution would be for the government to subsidise tuition fees, but not to pay for them entirely.

Exercise 2. Look at the linking devices in bold in the text. Which:

1) introduce additional information?
2) indicate a contrast with what has come before?
3) follow a logical argument?
4) prove your point?

Exercise 3. Add the linkers below to the categories in the table:
Linkers: *additionally, thus, so, furthermore, for this reason, in conclusion, evidently, on the contrary, hence.*

Introducing additional information	**Indicating a contrast with what has come before**
Following a logical argument	**Proving your point**

Exercise 4. Delete the incorrect alternative in each sentence.

1. He pays his own fees. *For this reason*/*However*/*Consequently*, he wants to complete his degree as soon as possible.
2. Jane's family have a lot of money. *However*/*Thus*/*Nevertheless*, they don't give her much.
3. Everybody failed the exam. *Evidently*/*In addition to this*/*Obviously*, it was too difficult.

4. Healthcare is very expensive in the United States. *On the contrary*/*For this reason*/*Hence*, it's a good idea to have health insurance.
5. She lives a long way from the university. *Furthermore*/ *Consequently*/*What's more* , public transport in the area is very poor.
6. His sister studied Maths at university. *Thus*/*However*/ *In contrast*, he studied French.

Exercise 5.

A. Read the sentences below.

1. I went to university, **whereas** my father didn't.
2. **Despite** all my advice, they didn't go to university.
3. She's extremely intelligent. **Having said that,** she's also very lazy.
4. **Although** he worked very hard, he failed all his exams.

B. Which of the expressions in bold …

a) connects two clauses in the same sentence?
b) is followed by a noun clause?
c) has a similar meaning to *however*?

Exercise 6. Write an essay on the subject: 'Royal families serve no useful purpose in today's society' (250–300 words).

Plan your writing.

Think about the content of your essay. Introduce the topic and present both sides of the argument. Summarise by giving your own view.

Available from: Levchuk O., Postolenko I., Solodchuk A., Vladychyna O. (2024). Mastering English: Practice guide. Vizavi, 180.

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