TRAINING SESSION FOR TEACHERS

Module 1: Introducing the Official Syllabus and Schemes of Work

Module 2: Overview of English Teaching Methods and Approaches

Module 3: Lesson Planning

Module 4: A: Teaching Grammar
B: Teaching Vocabulary

Module 5: A: Strategies for Classroom Management
B: Ideas for Motivating Students

Module 6: Teaching Listening

Module 7: Teaching Speaking

Module 8: Teaching Reading

Module 9: Teaching Writing

Module 10: Testing

Module 11: Lesson observation and feedback

Module 12: Planning and running a workshop

Module 1: Introducing the Official Syllabus and Schemes of Work

Introduction

The syllabus is the official repertoire of content materials in a given subject matter that the teacher needs to teach for a level. Therefore, it is not possible for a teacher to teach relevant and required materials if he or she does not have a thorough understanding of the contents. That is why this module aims at ensuring that each participant takes an active part in the discussion of the English syllabi in use in Niger: - how items are structured, arranged and recycled. In addition, each participant will receive a copy of the syllabi in use in Niger from 6ème through Terminale classes

Objectives:

- analyse each syllabus to determine how its content is structured in terms of hierarchy, etc,
- make a difference between syllabus and textbook
- review some methods used in TEFL/TESL

Materials: -Copies of current syllabus (Seconde through Terminale)
- Copies of the Schemes of Work (Seconde through Terminale)
- Copies of textbooks
- Copies of current syllabus (Sixième through Troixième)
-- Copies of the Schemes of Work (Sixième through Troixième)

Discussion

1. Making the difference between textbooks and syllabus

What is a Textbook?

What is a syllabus?

Which of the two is most important for your teaching?

2. Scheme of Work

What is a scheme of work?

What is the importance of a scheme of work?

Activity: Group work (6 groups, one group for each level : Second A, Seconde C&D, Première A, Première C&D, Terminale A, Terminale C&D)

Task: Study the scheme of work clearly:
How conform is it with the syllabus? (Have all the items in the syllabus been taken into account for that level?)
Is the progression logical?

MODULE 2: Overview of Teaching Methods and Approaches

What English Teaching Methods/Approaches do you know?

What are the main characteristics of each method/approach?

What English Teaching Methods/Approaches are often used in Niger?

How effective are they? Why or why not?

Handout 1: A comparison of Distinguishing Features of Three Approaches to Language Teaching from TEFL/TSEL: Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language
Page 27
Handout 2: Figure 2.2 Page 28 (TEFL/TESL TEACHING)

EXERCISE: Handout 2: Do the exercise in your group

Handout 3: Eight Approaches to Language Teaching

by Don Snow, Amity Foundation, Overseas Coordination Office

Where there was once consensus on the "right" way to teach foreign languages, many teachers now share the belief that a single right way does not exist. It is certainly true that no comparative study has consistently demonstrated the superiority of one method over another for all teachers, all students and all settings.
Presented here is a summary of eight language teaching methods in practice today: the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, the Total Physical Response Method, and the Communicative Approach. Of course, what is described here is only an abstraction. How a method is manifest in the classroom will depend heavily on the individual teacher's interpretation of its principles.
Some teachers prefer to practice one of the methods to the exclusion of others. Other teachers prefer to pick and choose in a principled way among the

methodological options that exist, creating their own unique blend.
The chart inside provides a brief listing of the salient features of the eight methods. For more details, readers should consult Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching by Diane Larsen-Freeman, published in 1986 by Oxford University Press in New York, on which this summary was based. Also see references listed in For Further Reading.

Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar-Translation Method focuses on developing students' appreciation of the target language's literature as well a teaching the language. Students are presented with target-language reading passages and answer questions that follow. Other activities include translating literary passages from one language into the other, memorizing grammar rules, and memorizing native-language equivalents of target language vocabulary. Class work is highly structured, with the teacher controlling all activities.

Direct Method

The Direct Method allows students to perceive meaning directly through the language because no translation is allowed. Visual aids and pantomime are used to clarify the meaning of vocabulary items and concepts. Students speak a great deal in the target language and communicate as if in real situations. Reading and writing are taught from the beginning, though speaking and listening skills are emphasized. Grammar is learned inductively.

Audio-Lingual Method

The Audio-Lingual Method is based on the behaviorist belief that language learning is the acquisition of a set of correct language habits. The learner repeats patterns until able to produce them spontaneously. Once a given pattern – for example, subject-verb-prepositional phrase – is learned, the speaker can substitute words to make novel sentences. The teacher directs and controls students' behavior, provides a model, and reinforces correct responses.

The Silent Way

The theoretical basis of Gattegno's Silent Way is the idea that teaching must be subordinated to learning and thus students must develop their own inner criteria for correctness. All four skills – reading, writing, speaking, and listening – are taught from the beginning. Students' errors are expected as a normal part of learning: the teacher's silence helps foster self-reliance and student initiative.

The teacher is active in setting up situations, while the students do most of the talking and interacting.

Suggestopedia

Lozanov's method seeks to help learners eliminate psychological barriers to learning. The learning environment is relaxed and subdued, with low lighting and soft music in the background. Students choose a name and character in the target language and culture, and imagine that person. Dialogs are presented to the accompaniment of music. Students just relax and listen to them being read and later playfully practice the language during an “activation” phase.

Community Language Learning

In Curren's method, teachers consider students as “whole persons,” with intellect, feelings, instincts, physical responses, and desire to learn. Teachers also recognize that learning can be threatening. By understanding and accepting students' fears, teachers help students feel secure and overcome their fears, and thus help them harness positive energy for learning. The syllabus used is learner-generated, in that students choose what they want to learn in the target language.

Total Physical Response Method

Asher's approach begins by placing primary importance on listening comprehension, emulating the early stages of mother tongue acquisition, and then moving to speaking, reading, and writing. Students demonstrate their comprehension by acting out commands issued by the teacher; teachers provide novel and often humorous variations of the commands. Activities are designed to be fun and to allow students to assume active learning roles. Activities eventually include games and skits.

The Communicative Approach

The Communicative Approach stresses the need to teach communicative competence as opposed to linguistic competence; thus, functions are emphasized over forms. Students usually work with authentic materials in small groups on communicative activities, during which they receive practice in negotiating meaning.

MODULE 3: Lesson Planning

Part I: A brief review of instructional objectives

Defining and stating objectives

Objectives:

- To identify the basic parts and categories of instructional objectives
- To write a set of complete objectives.
- To distinguish between properly and improperly written instructional objectives.

Procedure

Introductory questions

What is the importance of instructional objectives in lesson planning?
How can we state objectives?

A complete instructional objective **has three parts**:

- **Type of behavior**, i.e. the specific actions or performance expected of students.
- **Condition**, i.e. the circumstances under which the behavior is to be demonstrated.
- **Criteria**, i.e. the degree or level to which the behavior must be demonstrated to be acceptable

Example: Given a sentence in the direct speech, (condition) the student will be able to correctly (criteria) rewrite it in the reported speech with the necessary changes (behavior).

Instructional objectives can be divided into **three basic categories**:

a) **Cognitive** objectives, which deal with knowledge. The students will be able to **identify** 5 verbs used in the simple past in a given text.
b) **Affective** objectives, which deal with attitudes. The students will **defend** a pro or con position on early marriage during a 20 minutes debate.
c) **Psychomotor** objectives, which deal with skills. The students will successfully **serve** a tennis ball in court in four out of five attempts.

A quick look at Bloom's categories: It's important to notice that each category has many levels that the objective should test. These levels are hierarchical, with each new level building on the previous one and representing higher intellectual, emotional or physical attainment. Thus, failure to achieve an objective may indicate that an earlier objective was never met.

Cognitive

1. Knowledge: ability to recall previously learned material
2. Comprehension: ability to grasp the meaning of material.
3. Application: ability to use learned material in new, concrete situation
4. Analysis: ability to break down material into component parts and understand its organizational structure.
5. Synthesis: ability to put parts together to form a new whole.
6. Evaluation: ability to judge the value of material for a given purpose.

Affective

1. Receiving: becomes aware of an idea, process, or thing; is willing to learn or try a particular behavior
2. Responding: actively participates; responds obediently, then willingly receives satisfaction from responding.
3. Valuing: accepts worth of belief, attitude, value or ideal; expresses preferences for it; develops a commitment to it.
4. Organization: conceptualizes values; compares, relates, synthesizes and organizes values into hierarchy.
5. Characterization: allows values to control or guide behavior; integrates values into a total philosophy of life.

Psychomotor

1. Perception: becomes aware of action to be performed through senses
2. Set: becomes ready to act mentally, physically and emotionally.
3. Guided response: performs action under supervision through imitation or trial and error; involves practice.
4. Mechanism: performs action habitually with some degree of confidence; involves increased efficiency.
5. Complex Overt Responses: performs action automatically without hesitation and with high degree of skill.
6. Adaptation: can modify action and skill to deal with problem situations.
7. Origination: creates new movement patterns to fit a particular situation or problem.

Some of the most common mistakes made when writing objectives.

1- A common error in stating instructional objectives is to describe teacher activities rather than student behavior

Wrong: The student will be taught the past tense

Right: Given three statements in the present tense, the student will be able to correctly rewrite them in the past tense

Note: The first statement indicates what the teacher intends to present, while the second statement is written in terms of expected outcomes.

2- A second common error in stating objectives is writing objectives in terms of learning process rather than learning product. For example: The student will:

Wrong: understand the difference between a defining clause and a non-defining clause

Right: give (3) examples of defining clauses and (3) examples of non-defining clauses.

Note: The first statement reflects a process of learning rather than an expected outcome of instruction. The second statement, however, clearly states the anticipated outcome.

3- A third common error in writing objectives is to list the subject matter to be covered instead of the learning outcomes.

Example: The student will:

Wrong: know the three conditional sentences

Right: correctly use each conditional sentence in an example.

Note: The first statement consists of only a grammatical structure, whereas the second illustrates a clearly stated learning outcome

4- The fourth common error in writing objectives is to write with covert behaviors which are internal and difficult to observe by another person rather than with overt behaviors, which are manifesting activities that can easily be evaluated by an observer.

The student will:

Wrong: see the importance of learning polite requests

Right: use polite requests in different situations

Note: The first statement contains a covert behavior. There is no overt indication of a learning outcome. The second statement illustrates a clearly observable learning outcome.

An objective is a way of describing the goods of a lesson in terms of what the students should be able to do at the end of the lesson. It should be clearly stated using action verbs. This means that the students must do something. We can see and measure since we must be able to evaluate whether or not she/he is doing it correctly.

*** Examples of action verbs (measurable and observable)**

Tell-write-desrive-explain-list-demoustrate-show-answer-organize-choose-converse-read-change-indicate-ask-respond (**See Bloom's taxonomy)**
***Examples of non-action verbs** (unsuitable for use in lesson objectives): Know-understand-appreciate-come-pretend-feel-believe etc.

Activity (45mn**)**
Identify each of the following as an objective or a non-objective. Justify your answers
Rewrite the incorrectly stated objectives into correctly stated ones.

1. To know the use of the simple past tense
2. Given three sentences with various indefinite article errors, the students will be able to rewrite the sentences correctly.
3. The students should be able to learn the new words: "disease", "deficiency", "syndrome"
4. having read a short passage, the students should be able to answer questions about the passage orally
5. To translate the second paragraph of the reading passage into French.
6. After reading the text, the students will be aware of the damage caused by smoking cigarettes.
7. To understand the plural nouns.
8. The students should be able to believe AIDS is a dangerous disease.
9. By the end of the lesson, the students will be able to make correct sentences using the adverbs of frequency.
10. Having listened to a short reading passage, the students should be able to summarize it orally.

Part II. Writing a lesson plan

Introduction
Whatever the purpose of teaching, a lesson has to be prepared and planned in order to make good use of available resources, facilitate the teacher's work in the classroom and ease students learning activities.

Objectives
-To identify the stages of a lesson.
-To describe the process of a lesson.

Note: Brief review of key points of lesson planning **(20mn)**

A) The function of lesson plans

- to plan for the use of a variety of approaches/techniques
- to increase planning for student involvement
- to organize complex material
- to accomplish objectives
- to help procure and prepare materials
- to be more relax, confident and effective as a teacher

B) The basic steps to planning:

- The purpose: Where are you going? (defining objectives)
- Finding out where the students are: Where should you start?
- Devising instructional procedures: How will you get there?
- Assessment: How will you know if you achieved what you wanted?

C) The parts of each lesson:

a. Introduction: one of the most crucial parts of a lesson, which should be given detailed planning.
b. Practice activities: These should include a variety of techniques and a variety of activities to help you achieve your objectives
c. Closing: this part includes evaluation and summary of the lesson

Discussion: What is a lesson plan?

Discussion: Why plan your lesson?

Discussion: What is the first thing to do when writing a lesson?

Discussion: what are the other major steps in planning a lesson?
(Write the major steps to follow in writing your lesson plan after you have stated the objectives)

*** Questions to ask when planning a lesson:**

- Who am I going to teach (i-e level of my students?)
- Which skills is/are my focus? (I-e listening-speaking-reading or writing or a combination of skills?) ;
- Which materials am I going to use and how? (realia, BB, text, story, pictures, drawings?.)
- Are the aims of the lesson valid in terms of the students' needs?
-How can I bring in variety throughout my lesson to avoid boredom?
- How involved are my students in the activities?

- How am I going to organize my class? (As a whole class, groups, pairs? Teams Individuals?
- What seating arrangement?
- How much time am I going to spend on each step?

Group activity

Form groups of H. In your group discuss this teacher's description of his/her lesson and fill in the lesson plan based on the description.
Compare your plan with the one suggested by the group next to you.

Activity: Description

A teacher describes a lesson he/she gave: First we reviewed words for clothes, which the students had learnt last week, and then I taught them adjectives to describe materials (Woolen, cotton, leather et.) and wrote them on the board. Then we looked at some pictures of people in the text book, and they made sentences about them ("she's wearing a green cotton dress").
Then I asked them to write a few sentences about themselves, beginning" Last weekend I was wearing…." After that we read a text in the book about clothes people wear in different countries.

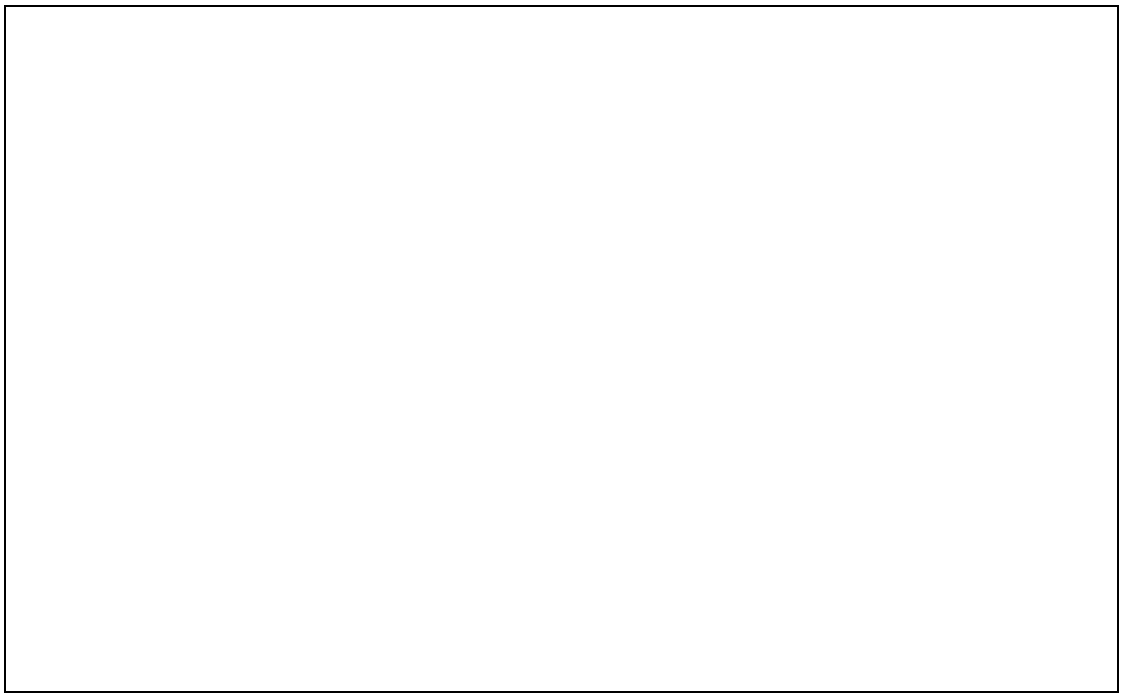
Fill in the box with appropriate headings and justify your answer

1._____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____

2._____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____

3._____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ ___

4._____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____



Discussion: What would you add to the lesson or remove from it? Why?

(Activities taken from Teach English by Adrian Doff)
Here is a more detailed lesson plan based on the above activity
Aim: To practice talking about clothes, materials and colors
New vocabulary adjectives: woolen, leather, cotton, nylon, plastic
Structure: Present Continuous: ----------is wearing---------- (revision)
1. Review: Show pictures of clothes. Give words: **Coat-hat-shirt-trousers etc….**
2. Presentation: Show objects made of **woolen, cotton, leather, and plastic**
- Present new adjectives. Write them on the board
3. Practice: - look at their class mates and make sentences; e g Ali is wearing a red nylon shirt. Biba is wearing a blue cotton dress etc
- Pair work: Issouf: what is Ali Wearing?
Dodo: He is wearing a red nylon shirt.
4. Writing: Write on the board: last week end, I was wearing……Ask to write about themselves
5. Reading (provides a reading passage which contains the words and structures presented or write one yourself)
6. Task: New choose a lesson you will teach or have taught in a given level. Write a lesson plan. The plan should include:
-The aim of the lesson
- New vocabulary or structures
-The main stages of activity
- Detailed notes for each stage
- Any visual aids you need

Is the lesson plan given above to guide you?

Part III: The process or lessons to teach new language items: the (three) 3 Ps: Presentation-Practice-Production
-What do you know about the 3Ps?
-How do you proceed in each phase?
-Write down the steps you follow to teach new language
-Summarize the types of activities you and your students do at each stage.

A. The presentation phase
When presenting new language, the teacher must show three things very clearly:
1. What it means
2. How and when it is used.
3. What it sound like.
Student need to understand the meaning of the new language, so the teacher must set the scene and put the new language into a very clear and obvious context. There are several ways of doing this:
1.
The teacher uses real objects or pictures, or draws objects, people or a situation on the blackboard.
2. The teacher tells the students about a situation which demonstrates the meaning of the new language.
3. The students read a text or listen to a tape (or any recording) which contains examples of the new language. This can be a story or a dialog.
4. The teacher mimes (acts without speaking) an action or emotion or acts out a role play which helps show what the new language is and when it is used.
For example, to present the function of asking for something, “Could you….’
The teacher can act out a brief dialog, as follows.
The teacher mimes he/she does not have a pencil. Then she says the following dialog (taking both parts):
Teacher A: “I don’t have a pencil. Could you lend/give me a pencil?”
Teacher B: “Yes, of course.”
The teacher then checks when and how this function is used, by asking questions
Stages of the Presentation phase
To make sure that you cover all the important information about a new language items in the presentation stage, it is best to go through the following steps:
1. Set the scene using one of the techniques listed in points 1 to 4 above.
2. Model the new language, saying it two to three times.

3. Ask students to repeat the new language several times out loud, first the whole class, then in groups, then in pairs or individually.
4. Ask questions to check that students understand the meaning of the new words, structure or function.
5. Write the new language item on the blackboard, indicating the part of speech (if necessary.)
6. Ask students to copy the information from the blackboard into their notebooks.

B. The Practice phase

It is very important that students have enough practice of the new language. Students can do this by listening, preparing, writing and reading the new language, using a wide variety of learning activities. Students can practice individually, in pairs or as a whole class. Practice should begin in a very simple way where the teacher controls everything the students say or write.

- At this stage, the teacher corrects sentence construction, use of the language, and pronunciation. We call this the **Controlled Practice phase** and it uses some of the repetition techniques used in the direct methods, such as drilling is a rather mechanical technique that does not challenge the students to think, but gives them the chance to physically practice pronouncing the new language, getting the sounds and intonation right and getting the words in the right order. For example, students can practice the new vocabulary, grammar or function by repeating sentences. The teacher says: “I don’t have a pencil. Could you lend/give me a pencil?, and the students repeat “ Could you lend/give me a pencil? The teacher says more similar phrases, and the students repeat the “Could you……?” phrase.

-Later in the practice phase, the students do activities with less teacher help and control. They must learn to practice the language in pairs the teacher only guides the practice. We call this **the less controlled or guided stages of the practice phase.**

Most language lessons in school focus mainly on the presentation and practice of new language. At the end of these phases, students should be able to speak or write the new language fairly well without making many mistakes. So it is now time for the teacher to give students different activities which allow them to use the language they have learned in a freer situation.

Note: Practice can be oral or written

C. The production/Transposition Phase

In the production phase, students should do activities that they have to do when they leave the classroom, for example, writing a letter or reading a newspaper article and telling someone about it, or taking part in an interview. We can think of this phase as a final rehearsal for using language in the real world.

Students should be encouraged to use other language they know or have already learned in previous lessons. During this part of the lesson, the teacher does not

usually interrupt, help or correct errors. The students must learn to communicate successfully with only the help of their fellow students.
For example, as a production activity for the functional language of asking someone to do something (Could you……..?), students act out a short dialog between student A who has to get to school on time to write an exam and his friend student B. Student A's bicycle has a puncture. He asks his friend "Could you lend me your bicycle?" or "Could you tell the teacher I will be late? Etc.

The table below summarizes the different stages of a PPP lesson.

	Presentation	Practice	Production
Teacher activity	Models and explains the meaning of new language items Makes sure the students understand meaning, know spelling, grammar and pronunciation.	Leads drilling. Organizes guided and less controlled practice through speaking, listening, writing and reading.	Organizes freer practice and fluency activities. Monitors students' activities and notes errors.
Student Participation	Listens and understands meaning of new language items.	Repeats drills. Practices speaking, writing, reading and listening to new language items in pairs or groups	Uses new language items and known language in pairs or groups in freer practice and fluency activities.
Teacher control	Strongly in control, probably at the front of the class.	Strongly in control during drilling. Less visibly in control during guided practice.	Silent in control. May take control again for class correction after freer practice or fluency activities.
	Teacher corrects all errors.	Teacher corrects and helps	Teacher notes errors but does

Correction		students correct all errors during drilling. Less obvious correction later in this phase.	not correct during the activities.

MODULE 4: Teaching Grammar/Vocabulary

A) Teaching Grammar

Objectives:

- To show teachers ways of showing the meaning of a structure
- To identify various techniques of teaching grammar
- To help teachers think of their own situations and them examples to present new structures.

Time: 1h15

Introduction (30mn)

What techniques do you usually use when presenting/teaching grammar: Inductively or deductively?

Which one is more effective and for which level?

Note

There are several ways of presenting new grammar to students. '**Overt, or direct teaching of grammar** is when the teacher presents the grammatical rules and information. '**Covert' or indirect teaching of grammar** is when the teacher does not explain the grammar to the students, but helps them to understand it in different ways.

PRESENTING LANGUAGE DIRECTLY/DEDUCTIVELY

a) **explaining the rule explicitly:**
The teacher clearly presents rules and explanations. For example to teach the question form of 'He can play the guitar', the teacher tells the students that to make questions in the present tense using 'Can', you must invert the subject of the sentence and the modal auxiliary. 'Can he play the guitar?'

b) **Presenting grammar through a text**: Asking the students to underline particular grammatical points in the text. Students then have to work out a grammatical rule. They can do this by discussion in pairs

Example: underline all the examples of past tense in these sentences. How do you think the past is formed?

'Yesterday, I worked in the fields until dusk. As the sun faded, I leaned against a tree…… Then I gathered up my tools and walked home'

c) **Presenting grammar through comparison:** the teacher puts two similar grammatical structures on the board. Students must discuss the differences in form, meaning and use

Example: 'My brother lived in Niamey for 5 years.'
'My brother has lived in Niamey for 5 years.'

PRESENTING GRAMMAR INDIRECTLY/INDUCTIVELY

The teacher does not draw students' attention to any specific grammatical information.

a) **Presenting through a situation**: The teacher either tells a simple anecdote or story or draws a series of pictures which give an outline of a situation.

Grammatical structure: He should have….. / He shouldn't have…..

Example: Teacher: 'Last week Ali went to the stadium on his bicycle to watch a football game. At the stadium, he just parked it, without locking it or asking someone to look after it. After the game was over, he could not find his bicycle. It was gone.' What did Ali do wrong?

What should Ali have done? What shouldn't he have done?

What is your advice to Ali?

b) Presenting grammar through pictures and real objects:

Grammatical structure: prepositions of place ('on', 'in', 'between', 'under')

Use classroom and things in class or use drawing. Example 'Where is the …?'

c) Using the students' knowledge to present grammar:

Grammatical structure: comparison of adjectives: ….er than….

Use students: tall, big. 'Is Halima tall?' 'Yes, she is tall.' 'Is Hajara very tall?' 'Yes, she's very tall.' 'Hajara is taller than Halima', etc.

Conclusion: Presenting a grammatical structure indirectly is often an easy way to make students understand the meaning and when to use the structure. Many teachers then go on to openly explain the grammatical form and teach the pronunciation and the spelling.

I - What is a structure?

What does a structure mean?

How is it used?

A structure is the grammar point in a sentence.

E.g.: I'd like to visit Agadez

I'd like to	go home
	earn more money
	be a good teacher

- Point out the importance of structures. We can use one structure to make different sentences. **So if students learn the main structures of English, it will help them greatly to speak and write the languages.**

II- PRESENTING A STRUCTURE: Showing the meaning of a structure.

d) explaining the rule explicitly:

The teacher clearly presents rules and explanations. For example to teach the question form of 'He can play the guitar', the teacher tells the students that to make questions in the present tense using 'Can', you must invert the subject of the sentence and the modal auxiliary. 'Can he play the guitar?'

e) **Presenting grammar through a text**: Asking the students to underline particular grammatical points in the text. Students then have to work out a grammatical rule. They can do this by discussion in pairs

Example: underline all the examples of past tense in these sentences. How do you think the past is formed?

'Yesterday, I worked in the fields until dusk. As the sun faded, I leaned against a tree…… Then I gathered up my tools and walked home'

f) **Presenting grammar through comparison:** the teacher puts two similar grammatical structures on the board. Students must discuss the differences in form, meaning and use

Example: 'My brother lived in Niamey for 5 years.'
'My brother has lived in Niamey for 5 years.'

PRESENTING GRAMMAR INDIRECTLY/INDUCTIVELY

The teacher does not draw students' attention to any specific grammatical information.

b) **Presenting through a situation**: The teacher either tells a simple anecdote or story or draws a series of pictures which give an outline of a situation.

Grammatical structure: He should have….. / He shouldn't have…..

Example: Teacher: 'Last week Ali went to the stadium on his bicycle to watch a football game. At the stadium, he just parked it, without locking it or asking someone to look after it. After the game was over, he could not find his bicycle. It was gone.' What did Ali do wrong?

What should Ali have done? What shouldn't he have done?

What is your advice to Ali?

c) Presenting grammar through pictures and real objects:

Grammatical structure: prepositions of place ('on', 'in', 'between', 'under')

Use classroom and things in class or use drawing. Example 'Where is the …?'

d) Using the students' knowledge to present grammar:

Grammatical structure: comparison of adjectives: ….er than….

Use students: tall, big. 'Is Halima tall?' 'Yes, she is tall.' 'Is Hajara very tall?' 'Yes, she's very tall.' 'Hajara is taller than Halima', etc.

Conclusion: Presenting a grammatical structure indirectly is often an easy way to make students understand the meaning and when to use the structure. Many teachers then go on to openly explain the grammatical form and teach the pronunciation and the spelling.

Activity 1: Discussion on ways of showing meaning

1-This is how different teachers presented comparison of adjectives to their students. Which presentation do you think is?

- the most interesting?
- the easiest?
- the most useful?

e) Showing form and meaning.

Focusing on form

The use and meaning of a structure is as important as its form. There are two basic ways of showing the form of a structure.

1- By giving a **clear model** and asking students to listen and repeat two or three times.

2- By **writing** the structure **clearly on the blackboard.**

Activity 2: (handout)

Discuss what order the stages should be in, and which of them are the most important.

The most likely order:

i. Draw the pictures and give the example.

ii. Give a model and ask the class to repeat.

iii. Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.

iv. Write the sentence on the board.

v. Explain how the structure is formed.

vi. Ask the class to copy the sentence.

vii. Give other situations and examples.

III- PRACTISING STRUCTURES

Aims: to show Teachers how to move from presenting structures to practicing them.

- To make teachers aware of the difference between mechanical and meaningful practice.
- To show teachers how to organize controlled oral practice in class.
- To teachers how to use real or imaginary situations for freer practice.

Activity 3: (handout)

Here is a part of a teacher's lesson plan.

Divide the teachers into pairs or groups. Ask them to at the different ways of practicing the structure, and to decide which ones are most useful.

(What should the teacher do next? Consider these possibilities)

Repetition/ Substitution / Single word prompts / Free substitution

Discuss the techniques together. Get teachers to give their own ideas.

All these above techniques are very controlled kinds of practice which will be done very quickly.

1. Discuss which techniques are easier for the students and which are more difficult. Ask teacher to put them in order of difficulty.

   i. Repetition (students have to do nothing themselves)

   ii. Substitution (students have to "fit in" the structure)

   iii. Single word prompts (students had the verb)

   iv. Pictures prompts (students have to think of the whole sentence)

   v. Free substitution (students have to invent a sentence)

-Discuss how to involve more students (the whole class) in the practice.

There are two main ways of doing this.

-By getting correct responses from individual student and then getting them the whole class to repeat in chorus.

-By getting 2 or 3 students to respond in turn to each question prompt a good way of giving weaker students a chance to say something.

Controlled Practice
Meaningful practice

-The above drills are completely mechanical. Students can easily do the practice with their minds "switch off". Because it is easy to do, it is also easy to forget.
-The teacher cannot be sure that the students understand what the words mean. It is quite possible to do drills like these without knowing what you are saying.
-All the students have to do is to produce the correct form they are getting practice in saying the new structure but not in using it to express meaning.
It is more useful to give students practice in which they have to think, in which they understand what they're saying, and which they express meaning. This kind of practice is called meaningful practice.

Activity 4: (handout)

This activity shows 3 pairs of exercises which highlight differences between mechanical and meaningful practice.
-Do each pair of exercises. How are exercises A and B different?
-All A_S are mechanical. All B_s are meaningful
1b- Teachers make true sentences, using "I like "or "I don't like"
2b- Students must understand the situations and must think about what to ask. So it is more meaningful.
3b- The exercise becomes more meaningful because students have to had a reason so they must understand what they are saying.
To summarize: the exercises show 3 possible ways of making practice more meaningful :

- By getting students to say real things about themselves.
- By giving situations which imply the structure, but leave the students to say exactly what to say.
- By letting them add something of their own.

IV- Production: Free oral practice

1-Most of the exercises done are examples of controlled practice. Students use a structure to make sentences or questions, but have only a limited choice about what to say. If possible, practice of this kind should be followed by a freer activity, which gives the students the chance to use the structure to express their own ideas or to talk about their own experiences. Two kinds of topics are useful for free oral practice:

-We can get students to talk about real life (themselves, their friends, things in the world)
-We can ask the students to imagine a situation which is not real.

Activity 5: (handout)
Talk about one of these topics.

i- What are you going to do at the weekend? What about your family and friends?

ii- Choose one person in the class. Imagine his/her parents ask him to buy things for the Tabaski feast. What is he going to buy and why?

Ask teachers to look at the topics in the handout.2- Divide the teachers into groups and give each group one of the topics to talk about. They should:
-judge how interesting it is, by noticing how involved the teachers become;
-judge how productive it is, by counting how many sentences they make using "going to".
-When the groups have finished, discuss how teachers would organize each activity in their own classes. Get teachers to give their own ideas.

B) Teaching Vocabulary

Objectives
- To establish the different steps for teaching new words
- To master techniques for showing the meaning of new vocabulary
- To help students use new vocabulary words

I. Introduction
A vocabulary lesson needs to motivate students to assimilate the words into their active vocabularies. Teachers must establish a purpose in order for students to perceive learning vocabulary words as a worthwhile activity. An effective vocabulary class will guide students to "own" the words and to connect them to their environment.

Pre Questions
a) How do you present/introduce new word/words in your class?

b) How many vocabulary items is it advisable to present during one single lesson?

c) Propose some practical techniques in presenting new words.

Activity

Discuss the ways of presenting these two words: Which presentation would use? Why?

Presentation1: Presenting the word ‘rumble’

a) say the word out loud
b) get students to repeat the word in chorus and individually.
c) write the word on board, give a direct translation (gronder).

Your answer:

Presentation2: Presenting the word ‘grumble’

a) say the word out loud,
b) get students to repeat the word in chorus and individually,
c) write the word on board,
d) then, give an example in English to show what it means. “Some people grumble about everything, about the weather” “When it’s hot, they say it is hot. If it is cold, they say it’s cold”
e) Check that students understand the word by asking them to say it in their own language.

Your answer:

II. Basic Techniques for Showing Meaning

a) Consider these words.

Watch window elbow

How could you present them? Which technique would you use? Why?

b) Consider these words.

Tree tractor cow

How could you present them? Which technique would you use?

c) Consider these words.

Sneeze dig stumble
How could you present them? Which technique would you use?

d) Consider these words

'building' and 'lazy'
How could you present them? Which technique would you use?

e) Consider this word

'smile'
How could you present it?

III. Using a new word
Situation: The teacher has just presented the word "market". Now she/he is asking questions using the new word:
Does your mother go to the market?
When does she go to there?
Do you live near a market?
What do they sell there?

A) What is the purpose of the questions?

B) Ask students to think of a question using these words.

to cook lion holiday magazine windy

Vocabulary Expansion
Task1: Look at these sets of words. How are the words in each box related to 'cook'?

a) cook b) cook

bake	fry
boil	grill

stove	stir
pot	
spoon	

Answer

Task2: Imagine you are teaching the words below

a) thief, b) carpet, c) customs officer, d) marry

Think of four or five other words that you could teach at the same time.

Answer

IV. Active and Passive Vocabulary

Discussion: Which words are considered as active vocabulary or passive vocabulary?

Task: Imagine you want to present these new words from the text below.

weather varied average temperature cloud snow ice season spring sunny countryside

Text

In Britain, the weather is very varied; people never know what it will be like the next day.

The summer is warmer than the winter, but even in summer the average temperature is only 16°. Sometimes the sun shines, but at other times the sky is covered in cloud and it often rains.

In winter it is sometimes very cold, especially in the north of the country. The temperature may fall below 0°, and then there is often snow and ice.

The best season of the year is probably late spring. At this time of the year the weather is often sunny and quite warm; the countryside looks very green, and there are wild flowers everywhere.

(adapted from a text from *The Cambridge English Course* Book1: M. Swan and C. Walker)

a) Work with in your group and decide which words you would present as active vocabulary, and which you would present as passive vocabulary. Make two lists: Active and Passive.

b) How would you present the words?

Other techniques to teach vocabulary: The list is NOT exhaustive

a) Connect vocabulary words to students' worlds

Students may know how to use a word in a sentence, but if they don't see a connection between the word and their world, they may not see a reason to remember or use the word.

To help students recognize the relationship between new vocabulary words and their lives, have them:

- ask what does this world have with them?
- List where they might see or hear the word now, and where they might see or hear it later in their lives
- list ways they might use the word now and ways they might use the word later in their lives

b) Memory Builders

Make card games out of vocabulary words to trigger the competitive interest of students. Word, word parts, and/or word meanings can be written on cards. Have students play in pairs or sets of paired (groups).

c) Synonyms and antonyms

Illustrate the nuances among synonyms to demonstrate how students can get across their meaning in a more specific manner. For example, imagine a basketball player throwing a ball. Which word would be suitable synonym of throw: toss? hurl? fling?

d) Denotation and connotation

Explain the difference between a word's denotation "literal meaning" and its connotation "implied meaning". For example, funny, amusing, witty, odd, peculiar are all synonyms. However, funny, amusing and witty carry positive connotation whereas odd and peculiar carry negative connotation.

e) Informal vs. formal
Example: written correspondences are usually formal while casual notes and letters are not. Also speakers choose the language according to the audience: how students speak to the principal compared to how they talk among friends.

Here are some techniques for teaching vocabulary in a reading passage

1. Matching synonyms
2. Matching opposites
3. Fill in blank sentences
4. Choose all the possible answers
5. Where would you find …….?
6. Complete the phrase
7. Correct the mistake
8. Label the picture
9. Draw a picture
10. Cross out the word that doesn't belong to the others in the group
11. Categories
12. Complete the sentence
13. Guessing word from context
14. Give students the definitions; let them find the words
15. Parts of speech
16. Different meanings of familiar vocabulary

Activity: Select eight techniques you often use to present vocabulary and give an example of each

Here are some examples of the above taken from:
Teaching Vocabulary: Two Dozen Tips and Techniques
(Handout from a presentation at TESOL 1995 (Chicago))

1. **Choose *all* the possible answers**
   We ate lunch in the …….
   cafetreria restaurant snack snack bar salad bar diner

2. **Where would you find …….. ?**
   an MD _____ a) in the British or Canadian Parliament

a Ph.D. _____	b) on a ruler
an MP _____	c) on a engine
in. _____	d) in a hospital
hp _____	e) in a university

3. **Complete the phrase**

to achieve _____	a) a secret
to reveal _____	b) an idea
to grasp _____	c) a goal

4. **Correct the mistakes**

He felt exhausted after a long nap

5. **Label the picture**

monitor keyboard mouse screen

6. **Draw a picture (works for a limited number of words)**

7. **Cross out the word that doesn't belong with the others in the group**

uncle father aunt brother

EST pm Ph.D BC

meadow river yard field

8. **Categories: You give the example; students give the category. Or vice versa**

Examples: gun, knife, club *(category*)

Category: weapon: *(gun, knife, club)*

9. Complete the sentences

I was exhausted after _____

MODULE 5: Classroom Management and Ideas for Motivating Students

Objectives

- To articulate the basic aspects of classroom management
- To discover solutions to various discipline problems that are typical to our schools.
- To discuss some ideas on motivating students

Materials: Handouts on Values Clarification exercise and Critical Incidents, flipchart, markers
(Handout1: Critical Incidents: **Teacher Training, A Training Guide, page 139**,
Handout 2: Values Clarification Exercise, A Training Guide, page 141-142)

A) Classroom Management

Introduction

What are the important factors in relation to effective classroom management?
(- traditional ways of disciplining i.e school RULES AND REGULATIONS
- physical aspects of the classroom
- creating and utilizing teaching aids
- teacher attitudes
- teacher routine
- addressing individual student needs)

Activities

Activity 1: Group work.

a) Task: In your group discuss each hypothetical but typical classroom incident and suggest a way to solve each of the incidents; i.e. what would you do if you were in that situation. Then a group reporter will present your responses to the larger group.

b) Discussion. Groups regather, consider one incident at a time and share their responses to the situation. The larger group meets and reflects on the following questions:

- Did any of the groups' responses surprise you? If so which ones?
- Where there disagreements in your small groups about what to do? If so, around which points?
- Have you experienced issues like these?

Activity 2: Values Clarification Exercise.
Complete the questionnaire. There is no right or wrong answer.

B) Ideas for motivating students

Introduction

With so many attractive alternatives competing for students' attention, motivating them to focus and perform is increasingly difficult. This article provides a few ideas for increasing students' desire to work hard at the learning tasks they need.

Task: Go over each point mentioned here and discuss its feasibility or applicability to your teaching context.

1. Explain. Some recent research shows that many students do poorly on assignments or in participation because they do not understand what to do or why they should do it. Teachers should spend more time explaining why we teach what we do, and why the topic or approach or activity is important and interesting and worthwhile. In the process, some of the teacher's enthusiasm will be transmitted to the students, who will be more likely to become interested. Similarly, teachers should spend more time explaining exactly what is expected on assignments or activities. Students who are uncertain about what to do will seldom perform well. To the question, "When will we ever use this?" there are several answers. (1) You never know when knowledge and skills will be useful. (2) Whether or not you ever use this specific knowledge is less important than the fact that you are learning how to learn, learning the discipline of focusing on a task, learning how to work on a task that might not be interesting to you--and perhaps you are learning how to make such tasks interesting. There is an exercise in basic training where recruits step back and forth into old tires rapidly. No one ever asks, "When will we ever need to know how to step through tires?" because they know they are building agility. The same is true for many subjects. A student might never use calculus later in life, but the mental training--problem solving, thinking, precision--those sharpened skills will be. (In a study conducted on one college campus, a faculty member gave a student assignment to a group of colleagues for analysis. Few of them could understand what the faculty member wanted. If experienced teachers are confused, how can we expect students to understand?)

Part of explaining to students might be telling them what they will need in order to succeed in a rapidly changing, ever more competitive world.

2. Reward. Students who do not yet have powerful intrinsic motivation to learn can be helped by extrinsic motivators in the form of rewards. Rather than criticizing unwanted behavior or answers, reward correct behavior and answers. Remember that adults and children alike continue or repeat behavior that is rewarded. The rewards can (and should) be small and configured to the level of the students. Small children can be given a balloon, a piece of gum, or a set of

crayons. Even at the college level, many professors at various colleges have given books, lunches, certificates, exemptions from final exams, verbal praise, and so on for good performance. Even something as apparently "childish" as a "Good Job!" stamp or sticker can encourage students to perform at higher levels. And the important point is that extrinsic motivators can, over a brief period of time, produce intrinsic motivation. Everyone likes the feeling of accomplishment and recognition; rewards for good work produce those good feelings.

3. Care. Students respond with interest and motivation to teachers who appear to be human and caring. Teachers can help produce these feelings by sharing parts of themselves with students, especially little stories of problems and mistakes they made, either as children or even recently. Such personalizing of the student/teacher relationship helps students see teachers as approachable human beings and not as aloof authority figures. Young people are also quite insecure, and they secretly welcome the admission by adults that insecurity and error are common to everyone. Students will attend to an adult who appears to be a "real person," who had problems as a youth (or more recently) and survived them.

It is also a good idea to be approachable personally. Show that you care about your students by asking about their concerns and goals. What do they plan to do in the future? What things do they like? Such a teacher will be trusted and respected more than one who is all business.

4. Have students participate. One of the major keys to motivation is the active involvement of students in their own learning. Standing in front of them and lecturing to /at them is thus a relatively poor method of teaching. It is better to get students involved in activities, group problem solving exercises, helping to decide what to do and the best way to do it, helping the teacher, working with each other, or in some other way getting physically involved in the lesson. A lesson about nature, for example, would be more effective walking outdoors than looking at pictures.

Students love to be needed (just like adults!). By choosing several students to help the teacher (take roll, grade objective exams, research bibliographies or biographies of important persons, chair discussion groups, rearrange chairs, change the overhead transparencies, hold up pictures, pass out papers or exams) students' self esteem is boosted and consequently their motivation is increased. Older students will also see themselves as necessary, integral, and contributing parts of the learning process through participation like this. Use every opportunity to have students help you. Assign them homework that involves helping you ("I need some magazine illustrations of the emphasis on materialism for next week; would someone like to find one for me?").

5. Teach Inductively. It has been said that presenting conclusions first and then providing examples robs students of the joy of discovery. Why not present some examples first and ask students to make sense of them, to generalize about them,

to draw the conclusions themselves? By beginning with the examples, evidence, stories, and so forth and arriving at conclusions later, you can maintain interest and increase motivation, as well as teach the skills of analysis and synthesis. Remember that the parable method of making a point has some significant historical precedent. (And speaking of examples, research has shown that providing more worked examples and fewer problems to solve increases learning.

6. Satisfy students' needs. Attending to need satisfaction is a primary method of keeping students interested and happy. Students' basic needs have been identified as survival, love, power, fun, and freedom. Attending to the need for power could be as simple as allowing students to choose from among two or three things to do--two or three paper topics, two or three activities, choosing between writing an extra paper and taking the final exam, etc. Many students have a need to have fun in active ways--in other words, they need to be noisy and excited. Rather than always avoiding or suppressing these needs, design an educational activity that fulfils them.

Students will be much more committed to a learning activity that has value for them that they can see as meeting their needs, either long term or short term. They will, in fact, put up with substantial immediate unpleasantness and do an amazing amount of hard work if they are convinced that what they are learning ultimately meets their needs.

7. Make learning visual. Even before young people were reared in a video environment, it was recognized that memory is often connected to visual images. In the middle ages people who memorized the Bible or Homer would sometimes walk around inside a cathedral and mentally attach certain passages to objects inside, so that remembering the image of a column or statue would provide the needed stimulus to remember the next hundred lines of text. Similarly, we can provide better learning by attaching images to the ideas we want to convey. Use drawings, diagrams, pictures, charts, graphs, bulleted lists, even three-dimensional objects you can bring to class to help students anchor the idea to an image.

It is very helpful to begin a class session or a series of classes with a conceptual diagram of the relationship of all the components in the class so that at a glance students can apprehend a context for all the learning they will be doing. This will enable them to develop a mental framework or filing system that will help them to learn better and remember more.

8. Use positive emotions to enhance learning and motivation. Strong and lasting memory is connected with the emotional state and experience of the learner. That is, people remember better when the learning is accompanied by strong emotions. If you can make something fun, exciting, happy, loving, or perhaps even a bit frightening, students will learn more readily and the learning will last much longer. Emotions can be created by classroom attitudes, by doing something unexpected or outrageous, by praise, and by many other means.

The day you come to class with a bowl on your head and speak as an alien observer about humans will be a day and a lesson your students will remember. Don't be afraid to embarrass yourself to make a memorable point.

9. Remember that energy sells. Think about these problems for a minute: Why would so many students rather see *Rambo, Robocop, etc.*, or another movie like that than one on the life of Christ? Why is rock music more popular with youth than classical music or Religious songs? Why is evil often seen as more interesting than good? The answer is connected with the way good and evil are portrayed. Unfortunately, evil usually has high energy on its side while good is seen as passive and boring. We've been trapped by the idea that "bad people do; good people don't." Good is passive, resistant, reactionary, while evil is proactive, energetic, creative.

MODULE 6: Teaching Listening

Objectives

- To identify participants' understanding of the concept of Listening
- To show teachers' techniques for teaching listening that they can use in their own classes.

Introduction: (10mn)

1. Say whether the following statement is true or false: Listening is the ability to understand what others are saying
2. Complete the following sentence with a) or b)

   Listening is a language …….

   a) skill
   b) component

3. List 3 listening activities you do in your class

Definitions	0	1	2

Activity 1: Stabilization of a definition of the concept of listening **(15m)**
Objective: To stabilize a definition of the concept of listening.
Task: Read the following definitions of listening and rate them
(0: Bad; 1: Acceptable; 2: Good)

1. Listening is hearing a spoken message.	*x*		
2. Listening is predicting what people are going to talk about		*X*	
3. Listening is using one's own knowledge of the subject to understand		*X*	
4. Listening is understanding different intonation patterns and uses of stress, etc., which give clues to meaning and social setting.		*X*	
5. Listening is identifying relevant points; rejecting irrelevant information		*X*	
6. Listening is understanding inferred information, e.g., speakers' attitude or intentions		*X*	
7. Listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying			*X*
8. Listening is recognizing the good pronunciation and intention of the speaker		X	
9. Listening is coding a message for understanding	X		

<u>Activity 2</u>: **Identification of some fundamentals of Listening**

Objective: To identify some fundamentals of listening.

Tasks: Read the following extract and underline the fundamentals of listening it presents.

"THE FUNDAMENTALS OF LISTENING" by **Fan Yagang, Forum Vol 31 No 2, January - March 1993, Page 16**

In teaching listening comprehension we must be careful not to go to extremes, either by being concerned too exclusively with theories without thinking about their application to teaching, or by obstinately following frozen routines-opening the textbook and explaining new words, playing the tape recorder, and asking/answering questions. It is essential for a teacher to have an overall understanding of what listening is, why it is difficult for foreign-language learners, and what some solutions may be. The vital question is how to bridge the gap between an analysis of listening and actual classroom teaching.

Listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying. This involves understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, his grammar and his

vocabulary, and grasping his meaning (Howatt and Dakin 1974). An able listener is capable of doing these four things simultaneously. Willis (1981:134) lists a series of micro-skills of listening, which she calls enabling skills.

They are:

• predicting what people are going to talk about
• guessing at unknown words or phrases without panicking
• using one's own knowledge of the subject to help one understand
• identifying relevant points; rejecting irrelevant information
• retaining relevant points (note-taking, summarizing)
• recognizing discourse markers, e.g., Well; Oh, another thing is; Now, finally; etc.
• recognizing cohesive devices, e.g., such as and which, including link words, pronouns, references, etc.
• understanding different intonation patterns and uses of stress, etc., which give clues to meaning and social setting
• understanding inferred information, e.g., speakers' attitude or intentions.

<u>Activity3</u>: Relating Listening aims to listening activities (25mn)

Objective: To relate listening aims to listening activities.

Task: Match the following listening activities to the listening aims they correspond to.

	Listening aims	**Listening activities**
1	Listening for the main idea: gist	
2	Listening for specific information	
3	Listening for dictation	
4	Listening to reorder	
5	Listening to take notes	
6	Listening to identify	
7	Listening to other learners	
8	Listening to match pictures with description	

Listening tasks:

A. Listen to the story about Ibrahima's big surprise. Write down what Ibrahima's big surprise is.

B. Which of the following best summarizes the short extract you will listen to?

a. An accident

b. A murder
c. A robbery

C. Listen to the two conversations. What is the time in each conversation? Write the times in numbers.

(Learners cannot see the tape scripts)

Presenter: Tape script 42. Listen and write the times. Conversation1.
Burglar 1: What's the time?
Burglar 2: Ssh!
Burglar 1: What's the time?
Burglar 2: It is twenty to four.

Presenter: Conversation 2
Man: Excuse me. Could you tell me the time, please?
Woman: Yes, of course. It is quarter to three.
Man: Thank you

D. Look at the picture and listen to the statements. Say 'Yes"" if it matches or no if it does not.

E. Answer the questions about Nabu's room as you listen to the tape

1. Has Nabu got pictures on the wall?
2. Has she got pillow cases on her bed?
3. Has she got a radio set?
4. Has she got a dresser?

F.

1. Here is a dialogue between Amina and Lameen. Read it and Put it in the right order.

Mr Fall: Five pencils, two notebooks, a rubber, and…how many envelopes?
Anna: Can I have a newspaper, please?
Mr Fall: Hello, Anna, I am fine thanks. What about you?
Anna: Hello, Mr Fall. How are you?
Mr Fall: Yes certainly. Here you are.
Anna: Thank you. And can I have … let's see… five pencils, two note books, a rubber, and er, ten envelopes.
Mr Fall: Good.
Anna: Ten please.
Anna: I'm OK, thanks
Mr Fall: Right. Here you are. Anything else?

2. Now listen to the dialogue. Did you have the right order?

G. **Present your project to your teacher and your classmates. Now Look at your classmates' projects and exchange views about them.**

H. **Listen to the tape to match the pictures (a-g) with Salif's family.**
Example:
a/
This is my brother Badu.
Is he nice?
No, he is horrible.
b/
Is this your mother?
Yes, that's her.
She is tall and thin.
Yes she is.
Etc…

I. **Listen and write the missing words**

A. Where is Pape……. ……?
B. ……'s from G……..?
A. Is Nafi from ……?
B. No.……isn't.
S……. from……..

J. In the conversation you will hear, a man and a woman are moving house and are bringing their furniture into their living room; as they talk, tick the furniture they mention: the sofa, the lamps, the coffee table, the mat, the bookcase, the stereo and the television**.**

<u>Activity4</u>: Simulation of a sequence of teaching listening. (15mn)

Objective: To simulate a listening comprehension activity.

Tasks: Choose a level and simulate a sequence of teaching listening comprehension. Use some of the techniques discussed above.

MODULE 7: Teaching Speaking

Objectives

- To analyze some problems related to the teaching of Speaking
- To identify speaking activities participants will use in their class

Time: 1h30
Introduction (10mn)

1. Say whether the following statement is true or false.

   Speaking is a productive skill.
2. Match the items in column A to the items in column B.

A	B
1. Interactive speaking situation.	a) Lecture to a live audience
2. Partially interactive speaking situation	b) Telephone calls
3. Non-interactive speaking situation	c) Speech for a radio broadcast

Answers

1	
2	
3	

3. List 3 speaking activities you do in your classes.

1

2

3

Activity1: **Analysis of some problems related to the teaching of speaking (15mn)**

Objective: To analyze some problems related to the teaching of speaking

Task: Match each problem related to the teaching of speaking to the appropriate solution(s)

Some Problems related to the teaching of Speaking	Some solutions
1. My students say they can't speak English because they will make a lot of mistakes.	a. Keep speaking as much English as you can so your class gets used to hearing English in the classroom
2. My learners say their friends will laugh at them when they speak English.	b. Teach learners the necessary language for the activity, or revise it; practice an example with them first.
3. My students say they don't have enough vocabulary to speak English.	c. Repeat, reformulate the instructions if necessary.
4. My pupils just don't understand what they should do in group work.	d. Don't correct all mistakes when the focus is on fluency.
5. My class just speaks in their own language if we do group work.	e. Teach your class "helping" language e.g. What is the English word for….? "It is my turn."
6. My pupils are really shy and daren't say anything in English.	f. Encourage your learners to support one another and favor positive reinforcement.
7. My students say they don't like speaking English	g. Discuss with your learners the importance of English in the world today.
	h. Jot down recurring mistakes to correct them at the end of the speaking activity.
	i. Ask students to model.

Suggested Answers:
Many solutions can apply to one problem.

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	

<u>Activity 2</u>: Stabilization of a definition of speaking (15mn)

Objective: To stabilize a definition of the concept of speaking.

Task: Read this passage to agree on a definition of the concept of speaking

Materials: Excerpt from www.sil.org/lingualinks

… Speaking is the productive skill in the oral mode. Like the other skills, it is more complicated than it seems at first and involves more than just pronouncing words. There are three kinds of speaking situations in which we find ourselves:

- interactive,
- partially interactive,
- non-interactive.

Interactive speaking situations include face-to-face conversations and telephone calls, in which we are alternately listening and speaking, and in which we have a chance to ask for clarification, repetition, or slower speech from our conversation partner. Some speaking situations are **partially interactive**, such as when giving a speech to a live audience, where the convention is that the audience does not interrupt the speech. The speaker nevertheless can see the audience and judge from the expressions on their faces and body language whether or not he or she is being understood. Some few speaking situations may be totally **non-interactive**, such as when recording a speech for a radio broadcast.

Micro-skills

Richards (1983, cited in Omaggio, 1986, p. 126)

Here are some of the micro-skills involved in speaking.

- Pronounce the distinctive sounds of a language clearly enough so that people can distinguish them. This includes making tonal distinctions.
- Use stress and rhythmic patterns, and intonation patterns of the language clearly enough so that people can understand what is said.
- Use the correct forms of words. This may mean, for example, changes in the tense, case, or gender.
- Put words together in correct word order.
- Use vocabulary appropriately.
- Use the register or language variety that is appropriate to the situation and the relationship to the conversation partner.
- Make clear to the listener the main sentence constituents, such as subject, verb, object, by whatever means the language uses.
- Make the main ideas stand out from supporting ideas or information.

<u>Activity3</u>: Identification of some fundamentals of speaking. (20mn)
Objective: To identify some fundamentals of speaking
Tasks: Match the headings to the following descriptions of speaking components.

'Adapted from Teaching By Principles, H. D. Brown, Prentice Hall Regents, 1994)

Description	Heading
1. This is the most important characteristic of English pronunciation ... The stress-timed rhythm of spoken English and its intonation and patterns convey important messages.	a. Performance variables
2. The speaker has an opportunity to make meaning clearer through the redundancy of language. Learners can capitalize on this feature of spoken language.	b. Stress, rhythm, and intonation
3. One of the advantages of spoken language is that the process of thinking as you speak allows you to manifest a certain number of performance hesitations, pauses, backtracking, and corrections. You ca actually teach learners how to pause and hesitate. For example, in English our 'thinking time' is not silent, but rather we insert certain 'fillers': uh, um, well, you know, I mean, like, etc. One of the most salient differences between native and non-native speakers of a language is in their hesitation phenomena.	c. Interaction
4. Make sure your students are reasonably well acquainted with the words and idioms and phrases of colloquial language and that they get practice in producing these forms.	d. Clustering
5. Learning to produce waves of language in a vacuum – without interlocutors – would rob speaking skill of its richest component: the creativity of conversational negotiation.	e. Redundancy
6. Fluent speech is phrasal, not word by word. Learners can organize their output both cognitively and physically (in breath groups) through such clustering.	f. Rate of delivery
7. Contractions, elisions, reduced vowels, etc. all form special problems in teaching spoken English. Students who don't learn colloquial contractions can sometimes develop a ...	g. Colloquial language

bookish quality of speaking that in turn stigmatizes them.	
8. Another salient characteristic of fluency is rate of delivery. One of your tasks in teaching spoken English is to help learners to achieve an acceptable speed along with other attributes of fluency.	h. Reduced forms

Write your answers here:
1_____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5 _____ 6 _____ 7 _____ 8 _____

<u>Activity4:</u> Listing of speaking tasks (15mn)

Objective: To list speaking tasks.

Tasks: list and share speaking tasks.

<u>Activity5:</u> Simulation of a speaking activity sequence (35mn)

Objective: To simulate a speaking activity sequence.

Tasks: Simulate an activity of teaching speaking

MODULE 8: Teaching Reading

Time: 2h
Objectives

- To show the importance and need for students to read
- To show ways of increasing students' motivation to read
- To devise classroom reading activities

Introduction (10mn)
Say whether the following statements are true or false. Tick (√)

1. Reading is a passive skill. True / False
2. A reader contributes meaning to a text True / False
3. List two types of texts you know:

   a)… ……

   b)……..
4. Generally we read for….(Tick the *wrong* item)

   a)… pleasure b)….information c)…..reading d)

   ……comprehension
5. Which technique do you use to find out the name of the goal scorer in a sports report?

   a) skimming b) scanning
6. In extensive reading, we read for….(Tick the *right* item).

   a)… pleasure b)…depth c)…information d)…details.

Activity1: **Why do we read? (10mn)**

Objective: To list reasons for reading

Task: Give reasons for reading

Activity2: **Reading techniques (20mn)**

Objective: To review some reading techniques and tasks

Task: Match the reading techniques and tasks with corresponding definitions

SUPPORT DOCUMENT

Reading techniques		**Definitions**
(1)Contextual guessing	A	Reading a passage quickly to grasp the main idea (or gist).
(2) Paraphrasing	B	Reading a passage quickly to find specific information.
(3) Reordering	C	Making guesses about the meaning of words by looking at the surrounding words or situation.
(4) Skimming	D	Fill-in-the-blank exercise, in which some words are omitted, designed to measure how well the reader understands how a text is linked together.
(5) Information transfer	E	Note-taking technique designed to help the reader see the overall organisation of a text.
(6) Intensive reading	F	The ability to see or write ideas in other words; measures the reader's understanding of the main ideas of a text.
(7) Scanning	G	Also known as 'jigsaw reading': the reader re-orders the mixed up pieces of a text to show he understands how a text fits together.
(8) Cloze exercise	H	Exercise which requires readers to transfer information from the text into another form of related text or drawing(e.g. .filling in a chart, tracing a route on a map); designed to measure comprehension.
(9) Outlining	I	'Reading between the lines': the reader understands what is meant but not stated in a passage.
(10) Making inferences	J	Reading carefully for complete, detailed comprehension, (e.g. main ideas, details, vocabulary).
(11) Passage completion	K	Reading widely in order to improve reading comprehension, reading speed and vocabulary.
(12) Extensive reading	L	Finishing a reading passage (orally or in writing); involves predicting a logical or suitable conclusion based on a thorough understanding of the text.

ANSWER KEY

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

<u>Activity3</u>: Designing reading activities (40mn)

Objective: To design reading activities

Task : Use support **document 4** and design three reading activities for the reading passage Kramer vs. Kramer .

(Examples: Chart filling, re-ordering, gap filling etc.)

Support document 4:

KRAMER vs. KRAMER

Coming home triumphant to tell his wife of his new promotion, Ted Kramer, a brilliant New York advertising-man finds out that she is leaving him. Joanna Kramer, a well educated woman, can no longer stand her role as the conventional wife and mother. She has decided to leave home to "find herself**"** and regain her independence. She is convinced that she has become incapable of bringing up her five-year-old son, Billy. Her best friend, Margaret, a divorcee who believes in "women's lib", understands Joanna's feelings and supports her quest for freedom.

For Ted Kramer, who had been up till then completely wrapped up in his work, the daily obligations of his new role as a single father are daunting. However, after many setbacks, father and son finally begin to get on well together and manage to find real harmony. Ted even begins to put his son before his job — he misses appointments when Billy is ill and gets behind in his work.

That is when Joanna, after eighteen months away, comes back to New York. Having managed to find a job and a certain emotional balance, she wishes to take Billy back. Ted refuses point blank and they have to go to court — a date for the trial is fixed. In the meantime, to add to Ted's troubles, his boss, Jim, who is tired of his lack of professionalism, decides to fire him. It becomes absolutely vital for Ted to find a job — any job — so as not to ruin his chances of obtaining custody of the child.

The trial — Kramer vs. Kramer — takes place; with both lawyers using the worst possible arguments to discredit the opposing party. After a heart-breaking confrontation, the judge gives the custody of the child to the mother, and so Ted, desperately trying to hide his grief, has to prepare Billy for another separation. However, when Joanna comes to take Billy back, there is a dramatic twist of events. Not wishing to force a difficult choice on Billy, she finally decides to leave him with his father.

A summary of KRAMER vs. KRAMER, a film by Robert Benton based on the novel by A very Corman KRAMER vs KRAMER

Activity4: **Designing motivating reading tasks (40mn)**

Objective: To design motivating reading tasks**.**

Task: Use support document 5A as an example and design interesting reading tasks from support documents 5B and 5 C

SUPPORT DOCUMENT 5A

Slightly adapted from Gerry Abbott and Peter Wingard in *The Teaching of English as an international language*

Murder in the city

A murder has been committed in the small city of Nashville. The police think that the murderer is among the group of five suspects. This description of the murderer has been given by an eye witness: "he is very tall, about forty years old. He has blue eyes, fair hair and he is wearing a dark-blue suit."
PROBLEM SOLVING**:**
Help the police to find out who the murderer is by pooling the bits of information in your possession.

Card A: Anderson's eyes are brown and he is 40. He is wearing a dark- blue suit. Jackson's eyes are blue and so are Johnson's
Card B: Jackson is 20; Anderson has fair hair; Johnson is very short. Richardson is 41
Card C: Robinson is 70 and he has blue eyes. Richardson is very tall and he is wearing a dark-blue suit
Card D: Jackson is very tall and has fair hair. Robinson is very tall and his hair is white.
Card E: Richardson's eyes are blue and he's got fair hair. Robinson is wearing a dark-blue suit.

Name	**Eyes**	**Hair**	**Age**	**Height**	**Suit**
Anderson					
Jackson					
Johnson					
Richardson					
Robinson					

SUPPORT DOCUMENT 5B
(3ème)

I like smoking. It makes me fell grown-up. I started when I was 12 because all my friends were doing it. We would "borrow" cigarettes from our parents, and smoke them where no one could see us. At first it made me fell a bit giddy, but now it makes me fell good. I can think better when I've had a cigarette.
When my Dad found out I was smoking, he wasn't angry with me – until he found out I had taken his cigarettes!
I don't believe all that stuff about smoking and lung cancer. Look at all the sports that have tobacco companies as sponsors. Athletes would not allow that if smoking was harmful, would they?
Beside, smoking hasn't affected my and it hasn't affected my parents' health either. I cough a bit sometimes, but I probably caught it from my dad.
Anyway, I am not going to stop. As far as I concerned, smoking is god for you.

Go for English 3e page 19

SUPPORT DOCUMENT 5C
(1ère)

Yellow fever

Yellow fever is a viral disease carried by the yellowfever mosquito, Aedes aegypti (Latin). The disease occurs in tropical and subtropical region, namely in areas of Africa and South America, and affects humans as well as monkeys. The mosquito-borne virus is involved in two transmission cycles. In "jungle" yellow fever, transmission occurs between forest-dwelling mosquitoes and no human primates, while in the "urban" cycle transmission is between domestic mosquito species, especially Aedes aegypti, and humans.
The disease is characterized by chills. Head, back, and muscle pain; and nausea and vomiting. These symptoms usually appear within three to six days after exposure. Death usually occurs 7-10 days after onset of the illness, with a period of remission on the third or fourth or fourth day. The mortality rate of yellow fever is from 30 to 75 percent.

Treatment

Unfortunately no specific treatment exists for people who get yellow fever, but yellow fever is preventable.
People who live in infected areas can be vaccinated with a live virus vaccine against the disease. The vaccine now used meets strict World Health Organisation (WHO) requirements of safety and is one the most effective vaccine resulting in the development of long-lasting antibody in 95 percent of more of recipients. A single dose gives immunity for 10 years. It is recommended for children over six months of age. People who have had yellw fever are immune for life.

Prevention

Since mosquitoes are generally most active during early morning and late afternoon hours, it is best to avoid exposure at these times. People can take further precautions to avoid mosquito bites by using insect replant, wearing protective clothing, placing screens on windows and doors, and sleeping under mosquito netting.

Forum 2000

APPENDIX I

Reading:

- is the process of recognition, interpretation and perception of written or printed material. It involves the recognition of letters, words, symbols, phrases and clauses
- deals with language forms
- is a process of communication from the writer to the reader.

Comprehension :

- is the understanding of the meaning of written or printed material
- deals with language content.
- is a process of negotiating understanding between the reader and the writer. The reader receives information from the author via the words, symbols, sentences, paragraphs and so on and tries to understand the ideas and inner feelings of the writer.

APPENDIX II

I. Read the text silently and fill in the chart

.

	Occupation and background	Lifestyle before separation	Lifestyle after separation	Wishes and feelings
TED				
JOANNA				

II. Read the text (Kramer vs. Kramer) and reorder the following events:

The trial/ Ted's sacking/ Joanna's return to New York/ Ted's promotion/ Joanna's final change of mind about Billy/ Ted's first taste in looking after his own son/ Joanna's departure from home/ Ted's job hunting/ Harmony between father and son.

III. Fill in the blanks with appropriate words or phrases from the text

In their …….happiness many people tend to believe nowadays that before getting married, couples should live …….. first in trial marriage. As it is a commitment for the rest of life ……..should be pursued and divorce, which is a real source of ..... banned. In the West, they still think that marriage should be like a business contract, – a paper to be signed every three or four years to be renewed or cancelled.-

APPENDIX III:

Why do we read?

There are two main reasons for reading:
— Reading for pleasure.
— Reading for information (in order to find out something or in order to do something with the information you get).

How do we read?

The main ways of reading are as follows:
— Skimming: quickly running one's eyes over a text to get the gist of it.
— Scanning: quickly going through a text to find a particular piece of information.
— Extensive reading: reading longer texts, usually for one's own pleasure. This is a fluency activity, mainly involving global understanding
— Intensive reading: reading shorter texts, to extract specific information. This is more an accuracy activity involving reading for detail.
These different ways of reading are not mutually exclusive. For instance, one often skims through a passage to see what it is about before deciding whether it is worth scanning a particular paragraph for the information one is looking for. In real life, our reading purposes constantly vary and therefore, when devising exercises, we should vary the questions and the activities according to the type of text studied and the purpose in reading it .When working on a page of classified ads, for instance, it would be highly artificial to propose exercises requiring the detailed comprehension of every single advertisement. This would only discourage the students and prevent them from developing reading strategies adapted to the true purpose of their reading.
Reading involves a variety of skills. The main ones are listed below, (This list is taken from John Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design.)
— Recognizing the script of a language
— Deducing the meaning arid use of unfamiliar lexical items
— Understanding explicitly stated information
— Understanding information when not explicitly stated
— Understanding conceptual meaning
— Understanding the communicative value (function) of sentences and utterances
— Understanding relations within the sentence
— Understanding relations between the parts of a text through lexical cohesion devices
— Understanding cohesion between parts of a text through grammatical cohesion devices
— Interpreting text by going outside it
— Recognizing indicators in discourse

— identifying the main point or important information in a piece of discourse
— Distinguishing the main idea from supporting details
— Extracting salient points to summarize (the text, an idea etc.)
— Selective extraction of relevant points from a text
— Basic reference skills
— Skimming
— Scanning to locate specifically required information
— Transcoding information to diagrammatic display
In order to develop these skills, several types of exercises can be used. These question-types can have two different functions.
1 To clarify the organization of the passage.
The questions can be about:
— the function of the passage
— the general organization (e.g. argumentative)
— the rhetorical organization (e.g. contrast, comparison)
— the cohesive devices (e.g. link-words)
— the intrasentential relations (e.g. derivation, morphology, hyponymy)
2 To clarify the contents of the passage.
The questions can be about:
— plain fact (direct reference)
— implied fact (inference)
— deduced meaning (supposition)
— evaluation
The above skills, question—types and question-functions are constantly related since a given exercise uses a certain type of question, with a certain function, to develop a particular reading skill.

From Developing reading skills by Françoise Grellet

APPENDIX IV

EFFICIENT AND INEFFICIENT READING

	EFFICIENT	INEFFICIENT
1. LANGUAGE	The language of the text is comprehensible to the learners.	The language of the text is too difficult.
2. CONTENT	The context of the text is accessible to the learners; they know enough about it to be able to apply their own background knowledge.	The text is too difficult in the sense that the content is too far removed from the knowledge and experience of the learners.
3. SPEED	The reading progresses fairly fast: mainly because the reader has 'automatized' recognition of common combinations, and does not waste time working out each word or group of words anew	The reading is slow: the reader does not have a large 'vocabulary' of automatically recognized items.
4. ATTENTION	The reader concentrates on the significant bits, and skims the rest; may even skip parts he or she knows to be insignificant.	The reader pays the same amount of attention to all parts of the text.
5. INCOMPREHENSIBLE VOCABULARY	The reader takes incomprehensible vocabulary in his or her stride: guessing its meaning from the surrounding text, or ignores it and manages without; uses a dictionary only when these strategies are insufficient	The reader cannot tolerate incomprehensible vocabulary items: stops to look everyone one up in a dictionary, and/or feels discouraged from trying to comprehend the text as a whole.
6. PREDICTION	The reader thinks ahead, hypothesizes, predicts.	The reader does not think ahead, deals with the text as it comes.
7. BACKGROUND INFORMATION	The reader has and uses background information to help understand the text.	The reader does not have or use background information.
8. MOTIVATION	The reader is motivated to read: by interesting context or a challenging task.	The reader has no particular interest in reading.
9. PURPOSE	The reader is aware of a clear purpose in reading: for example, to find out something, to get	The reader has no clear purpose other than to obey the teacher's instruction.

	pleasure.	
10. STRATEGIES	The reader uses different strategies for different kinds of reading.	The reader uses the same strategy for all texts.

Source: A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory, by Penny UR

READING

PRE-READING

Interest in a Reader cannot be assumed and the teacher should be aware of the negative effects a lengthy, foreign text can have on some students, adults or children. Frequently, games, humour, visuals, puzzles, role play and other unusual approaches can motivate students' interest as well as providing opportunities for reflection and insight.

Ironically one way of stimulating interest is to withhold the text and spend one or more lessons in the pre-reading stage building interest in and curiosity about characters, places, themes and action by permitting only tantalizing glimpses of small selections from the text. These snippets must be carefully selected; they must stimulate curiosity, but not provide so much information that the need to read is removed. The pre-reading stage is important sa it can whet the student's appetites to read; it can provide a need to read to complete an activity or confirm an idea; and it can persuade the students that as far as perception or hypothesis is concerned there are no right or wrong answers, only different ones.

Hypothesis is encouraged at the pre-reading stage because it is impossible for students to give a "right" answer in traditional terms as none of them has read the text. The teacher must resist the temptation to intervene and confirm or disprove any hypothesis; this diminishes the need to read.

WHILE READING / READING

In recent years students have been encouraged to read to respond more subjectively to Readers. Unfortunately a large number of teachers still consider the Reader to be a longer text for comprehension questions or an opportunity to practise reading aloud. Reading is not a passive skill. When we read we search for meaning, drawing upon the complex network of associations which native speakers have at their disposal. Students should be actively engaged in negotiation for meaning. The use of classroom Readers should place emphasis only upon the recycling of facts and key language. Students must be taught how to read and respond to books and not simply to answer questions. During lessons students must be involved in activities which enable them to respond cognitively, emotionally and imaginatively to imagine writing.

POST-READING / AFTER-READING

Students can acquire confidence and flair with language if allowed to explain where their opinions originated. Leland Roloff in his book *The Perception and Evocation of Literature*

(Havard Press 1973) did not have the class Reader in mind, but the recommendations he makes about teaching literature are highly appropriate:

'The language of literature…should enable a student to enter inner worlds which become real to the perceiver.'

Students should be able to enter the 'inner worlds' without the traditional teaching method of comprehension checks. Instead they could be more actively engaged in negotiation for potential meaning, both individually and with other students. Interest in the activity can sustain interest in the text or be fuelled by interest in the text.

The activities in this section are generated by the text and extend its potential for meaningful language work. The tasks cannot be performed without text, that is, they cannot replace the text.

Frequently, they involve the students in detailed revision and scrutiny of the author's words, but at all times there is a valid reason for the student to do so, and the various skills being practised and developed in each activity will increase understanding and subsequently pleasure in future Readers.

Resource Book for Teachers (Alan Maley)

APPENDIX V

How to Improve Reading Comprehension

Key Point
Good reading means building frameworks for connecting words to thoughts.

The Purpose of Reading.

The purpose of reading is to connect the ideas on the page to what you already know. If you don't know anything about a subject, then pouring words of text into your mind is like pouring water into your hand. You don't retain much. For example, try reading these numbers:

7516324 This is hard to read and remember.
751-6324 This is easier because of chunking.
123-4567 This is easy to read because of prior knowledge and structure.

Similarly, if you like sports, then reading the sports page are easy. You have a framework in your mind for reading, understanding and storing information.

Improving comprehension.

Reading comprehension requires motivation, mental frameworks for holding ideas, concentration and good study techniques. Here are some suggestions.

Develop a broad background.
Broaden your background knowledge by reading newspapers, magazines and books. Become interested in world events.

Know the structure of paragraphs.
Good writers construct paragraphs that have a beginning, middle and end. Often, the first sentence will give an overview that helps provide a framework for adding details. Also, look for transitional words, phrases or paragraphs that change the topic.

Identify the type of reasoning.
Does the author use cause and effect reasoning, hypothesis, model building, induction or deduction, systems thinking? See section 20 for more examples on critical thinking skills.

Anticipate and predict.
Really smart readers try to anticipate the author and predict future ideas and questions. If you're right, this reinforces your understanding. If you're wrong, you make adjustments quicker.

Look for the method of organization.
Is the material organized chronologically, serially, logically, functionally, spatially or hierarchical? See section 10 for more examples on organization.

Create motivation and interest.
Preview material, ask questions, and discuss ideas with classmates. The stronger your interest, the greater your comprehension.

Pay attention to supporting cues.
Study pictures, graphs and headings. Read the first and last paragraph in a chapter, or the first sentence in each section.

Highlight, summarize and review.
Just reading a book once is not enough. To develop a deeper understanding, you have to highlight, summarize and review important ideas.

Build a good vocabulary.
For most educated people, this is a lifetime project. The best way to improve your vocabulary is to use a dictionary regularly. You might carry around a pocket dictionary and use it to look up new words. Or, you can keep a list of words to look up at the end of the day. Concentrate on roots, prefixes and endings.

Use a systematic reading technique like SQR3.
Develop a systematic reading style, like the SQR3 method and make adjustments to it, depending on priorities and purpose. The SQR3 steps include Survey, Question, Read, Recite and Review. See Section 14 for more details.

Monitor effectiveness.
Good readers monitor their attention, concentration and effectiveness. They quickly recognize if they've missed an idea and backup to reread it.

Should You Vocalize Words?

Yes, although it is faster to form words in your mind rather than on your lips or throat. Eye motion is also important. Frequent backtracking slows you down considerably.

MODULE 9: Teaching Writing

Objecives

- To show teachers how writing can be developed through controlled activities in class.
- To show teachers how to prepare students for freer writing activities

Time: 2h

Introduction (15mn)

1. List five types of texts you expect your students to write

a _____

b _____

c _____

d _____

e _____

2. Give three examples of common mistakes students make when writing

a _____

b _____

c _____

3. What are the four main steps in the process of writing?

a _____

b _____

c _____

d _____

4. Name three characteristics of a well-written text?

a _____

b _____

c _____

Activity1: **Sharing experiences (20mn)**

Objective: To share experiences about teaching writing

Tasks:

1. List three activities you use when teaching writing to your students

2. As a group discuss how you teach writing

Activity2: **Identifying types of texts students are expected to write (15mn)**

Objective: To identify types of texts students are expected to write

Tasks:

1. List five text types (letter, dialog…) you usually ask your students to produce.
2. Name the characteristics of each.

Activity3: **Identifying students' difficulties in writing (15mn)**

Objective: To identify the most common difficulties our students face when writing

Task: What do you think are the most common difficulties our students face when writing? Bear in mind that any answer is welcome and valuable.

Activity4: **Identifying the different steps in a writing activity (25mn)**

Objective: To identify the different steps in a writing activity

Task: Read the document carefully then in your group:

- identify the different steps to follow to help your students complete the task
- indicate the duration for each step

Dynamics of writing

by Anima Chakraverty and Kripa K. Gautum

Assessing academic abilities in the Indian educational system is closely linked with proficiency in writing. The English examination consists of essay type, non-text, and text-based exercises. Whatever the writing activity, all teachers of English in India moan about the learners' inability to communicate in writing.

Writing, an important part of language learning, is essentially a reflective activity that requires enough time to think about the specific topic and to analyze and classify any background knowledge. Then, writers need suitable language to structure these ideas in the form of a coherent discourse. Our purpose therefore, is to help our learners produce self-contained compositions. But for the learners to do so, they have to link and develop information, ideas, or arguments in logical sequences. Without writing practice, students have difficulty in achieving clarity, which is the goal of any writing exercise.

Too often we assume that after giving learners an initial stimulus to arouse interest in a given topic, we can simply leave them to complete the writing tasks. But even professional writers must make plans, use notes, reflect on issues, and make several rough drafts before completing their work. So, students who are still learning the process of thinking through writing require their teachers' help to structure and organize their ideas. What kind of help teachers provide and the manner in which they provide the help are the questions this article aims to answer.

Situation

This article is a result of our classroom teaching experience. Our learners are students at the tertiary level between 17 and 20. The class has 70 students. All the learners have English as the medium of instruction. Although they are capable of logical thinking, they need to practice purposive and organized writing.

The writing task

Since letter writing is a part of the course, learners are already familiar with letter format

Objectives

Because we want the learners to write individually and enjoy writing, we start with the following objectives:

1. To integrate writing with speaking, listening and reading. (This broadens the writing task.)
2. To develop the strategy of persuasion and to reach a conclusion. Thus, writing is a tool for developing logical thinking

The activity

Oral discussion, a "mind map," and a reading text are the pedagogical prompts to make writing a holistic activity. We begin by asking the learners to discuss the topic, in this case the advantages and disadvantages of having a television set at home. During this discussion a friendly atmosphere is built. Based on this information, the groups make their recommendations. This oral activity encourages brainstorming and exposes the learners to some new ideas.

To ensure that the students have not left out facts, they are given a mind map and are asked to predict what is in the text they will read. The facts and the mind

map help students to come to certain conclusions. Learners are free to modify and expand their ideas based on the mind map, discussion and text. This gives students the necessary input before they write.

Operationalizing the pedagogy

Step 1: In groups of five, the students are given 10 minutes to discuss and write down the advantages and disadvantages of the topic. Then, one group gives the advantages, with input from the other groups, and another group is asked to give the disadvantages, with others adding their ideas. Both lists are put on the blackboard in the form of phrases or sentences. Foe example, our list of advantages and disadvantages in the home was as follows:

Advantages	**Disadvantages**
T V programmes provide recreation Inform about current events Fill up free time Provides access to new ideas/learning Educate Help to find jobs/career choices	TV violence stimulates aggressive behaviour Violence leads the viewers to perceive the real word as more dangerous than it might be Selection of program may cause conflict in the family Watching TV becomes a habit and one looses the desire to create alternative forms of recreation Watching TV breaks down communication within the family and social life suffers Slang and catch words become active vocabulary

This activity gives the learners confidence in their abilities to create ideas and a sense of participation in their learning process.

Step 2: The class is given a mind map to help them organize, expand, and clarify their ideas.

Step 3: Next, learners read a given text related to the theme of the task. We select texts that provide information for the writing tasks. After learners have

read the text we give them reading comprehension exercises, like true or false, main idea, and vocabulary development.

Step 4: After students have identified some advantages and some disadvantages of the topic, we ask them to rearrange the main points so they can write two paragraphs. After five minutes, we circulate among the students to check their outlines.

Step 5: Students are given 30 minutes to complete their letters, after which their own work for mistakes. Then they exchange papers to allow peer correction. They underline the errors and put the correct form in pencil. This gives them practice in correcting mistakes. Finally, we collect all the written work for the final correction.

Conclusion

The pedagogic construct that we have adopted for developing writing focuses on strategies of persuasion. This model consists of three phases. In the first phase the teacher's concern is mainly to encourage oral activity by brainstorming for ideas on a particular theme and to activate the learners' creative thinking. In the second phase the teacher provides the learners with some framework to help them clarify and organize their ideas into logical sequences. The mind map and the reading task in the pedagogic operation are used in this phase. The third phase is subdivided into two stages. The teacher provides useful pedagogic prompts to help the learner with the organizational pattern of the writing task and the actual writing task. Here the teacher's job is restricted to correcting syntactic errors for accuracy and pointing out flaws in organizing ideas.

This pedagogic model has three distinct advantages for teachers. First, it makes their job of marking discourse simpler at the content level. Second, it allows students to make an easy transition from controlled and guided writing to free writing, which is precisely the term-end requirement in the examination. Finally, it encourages students to reason, which is essential for achieving coherence in written discourse.

(This article is from The English Language Teaching Forum, Volume Number 3, July – September 2000)

Activity 5: Designing a writing activity (30mn)

Objective: To design a writing activity based on an integrated-skills model

Task:

- Adapt the model to design a writing activity suited to your students' needs
  - Indicate the students' level
  - Make a detailed description of the different steps of the activity.

MODULE 10: Designing Classroom Tests

Objectives

- To show teachers the value of giving regular tests in class, and to show the importance of testing particular skills.
- To familiarize Teachers with different types of test, and enable them to judge their effectiveness
- To show Teachers how to design a range of simple classroom tests.

Introduction

What are tests for?

Tests serve 4 purposes

1. Help teachers evaluate students and assess whether they are learning what you want them to learn
2. Motivate and structure students' academic efforts
3. Give a picture on how the teacher is successfully presenting material
4. Reinforce student learning providing feedback as to what skills they need master

General strategies

- spend time developing your tests
- Match your test to the content you are teaching
- Try to make tests valid, reliable, and balanced.
- Use a variety of testing methods
- Write questions that test skills other than recall
- Take precautions to avoid cheating

Testing Techniques

Before developing any test, it is important to bear in mind the test requirements . These requirements include validity, reliability, and practicality.

- Validity is concerned with how well a test measures what it is intended to measure. It includes:
  - content validity (how well performances demonstrate the specified learning domain),
  - construct validity (whether theoretical principles are reflected in the test design),
  - and face validity (the extent to which a test appears to measure what is intended).
- Reliability is concerned with the dependability of results, or the extent to which performance is consistently measured. There are three aspects of reliability:

    - Test reliability mean that if we assign the same test to the same subjects or matched subjects on two different occasions it would yield the same result.
    - Inter-rater reliability (agreement between different rater of the same performance),
    - Intra-rater reliability (the same rater assessing the same performance on different occasions).
- Practicality means that a test must be practical in terms of financial limitation, time constraints, ease of administration, scoring and interpretation

True False

Good for:

- Knowledge level content
- Evaluating student understanding of popular misconceptions
- Concepts with two logical responses

Advantages

- Can test large amount of content
- Students can answer 3-4 questions per minute

Disadvantages:

- they are easy
- It is difficult to discriminate between students that know material and students who don't
- Students have 50-50 chance of getting right answer by guessing
- Need a large number of items for high reliability

Tips for writing good T/F items:

- Avoid double negatives
- Avoid long/complex sentences
- Use specific determinants with caution: never, only, all, none, always, could, might, can, some, few, may, sometimes, generally,
- Use only one central idea in each item
- Don't emphasize the trivial
- Use exact quantitative language
- Don't lift items straight from the book
- Make more false than true (40-60). (Students are more likely to answer true)

Matching

Good for:

- Knowledge level
- Some comprehension level, if appropriately constructed

Types:

- Terms with definitions
- Phrases with other phrases
- Causes with effects
- Parts with larger units
- Problems with solutions

Advantages

- Maximum coverage at knowledge level with a minimum amount of space/prep time
- Valuable in content areas that have a lot of facts

Disadvantages

- Time consuming for students
- Not good for higher levels of learning

Tips for writing good Matching items

- Need 15 items or less
- Give good directions on basis for matching
- Use items in response column more than once (reduces the effects of guessing)
- Use homogenous material in each exercise
- Make all responses plausible
- Put all items on a single page
- Put responses in some logical order (chronological, alphabetical, etc.)
- Responses should be short

Multiple Choices

Good for

- Application, synthesis, and evaluation levels

Types

- Question/Right answer
- Incomplete statement
- Best answer

Advantages

- Very effective
- Versatile at all levels
- Minimum of writing for student
- Guessing reduced
- Can cover broad range of content

Disadvantages:

- difficult to construct good test items

- Difficult to come up with alternative responses

Tips for writing good Multiple Choice items:

- stem should present single, clearly formulated problem
- Stem should be simple, understood language; delete extraneous words
- Avoid “all of the above” –can answer based on partial knowledge (if one is incorrect or two are correct, but unsure of the third…)
- Avoid “none of the above”
- Place correct answer at random
- Make each item independent of others on the test
- Need more than 3 alternatives, 4 is best

Short Answer

Good for

- Application, synthesis, analysis, and evaluation levels

Advantages:

- Easy to construct
- Good for “who”, “what”, “where”, “when” content
- Minimizes guessing
- Encourages more intensive study – student must know the answer vs recognizing the answer

Disadvantages

- May overemphasize memorization of facts
- Take care-questions may have more than one correct answer
- Scoring is laborious

Tips for writing good Short Answer items

- When using with definitions: supply term-not the definition- for a better judge of student knowledge
- For numbers, indicate the degree of precision/units expected
- Use direct question, not an incomplete statement
- If you do use incomplete statements, don’t use more than 2 blanks within an item
- Arrange blanks to make scoring easy
- Try to phrase question so there is only one answer possible

Essay

Good for

- Application, synthesis and evaluation levels

Types:

- Extended response: synthesis and evaluation levels: a lot of freedom in answers

- Restricted response: more consistent scoring, outlines parameters of responses

Advantages:

- Students less likely to guess
- Easy to construct
- Stimulates more study
- Allows students to demonstrate ability to organize knowledge, express opinions, show originality

Disadvantages:

- Can limit amount of material tested, therefore has decreased validity.
- Subjective, potentially unreliable scoring
- Time consuming to score

Tips for writing good Essay items

- Provide reasonable time limits for thinking and writing
- Avoid letting them answer a choice of questions (You won't get a good idea of the broadness of student achievement when they only answer a set of questions.)
- Give definitive task to student-compare, analyze, evaluate, etc.

Module11: LESSON OBSERVATION AND FEEDBACK GUIDELINES

ACTIVITY 1: BRAINSTORMING

-What's lesson observation?
-Who does lesson observation?
-When is lesson observation done?
-What is the main objective of lesson observation?

I. LESSON OBSERVATION

DEFINITION: A lesson observation is a formal or informal observation of teaching while it is taking place in a classroom or other learning environment. Classroom observations are often used to provide teachers with constructive critical feedback aimed at improving their classroom management and instructional techniques.

BEFORE THE LESSON OBSERVATION

- Inform the teacher(s) in advance through the hierarchy. (Give a phone call to make sure the message is carried out.)
- Get prepared: have the necessary documentation and things ready i.e. updated timetable(s), lesson observation sheet (LOS), a copy of the syllabus and scheme of work (if available) of the level(s) to be observed, a copy of action verbs commonly used for stating objectives(Bloom's taxonomy), paper for note taking, a watch, pens.
- Be well dressed with convenient clothes and shoes.

DURING THE LESSON OBSERVATION

- Be on time, at least 30 minutes before the observation proper to check with the administration the presence of the teacher and the location of the classroom.
- Arrive before class begins, be friendly and greet the teacher and the students. Walk in the classroom and sit quietly at the back of the classroom where you can have a good view of both teacher and students and hear what they say. (Ahead of time, tell the teacher to introduce you and say that you are here to observe the lesson).
- Be as unobtrusive as possible during the observation, and do not otherwise participate in the class.

- As much as possible, try to set aside your own ideas about what should happen in class, and be a neutral observer. Keep in mind that there may be a variety of ways of accomplishing the goals for the class. (In fact, you may learn something through observing.)

- Focus on gathering descriptive data, not on evaluation. Your observations will be most valuable if they can help the instructor become aware of the classroom interaction from new perspective:

- Take notes on separate sheets of paper during the observation, recording the "cause and effect" of the impact of teaching and complete the form afterward. Details are important to the feedback process. Examples:

  "This happened ……because……"
  "Pupils concentrated well because the pace of the lesson was well-matched to level of understanding."
  "The carefully differentiated work ensured all children were able to make good progress…." and give an example
  "The children's behavior deteriorated because the worksheets were not sufficiently challenging."

  • Look at the range and balance of activities:
  Are the activities differentiated?
  Is there sufficient challenge for all pupils?

- Notice both student and instructor behaviors. You may wish to record sample questions/answers techniques; make note of how many different students participate and from what parts of the classroom; pay attention to whether students seem to be understanding the materiel presented/discussed or not:

  - *Look at what the children are doing and how they are responding: Are they engaged, attentive, interested?*
  - *Are they having fun?*
  - *Are they thinking, learning, excited?*
  - *Are they challenged but not inhibited?*
  - *Consider how the teacher interacts with the pupils: Do pupils have chance to contribute to the lesson?*
  - *Is questioning used effectively?*

- Talk to pupils-check their understanding of the concepts being taught and ask them what they think about their lessons!

- Leave on time.
- Complete the written report as soon as possible after the observation, while the experience is still fresh in your memory. Remember to focus on non-judgmental observation. However, the written report need not contain every detail you observed.

AFTER THE LESSON OBSERVATION

Give feedback. The goal of the post-observation discussion is to provide the teacher with the supportive feedback aimed toward improvement.

II. GIVING FEEDBACK

ACTIVITY 2:

1. Think back to a "positive" experience of classroom observation you had (as a teacher)

   How did you feel and what was it that created these positive feelings?
2. Think back to a less positive experience ("negative") of classroom observation you had (as a teacher)

   How did you feel and what went wrong?

DEFINITION: Feedback refers to the comments on and reactions to a lesson that has been taught. It is concerned with what teachers do, the way they appear to others, the effect teachers' behavior has on others, and reactions to the methods and techniques teachers use during a lesson. The aim of feedback is to help teachers develop and improve their performance.

Why is feedback important?

1. It raises awareness of strengths and weaknesses.
2. It helps teachers reflect on their performance.
3. It is an opportunity to learn.
4. It can strengthen relationships.
5. It can motivate teachers.
6. it develops confidence

7. It allows to note areas for improvement.
8. It offers advice and possibly further support/training.
9. It explores and offers strategies and alternatives.
10. It encourages self-reflection.

Types of feedback

IMMEDIATE ORAL FEEDBACK	DELAYED WRITTEN FEEDBACK
1. Events are still fresh. 2. Immediate satisfaction of teacher's curiosity. 3. Immediate reaction to comments. 4. Limited time for thorough analysis. 5. Supervisor may have insufficient time to carry out this stage properly.	1. An unchanging written record. 2. Can be used and thought over, more than once. 3. Can be discussed in various ways. 4. Useful documentation and reference for assessment.

ACTIVITY 3:

1. What are the elements/components of an effective classroom observation cycle?
2. What type of knowledge, skills and abilities does an effective observer need to have?
3. What type of knowledge, skills and abilities does an effective observee need to have?

Giving feedback

ACTIVITY 4:
Work in pairs. Read each statement together. Decide if you agree or disagree with it. Put an A if you agree, put D if you disagree.

1. A supervisor must always use some kind of checklist or schedule when observing.
2. It is sometimes necessary for an advisor to interrupt a lesson.
3. A supervisor should sit quietly at the back of the classroom when observing.
4. It is OK to observe only part of a lesson.
5. The way a supervisor conducts an observation will vary according to the teacher involved.

- At the beginning of the session, the teacher is first given an opportunity to describe his/her own reactions to the class mentioning what went well and what seemed to need improvement.
- The observer may then share his/her observations, in the form of a verbal feedback accompanied by a written report. The goal here is to help the teacher see his/her teaching through new eyes.
- Try to relate your observations to the strengths/weakness the teacher has identified for him/herself. Allow the instructor's interests and concerns to guide the conversation.
- Suggestions for improvement may be presented after some discussion of the observation. Do not present suggestions prescriptively, but with the reference to the discussion you have been having.
- Avoid generalizations, focusing instead on specific observed behaviors. Examples:

.AVOID: You need to work on making class more interesting.
BETTER: Around 10:15 I noticed students were starting to "tune out." Have you ever noticed that happening? Are there ways you could get them more involved at times like that to re-engage them in the class?

AVOID: You‘re doing a great job of explaining clearly.
BETTER: when you answered that question about the blah-blah theory, I noticed a lot of students were writing furiously and saying “oh!” like they suddenly understood. I think the example you used really made it clear to them.

- Remember, it is not your job as an observer to “fix” the teacher’s teaching. If you observed a large number of problematic teaching behaviors, it is best to focus your suggestions on one or two you think the teacher could most profitably work on at this time. It is crucial to avoid overwhelming the teacher with a long list of failings.

- Don’t hesitate to share with the teacher things you may have learned from watching him/her that you plan to share with other teachers.

CLOSURE

- Summary by both advisor and teacher on the methods and techniques used.

- Talk about your next class visit (if necessary).

- Thank the teacher and encourage him/her.

Characteristics of Useful Feedback

Useful Feedback is:

1. descriptive rather than judgmental. This helps prevent defensive responses.
2. specific rather than general.
3. focused on behavior rather than the person.
4. focused on helping rather than hurting.
5. focused on behavior that the teacher can do something about.
6. actively sought by the teacher.
7. an amount of information that does not overload the teacher.
8. focuses on "what" or "how" (observed behavior) not "why" (why involves inference and motives that can bring resentment rather than learning).
9. clearly communicated and can be rephrased by the receiver. Easy-to-understand language is used.
10. shared within 3-7 days of the observation.
11. provided with opportunities for further discussion.
12. provided with clear suggestions about improvement that can be generated by the teacher based on questions by the observer.

13. based on observations, so that any constructive criticism is justifiable.
14. an opportunity to learn!

15. Create a **supportive, confidential** relationship built on trust, honesty, and true concern.

FEEDBACK
ACTIVITY1:
Work in pairs. Read each statement together. Decide if you agree or disagree with it. Put an A if you agree, put D if you disagree.

1. The supervisor will inevitably do most of the talking during the post observation feedback.

2. A written report can replace the oral post lesson feedback session.

3. It is a good idea to show your notes on the observed lesson to the teacher.

Giving feedback in 'challenging' circumstances

-Try to preface with something positive.
-Be as specific as possible.
-Always check understanding.
-Ask whether he or she agrees or not.
-Ask if he or she can think of anything that could be done differently.
-Summarize.

Module 12: planning and running a workshop

Facilitating Workshops

"Tell me, and I will forget. Show me, and I may remember. Involve me, and I will understand."
Confucius 450 BC

Running a workshop is a great way to share your skills or to help people learn from each other. Doing this means that no one has to reinvent the wheel and it empowers people to do things they want to do.

Facilitating a workshop can feel daunting if you are new to it, but with a little bit of thought you can put together a good workshop even if you don't have a lot of experience already. This briefing offers some basic principles and practical ideas to help you do that.

You may also find some of our other briefings useful. For example: *Facilitating Meetings* and *Facilitation Tools for Meetings and Workshops* as well as some of our Short Guides.

What is facilitation?

Workshop facilitation is about helping a group to gain skills and knowledge. Unlike the stereotype role of a school teacher, it's not about being in charge. You don't even need to be an expert in the workshop topic (although it can often help). The key to good facilitation is that you and the participants are equals – you all share responsibility to create a good learning experience.

Workshop facilitation in practice

Facilitating a workshop involves a range of different responsibilities. The thing we often think about first is how to **get knowledge and skills across** – what we might call teaching. Sometimes top down 'teacher like' methods can be effective, and you might use them as a facilitator. For example, if a group of people had no knowledge on a topic you might start with a presentation or demonstration before letting them apply what they learnt. However, the knowledge doesn't have to come from the facilitator. Your job is often about setting up activities that enable people to **learn from each other** and **build on their own knowledge**. For example, you might run a skill share for experienced bakers where they list common problems and then work together to find ways of addressing them. Even if the workshop is about something which is new to the participants, you can still encourage them to draw on their life experiences instead of telling them everything. For example, you might start an 'introduction to mediation' workshop by encouraging participants to reflect on their experiences of conflict in their own lives. Facilitation is also about taking responsibility for other factors which enable people to learn. A comfortable venue, enough breaks, helping create a safe space and good time keeping are all part of facilitating learning. This can be a lot to think about all at once, and some people choose to share the facilitation role. More tips on cofacilitation can be found below.

How people learn

Before you start planning your workshop, give some thought to the ways that people learn. Below, we have laid out a few of the ideas and pointers that we have found most useful. The best way to understand this subject, however, is to watch and listen to the people who come to your workshops and learn from them. No two groups will be the same, and over time you will develop your own ideas about how best to support different people's learning.

Remembering what we've learnt

If you want someone to know something, you may think that the best option is simply to tell them. However, it can be hard to concentrate on listening and remember things that are said to us. As the diagram demonstrates, most people learn more if you back up what you said with visuals. It's better still if the participants play an active role like talking about the topic, and best of all if they actively take part in a lifelike experience, such as a practical session or role play.

Implications for facilitation

The ideal is to design activities which give people a 'lifelike' experience for everything in your workshop. For example, if you're teaching people how to fix a bike puncture, they will probably need to practice it themselves before they can remember the procedure. However, sometimes there isn't enough time to practice everything, or your topic may be quite abstract, making it more difficult to give people 'real' experiences. In these cases, visual aids and getting participants to talk things through will help them remember more. For example, in a workshop called 'understanding climate chaos' you could give participants questions to answer in small groups, back up your presentations with images and find ways for them to relate the information to their own experience.

Long term memory

If participants are to continue reflecting on and learning from what happened in your workshop, they need to transfer the new knowledge into their long term memory. As the diagram above shows, getting participants active and involved is key. It also makes a massive difference if you revisit ideas instead of just covering them once.

Implications for facilitation

In order to keep people engaged you need to find ways of revisiting content without the workshop becoming repetitive. Cover the same skill or set of ideas in different contexts, so people can think about and apply what they have just learnt. For example, in a wild food foraging workshop you might learn some technical vocabulary to describe the leaves of one plant, and revise that vocabulary looking for the same type of leaves in other plants. You could also use quizzes or games to revisit knowledge or give people handouts and a list of further reading.

Making the most of experiences

While people are more likely to remember things if they involve a 'real' experience, experience on its own won't get us very far. We also need to reflect on our experiences and make 'generalizations' about them.

In this context, generalization means formulating our knowledge in a way that we can apply it to other situations. If we make a loaf of bread which doesn't rise we might remember the experience of making it, but decide it is easier to go to the bakery next time! However, if we think through how we made it (reflection), and work out what we need to do differently next time (generalization), we will have learnt something much more useful.

We describe this as a cycle because we can start at any point and repeat the process many times, but the order in which we go through it tends to be the same.

Using the bread example, we start with a recipe (generalization), make the bread (experience), think about why it didn't rise (reflection), decide we need to leave it somewhere warmer (generalization) and try again (experience).

Implications for facilitation

You can use this learning cycle to check whether your workshop plan enables participants to make progress. Where you start in the cycle will depend on the subject matter. If you are teaching people how to do hang-gliding, you might not want to start them off with the real experience of jumping off a cliff!

Instead you would begin with giving a lot of information about the right way to do it (generalization). Then you would let them gain experience in a controlled situation on the ground, and help them reflect on what they were doing. Only after all this would you let them do it for real. In other, less critical situations, you can let people have a go first before providing any explanation. People could try out using chopsticks (experience). Then you could ask them to reflect on what worked or didn't work, and why (reflection). Then you could ask someone to demonstrate a successful method (generalization) and then let people try it again (experience).

Here are some tips on how to bring each element of the cycle into the workshop plan:

Experience: The experience element of your workshop often takes the most time, and is crucial for learning. Sometimes it'll be possible to *actually* do it for real, e.g. making a bike trailer or climbing a tree. At other times you'll need to create conditions as close as possible to the real deal, for example through using role play.

Reflection provides an opportunity for participants to think about what they did and what the effects were. This can be done through building on experiences from the workshop or real life. This might be as simple as checking whether they've tied their knot right, exploring how they felt in a role play or considering how they interact with authority figures in their own lives. Make time for a debrief after any role play or practical activity and work out in advance what questions would be useful to ask.

Generalization: Generalizing turns our reflections on a specific situation into abstract understanding that can be applied to other contexts.

Often this will be integrated into the reflection process. Whenever we think about an experience we automatically start formulating rules or generating ideas for how we might do it next time. For example, when observing that a kestrel is using the wind to hover, you then assume that other kestrels are likely to do the same, and use this information to identify them in future. The generalization element could also consist of a presentation or demonstration from you – for example showing people how to wire up a circuit before they have a go themselves, or feeding in some extra tips after a debrief. You can reinforce this process by writing down the general rules people have created, or giving people a chance to try the role play/practice again and apply the rules – in other words, go round the cycle again.

Learning styles

We all learn and remember things, but differences in life experiences and in how our brains process and store information mean we all do these things in different ways. Below we have provided a summary of insights into this as well as tips on how to use them as facilitators. The key is to build in variety, and not just provide the kinds of activities you would enjoy.

The senses

Some people find it easier to understand and remember things that they find out about through one particular sense, e.g. visual (sight), auditory (hearing) or tactile/kinaesthetic (touch and movement).

You give all participants the best chance of concentrating on and remembering something if they can access the ideas through their eyes, ears and bodies.

Implications for facilitation

For the most important things in your workshop, include all the senses in the learning experiences. For example, you might have health and safety procedures written down, and read aloud, and give participants the chance to practice. Otherwise, just aim to provide a good balance overall.

Examples of how to support **visual learning** include writing things up on flipchart, providing pictures and charts, showing a film, demonstrating a task. Visual learners benefit from having instructions for an activity written down, and might want to take notes.

You can support **auditory learning** with lectures, discussions, music, poetry, and opportunities to talk through ideas and listen to other people.

Strong auditory learners might need to read information aloud to turn written words into something they can process.

Support **tactile/kinaesthetic learning** by giving people a chance to do, move and touch. These experiences are easy to provide in a practical workshop, but more difficult with an abstract topic. For this reason conventional education is often less accessible to strong tactile/kinaesthetic learners. However, there are simple things you can do to help. Try movement based activities like active games, spectrum lines, hassle lines and role-plays. Make information heavy sections more movement based, for example get people to arrange ideas on cut up pieces of paper, or set up paired conversations where participants change partners for each question. Even changing seats will help some people maintain concentration.

Feeling safe and confident

We learn best when we feel safe – it means we are more able to take risks, and more willing to try out things and explore new ideas. Different life experiences, personalities and cultural expectations mean that what makes us feel safe varies from person to person, so remember that

what might help you feel safe might be different for your participants. Here are a few factors to consider:

Help participants to get to know each other.

Build a positive, trusting atmosphere by helping participants to get to know each other a bit. At the start of the workshop you could ask them to introduce themselves in pairs or in a go round and say what interests them about the subject of the workshop. Small group tasks, games and breaks also help participants feel more comfortable with each other.

Vary group sizes. Many people find it easier to express themselves in a pair or small group, and don't like to join full group discussions. However, there are also people who feel more exposed and put on the spot in a smaller group, and prefer more impersonal bigger groups.

Be aware of how confident participants are with the subject. Some participants might be totally new to your subject, so be careful with making presumptions about their previous knowledge. For example, someone who feels insecure about their practical skills might very quickly give up on a 'fix your own bike' workshop if you assume that they already know how to use the tools, and skip this basic information. Similarly someone who is not into formal education might switch off very quickly if you use academic language. Avoid or explain technical terms, and be ready to explain things you think are basic, like how to get more leverage on a spanner, or what you mean by patriarchy.

Check your cultural assumptions. When you use examples and cultural references, speak to the real life experiences of all your participants, otherwise people will feel excluded and disengage from the workshop. Do you assume that everyone will pick up on references to your favorite TV programme, that a 'couple' means a man and a woman and that everyone in your catering workshop is vegan? Think before you open your mouth, and step in if some of the participants talk or act in ways which might alienate others.

Make sure activities are accessible. Think about how people with access issues, (e.g. wheelchair users or people with hearing impairments) will be able to join in your activities. If possible, ask participants before the workshop whether they have specific access needs. This can be especially helpful for participants with invisible impairments, for example people on the autistic spectrum, or those who are hard of hearing. If you have people in the workshop who don't share your first language, take extra care to express yourself clearly, and encourage them to interrupt at any point to ask for an explanation.

Also see our briefings *Access Issues at Meetings* and *A Facilitator's Guide to Making Meetings Accessible.*

Build trust in your role as facilitator. Participants might project the image of a school teacher onto you – help them realise that it is more empowering, and that they will learn more if they work things out for themselves rather than expecting to be spoonfed answers. Build trust by being honest about what the workshop can deliver, be respectful about your participants' opinions (whether you agree with them or not), keep to time, treat everyone as equals regardless of whether you know or like some of them better than others.

Preparing for a workshop

Working out the content

To be effective you need a clear idea of what you want to achieve with your workshop. Sometimes this will come mainly from you – if you know what key information or skills you want to help people learn. In this case make sure any publicity is clear about what the workshop will involve, so people know what to expect. At other times the workshop will be in response to requests from the participants.

In this case you need to find out as much as you can about their expectations. Ideally ask the organizer and consult participants in advance so you have time to prepare something that meets their needs.

You can also check participants' expectations and experience at the beginning of the workshop, and see how they match with the workshop plan you have prepared. However, don't raise hopes that you will change your plan to suit their expectations if that's not possible. With practice you

will become better at adapting quickly in response to the group's expectations. In a longer workshop you may be able to check that you're meeting expectations at the end of the first day, or after a lunch break.

The workshop plan

By preparing a workshop plan (sometimes called an agenda or running order) in advance, you can make sure that you are covering a realistic amount in the available time, and that you include activities that will help people learn. A well prepared plan can make a big difference to your confidence, because you'll go in knowing when you're doing what, and why.

It's also likely to make the experience more enjoyable and productive for both you and the participants.

Aims

The first step is working out the learning aims for the workshop. What content do you want to cover and what do you want people to learn? The workshop aims are what you want to have achieved by the end of the workshop, for example, 'participants will be able to make a button hole' or 'participants will have a better understanding of the impacts of racism in their community center'. Be as precise as possible. Do you want people to recognize different knitting stitches, understand how they work, be able to do them or all three? If you have to change your plans during the workshop, clear aims can help you check that what you are doing is still useful. Don't have more aims than you can keep in your head, and write them at the top of your plan as a reminder.

Which activities in which order?

Next you need to develop exercises and activities to achieve your learning aims. You also want to think about how the different activities or exercises will fit together as a whole. Just like a good story, a workshop has a beginning, a middle and an end. The beginning is usually for participants to introduce themselves to one another, and relax enough to be ready to learn.

The middle is usually the main section of the workshop where the learning takes place, and the end is the time to tie up loose ends and get ready to apply this new learning to life.

The previous section provides ideas for creating a workshop plan which enables people to concentrate on, learn and remember things. Make sure that every activity has a clear purpose. It can be very tempting to throw in activities simply because they are participatory and fun, however people don't just come to workshops to have a good time. Energisers and icebreakers should be kept short, leaving the bulk of the workshop to address your core aims.

Look at the balance of activities and don't have very similar exercises coming in clumps. For example, if people have just done a paired listening exercise, next you could put them into small groups and that could be followed with solo reflection with postit notes. This keeps each activity fresh. Also remember to check that your activities follow the learning cycle.

Timing

Be realistic about what you can cover in the time you have. It is usually better to give people hands on exercises and reinforcement that enables them to learn one thing properly than rush them through loads of material that they will have forgotten before they have a chance to apply it. When working out timings for each exercise, remember to allow extra time as necessary. For example, the activity might be a paired chat for ten minutes, but you probably need to add on another five minutes for you to give the instructions, and for the participants to find a partner and a pen and forget what they were supposed to be talking about(!)

Do build some flexibility into your plan, in case an exercise takes longer than planned. Work out which exercises are less important and easiest to cut if you run out of time. You could also plan some extra practice in case everything is going quicker than planned.

Planning activities in detail

As well as considering how the whole workshop fits together, think about exactly how each activity will work, what you are trying to achieve with it and how you will explain it to the participants.

Aims: just as with the overall agenda, work out for each exercise what you want to get out of it, both in terms of learning and group dynamics. If an activity doesn't fit your aims, save it for another workshop.

Group sizes: what kind of grouping will work for this exercise? The groups that people work in have a major impact on how different people participate. For example, whole group sessions can be more efficient if 1 or 2 people have information to share with the rest of the group.
Pairs and small groups can make it easier for more people to be actively involved at the same time.
Giving instructions: giving good, concise and clear explanations for how to do activities is an important skill. If the activity involves several stages, consider backing up your spoken instructions with all the steps written down, or demonstrating the activity. When participants have started the exercise it is worth going round all the groups to check they are doing what you expect them to.
Facilitator input: if you are giving the participants input from your own knowledge or experience, strip down what you want to say to a small number of important points. Break it up so they don't have to listen to you for more than five or ten minutes at any one time. Think about how you can present the information in a way that fits different people's learning styles, e.g. backing up what you are saying with visuals or activities.
Questions: think about what questions you can use to draw out participants' learning, and how you might respond to questions they throw at you. If you are hoping that participants will pool their knowledge in order to learn more about something then it's worth having a list of important points to add in case they aren't covered by participants.
Preempting problems: try to predict the kinds of things that might go wrong with the activity, for example which bits the participants might struggle to understand. Decide whether you want to preempt these problems by giving people tips.
Alternatively, be prepared to draw these things out in the debrief.
Practical preparations
Practicalities are also important in making your workshop more participatory, focused and enjoyable:
The workshop space should be comfortable, with plenty of natural light and air circulation and a comfortable temperature. The space should be set up to encourage participation – a circle of chairs works well – everyone can see each other and there is no automatic hierarchy in a circle.
We prefer to clear the circle of any tables, as this creates less of a boardroom atmosphere and is more practical for breaking into small groups.
It pays to check any equipment that you or the participants will be using. This may just be about your workshop running smoothly – it can be very annoying spending ages preparing some slides and then finding the projector doesn't work. It can also be about having enough tools and equipment for everyone to participate – there's no point in running a carpentry workshop where only one person out of six has a sharp saw. Most importantly it can be about safety – knowing the history of any climbing harnesses you hand out to people, for example. Beg and borrow, or limit the numbers in your workshop so that you have the right equipment for everyone.
Make sure food and drink are suitable for the group. Consider ethical concerns, food allergies and religious or cultural needs. Having tea and coffee breaks slows a workshop down, so if you want it short and focused, it might be best to give it a miss, wait until afterwards, or just have a jug of water and cups available.

Having said that, in a longer workshop, ignore breaks at your peril! People don't learn effectively when they're tired, gasping for a drink, or desperate for the toilet, so aim for a break roughly every one and half to two hours. Be realistic as to how long the break will take – if there are twenty participants and one toilet, ten minutes won't be enough.
Workshop times– will people need to leave in a hurry? If so make sure important information or discussion happens towards the start of the workshop, or make extra sure you finish on time.
Consider how start and end times fit with public transport if people are travelling to the event.
Think about how to make your workshop accessible to as many people as possible. Check whether your space is suitable for wheelchair users or people with other access needs. Are there other practical preparations you can make to help people access your workshop? Also see our briefings
Access Issues at Meetings and A Facilitator's Guide to Making Meetings Accessible.

Preparing yourself – confidence

It's natural to be nervous before and during a workshop, and some adrenalin can be useful to keep you on your toes. However, feeling confident about your workshop will help both you and your participants enjoy it more. The first and most important step is to have prepared your workshop well so you know it is well designed and you are prepared for things which might go wrong. Rehearsing the whole workshop with a couple of friends can help a lot. You can also run through what you are going to say in key sections by yourself – maybe the workshop introduction, any presentational sections and the introductions to the more complicated activities. Get participants involved right away with energizers and introductory go rounds. If they are warmed up and more relaxed it'll help you too. Try practicing deep breathing: if you feel yourself getting nervous take a couple of deep, slow breaths and feel your feet on the ground.
Making mistakes is an important part of becoming a better facilitator. Accept that it's inevitable and commit yourself to learning from them. Bear in mind that the participants won't be aware of most of the mistakes you make, and that an activity that doesn't work for one person will probably be just right for someone else. Being confident doesn't mean the same as being perfect.

Facilitating Workshops

Tools to aid equal participation
Be clear at the start that you want and welcome everyone's participation. Acknowledge that some people speak more than others, and ask people to be aware of their own and each other's participation– to make space for all voices to be heard.
Saying this once won't be enough – use tools which help people to participate such as:
Hand signals to create a queue for contributions.
Tweak your queue to ensure it's not just the same people getting to speak. If you do this, make sure you explain why: I'm going to start with the people who haven't spoken yet...
Small groups or pairs to give more people the chance to speak and break up existing power dynamics. If you're getting feedback from small group work, ask for a new reporter each time.
Have a go round to give everyone an equal space to express themselves. However, be careful not to put anyone on the spot. Make it possible for people to pass and say nothing if they don't want to. You could use a Group Agreement at the beginning to set the tone for what is, and is not, acceptable behavior.

Workshop facilitation skills

This section gives an overview of some of the skills involved in facilitating a good workshop. Every workshop is different, so not all these points will be relevant – use your own judgment and work out your own ways of making things work.

Active listening (For more on active listening see our Short Guide on Active Listening).
Active listening is a key facilitation skill: it's when we proactively look and listen for what someone else is trying to communicate, while trying not to project our own thoughts and expectations onto them. In workshops it is vital for working out what participants already know and think about the topic. This means you can adapt the workshop to their needs, deal with anything you think they have misunderstood, and avoid wasting time telling them things they already know.
Show that you're listening. Be aware of how body language such as an interested facial expression and maintaining good eye contact helps participants feel valued. Avoid signs of impatience such as looking at your watch, or flicking through your notes. Try not to fake it! You might have half a mind on figuring out how to save time in the next exercise, but you do also need to focus on what someone is trying to say.

Summarizing

Summarizing is closely related to active listening. You can show people that you've heard them properly, and have understood their point by rephrasing the core of what they said and offering it back to them. It's important that you don't simply repeat what they said word for word, but show that you've understood any emotion or key concepts they've expressed.
A good summary not only shows participants that you have listened, but is also an effective way to check whether you've understood them. Offer the summary tentatively – use phrases such as:
What I hear you saying is... is that right? or:
Would it be fair to say that you feel...?
If you restate in bold terms such as: so you feel that...or: you believe...and you're wrong, not only does it show that you haven't been listening, but you risk offending the speaker by misrepresenting them. Summarize succinctly – learn how to boil things down into one or two short sentences. This is essential if your summary is going to make things clearer and help people move forward.

Asking questions

Questioning is a technique often used by facilitators during workshops as an alternative to presenting information and giving answers.
Asking the group a question or series of questions can enable them to find their own solutions and puts them in control of their own learning. Effective, well planned questioning can support people to reflect on and learn from their experiences.
Ways of asking questions
Here are some strategies for ensuring your questioning gets good results:
Have a clear aim.
What learning are you trying to achieve? When you are planning the activity, prepare questions that reflect this.
Think about how the words you choose will impact on the answers that you get. For example, there's a big difference between "How did you feel?" and "What did you think?". Do you want participants to discuss emotion and experience (the
Asking questions – an example:
You want to help an inexperienced group gain some skills at giving media interviews.
You could give them a presentation on top tips for interviews. Or you could ask them questions: "Think of an interview you've seen or heard recently – did the interviewee come across well? ... Why? What made the interview a success? ... What was it about the way they spoke that made them sound so well informed? ... Anything else? ... What did they do that was less successful? ... What do you think might have worked better instead? OK, so to summarize, you think that a good interview..."first question), or ideas and opinions (the second question)?

Use open questions when you want to open up and explore issues. Use them to draw people out and to let participants direct what is to be discussed. Open questions are questions that cannot be answered by a simple “yes” or “no” answer. They start with words such as Why...? or What happened...?

Closed questions generally invite a “yes”, “no” or “don’t know” answer. There is a place for closed questions when you want to clarify points, get information quickly or when you want to deliberately restrict options, for example “Would you like to stop now, or go on for another 15 minutes?” excludes the possibility of going on for more than 15 minutes. Whereas the open question: “How much longer do you need?” could leave you carrying on for another hour or more!

Giving feedback

Feedback helps people learn from their experiences. Sometimes participants can offer feedback to each other, but the facilitator’s contribution can be vital. You have the benefit of preparation and probably a better knowledge of the topic, and that will help make sure participants come away with something useful. Plan in debrief sessions at the end of practical activities and roleplays, and be ready to offer feedback to participants throughout the workshop.

Positive feedback

It helps to start with the positive feedback– many of us aren’t very good at recognizing our own abilities, so it’s important to tell people what their strengths are so they can build on them. Giving positive feedback first also helps make people more receptive to being told what could be improved.

Specific feedback is more helpful. If we say something general like “

That was brilliant! People often don’t believe us. If you try to pinpoint what the person did and what effect it had then you are providing the whole group with strategies they can use in future. So, for example, rather than “

You did well”, try “

When you transplanted the seedlings you left plenty of soil round their roots, which means they are more likely to survive.”

If you’re giving feedback to a group, direct comments at named individuals were appropriate. We learn better when feedback is made relevant to us: “

Joanna, you followed the safety procedure well when you checked your knot before beginning to climb.”

Negative feedback

Don’t shy away from negative feedback– it is very useful for learning.

Think carefully about how you offer it though. First of all work out whether you have really spotted someone doing or saying something that is ‘wrong’ or do they just have a different idea from you? Next decide whether it is in the interests of the group for you to point it out. Finally work out how to bring it up. Be very clear whether you are offering a personal impression, a difference of opinion or something you are factually sure about. Starting with the word I can show you know your impressions are subjective: “

I felt that your clenched fists made you come across as aggressive.”

Telling people where your information comes from can help them trust you and make it seem less personal: “I checked the HMRC website this morning, and in fact what the law says is...”

Again, the more specific you can be the better. Limit your comments to criticizing what people did and not who they are. There’s a world of difference between saying “

You didn’t secure your harness,” and “You’re a liability!”

Negative feedback is most useful if you can follow it up with ideas about how things could be done differently. For example, “You held the seedlings by the stem – doing this can more easily damage the plant than if you hold it by the leaves.”

Debriefing – an example:
You have run a roleplay on bullying in the workplace. You might start by asking all the participants and observers what they noticed themselves doing and how it felt. Follow up by digging deeper to help them reflect on the experience:
Was there anything in particular that you found humiliating? What was it about the way Katie responded that you wished you had done too?
Then finally: Can you draw out a list of tips that help you feel assertive? Is there anything you intend to try out in your relations with your own manager?

Facilitating roleplays

If you are running a practical workshop it is usually quite easy to work out how to get people practicing new skills 'for real'. Pruning an apple tree or installing Linux on a computer. However, with other skills like dealing with sexual harassment or offering counseling you will probably need to rely on roleplays to give people an experience to reflect on. Because it doesn't matter if people make a mistake in these practice sessions it's a safe space to practice skills and receive feedback.
In a roleplay a scenario is set up and participants are asked to act out different roles that are relevant to the subject matter and specific aims of the workshop, e.g. playing the part of the police in a 'know your legal rights' workshop. Alternatively, you can get people acting as themselves in a new role or situation, for example trying out facilitation in a 'how to have better meetings' workshop.
Some people recoil from the idea of a roleplay – remind them that playing roles can offer useful insights into someone else's perspective on a situation. At the same time, make it clear that participation is voluntary and that there are useful observer roles for those that prefer to avoid an active part.
There are three stages to facilitating roleplay: setting up, running the activity and debriefing.
When setting up you clearly explain the scenario (and possibly the geography of the space) to participants and ask for volunteers for the various roles. It's a good idea to give role players a bit of time to get into character. You might give them a quick briefing, or provide role cards with a short description of their character, e.g. their key concerns or issues, or some examples of the kinds of thing they might say.
Ensure you give appropriate 'health and safety' warnings if the activity is likely to get physical.
In very intense activities you may need to use a whistle to stop the action as people may be so Involved they don't hear you shout.
Alternatively, you could agree a safety word – if anyone shouts the word then the roleplay will stop immediately. Obviously it should be a distinctive word that is unlikely to come up in that roleplay.
Running the activity: announce the start of the activity and allow the action to run until: you have got all the learning out of the activity, participants have run out of steam, you run out of time, someone is becoming distressed, the action is getting a bit tough and injuries look possible or there's a natural moment to break.
When you stop the activity give people a chance to recover before you start the debrief. Some activities are very physical and people may need to get their breath back and replenish their blood sugar, or get a drink. They may also need to get out of role and let go of any strong emotions. You will need to judge the level of 'deroleing' required, depending on the intensity of the roleplay. A few options are: a 10 minute break, a quick energizer, a few deep breaths, shaking hands and exchanging a few words with the other participants or a visualization that takes people's attention elsewhere (e.g. to a pleasant memory).
The final stage is debriefing, which is probably the most important aspect of the activity. It gives participants a chance to reflect on their experience, to process their learning and to think

about how they will apply it in real life situations, so do allow plenty of time. Rather than just having a free discussion, ask the group a series of questions that will help them get the best learning from the experience. We find the following stages useful when debriefing.
How did you feel?
Start by asking people how they felt during the role play. What happened?
Then ask questions about what happened. What did people notice?
What can you learn from it?
Next encourage discussion.
Help participants work out the implications of what happened and how they felt.
Can you think of any reasons why you felt or acted that way?
Which of the things you said or did were most effective? Can you see any patterns emerging?
How will you apply it?
Ask questions about how this learning can be applied to new situations.
Is there anything you want to do differently next time? What tips do you want to bear in mind for the future?
If it's useful, make notes on a flipchart or write up the debrief.
Writing up contributions
Even if you don't use blackboard and chalk, you may feel like a school teacher when you write up participants' contributions. However, it is a very simple and useful way of helping people concentrate and remember so it is worth doing and getting it right.
Practical Points
There's no point using visual aids if people can't see them, or can't hear you talking. So, talk to the group, not to the paper! It's better to pause whilst you write than lose what you're saying in the process of writing. You could also ask your cofacilitator or one of the group to write for you. Ask if everyone can see the writing. If not, either move the flipchart or ask participants to move. Your flips will also be easier to read if you write neatly in lower case letters and make sure you write big enough.
Writing up the groups' contributions
When writing up comments use your active listening skills to accurately summarize and restate the comments made. Make sure you check with the person who made the comment, as you may have misunderstood. Don't show any favoritism – value all contributions equally and write down all comments. If there's a reason why you're not writing something down (because it's already on the paper, for example, or it's incorrect) explain it to the group.
Helping people remember
Use headings: they help us build mental associations, so we can remember and 'file' our learning appropriately. Instead of linear lists, you could use spider diagrams or mind maps – they can be easier to remember, and make it easier to cluster different contributions. Using color and pictures also helps people focus and remember. If color contrast is important then be aware of color blindness – ask the group if any particular combinations are a problem, or, if preparing in advance, avoid putting green and red together because this is the combination which most often causes difficulties.
Working out what the group wants
Help the group to be in control of their learning experience by offering them choices, for example: Do you feel the need for a break? or Would you like to practice that again or are you ready to move on?
However, by posing these questions to the group as a whole there is a danger that you only get to hear the most confident voices, or that participants spend more time trying to agree what to do than doing it. You could present the group with a limited range of options and use a 'temperature check'
or other quick prioritization tools to get a quick sense of how everyone feels about each one.

Alternatively base your decisions on your own observation of the group rather than asking them outright – if you can see people flagging you can probably guess that they need a break, and if you have watched them doing an exercise you can make a good guess as to whether they need more practice or not.

Co-facilitation

Cofacilitation means sharing the work of running a workshop. This might involve simply asking someone to take on a particular role in a particular exercise: timekeeping for example, or welcoming late arrivals (see cofacilitation roles below). Alternatively, it might mean working together with someone else to prepare, deliver and evaluate the workshop. This can make the prospect of running a workshop less daunting if you are new to it, and is a good way to share your skills if you are an old hand.

However, cofacilitation isn't always straightforward and easy. It can be a real test for your communication skills. It is best to be clear about who has responsibility for what at all times, whether that means alternating activities or assigning a particular role to one person: writing things up, for example. Even if one person has taken on planning an activity, make sure you both have a shared understanding of why it is there, and how to make it work so you can support each other if necessary

Troubleshooting in workshops

A workshop can involve unexpected and difficult situations that you'll need to deal with. Sometimes these are unforeseen practical problems, like fire alarm practice in the building. At other times they're down to group dynamics or behavior. We can't include every possible scenario here, but we have provided some general rules, as well as tips for dealing with common situations.

Give yourself time to think

Don't forget that as the facilitator of a workshop you can ask for what you need in order to better serve the group. If things are going wrong then don't feel you have to think entirely on your feet while you maintain a smooth 'performance'. Acknowledge that things aren't working the way you planned and offer the group a quick break while you think it through or chat to your cofacilitator.

Ask the group...

As well as checking that you're meeting their expectations, you can use the group to solve other problems. If a session isn't going as smoothly as planned, or energy levels are low, you could ask the group what they want to do about it. Be aware though that working out what everyone wants isn't always straightforward – sometimes presenting them with a narrow range of options can be easier than asking open questions. Never be afraid to admit your fallibility, and move on to the next exercise if the group isn't engaging with the current one – make sure to capture relevant learning first!

...but don't blame the group

It is easy to get frustrated when your workshop isn't going to plan, especially if you feel that it is being derailed by the behavior of one or two individuals.

In this situation it is vital to remember that the problem is someone's behavior and not them as a person. It's also important to realize that they're rarely deliberately making life difficult for you or the group.

We can often deal with problems more effectively if we take a step back and consider what the apparently 'difficult' individual might need and whether we can offer it to them. We all bring a number of needs and wishes with us, whenever we work in a group, for example the need to be acknowledged, to connect with others, to learn something new. We usually can't provide long term solutions to these needs in a workshop, but we can often help make someone's experience better. For example, if some participants look bored during long

presentations then a quick energizer and some more interactive activities might be all they need to get them interested again.
Some examples of common problems you might face:

Dealing with over-participation

You might find yourself faced with a small number of participants who dominate discussions. You can reduce the impact of this by planning your workshops with lots of tools for increasing participation. If you are having a full group discussion a simple tactic is to tell the group that you are prioritizing contributions from people who haven't spoken much yet.
Sometimes, people will dominate because the workshop isn't meeting their needs. For example, you may be faced with someone who constantly interrupts to make their point, or who returns to the same subject over and over again, even though the discussion has moved on. These can be signs that your participant doesn't feel that they've been heard and their opinion valued. Taking the time to actively listen and to offer a tentative restatement of their point can be all that is needed to help them move on. Bear in mind, though, that while some people are able to speak succinctly on a topic, others need longer to express themselves. Avoid jumping in with your summary too soon and try to foster patience for people who need a bit more time to get their ideas out....or under-participation
Some people might not join in with discussions or other activities. This may not be a problem – they have chosen to be there and may learn well in an observer role. However, it may be that they want to participate more, and you could make it easier for them by changing what you are doing.
Facilitation tools like paired listening and gorounds give everyone a chance to have their say. icebreakers and energizers to help people warm up, and make sure you challenge any aggressive or dominating behavior so that other people can feel safe.
Sometimes it will be one particular exercise that isn't working. Has everyone understood what they're supposed to be doing? Have you given them a rationale for doing it? Or perhaps you simply need to move on to something else? In all of these cases ask the group!
Is anyone confused at the moment about what we're doing?...
Is this exercise working for you? If not we can easily move on.
Don't be afraid to ask for a few minutes to reorganize your plans!

Working with a skeptical group

So what can you do when there are people in the group who are skeptical about the subject of this particular workshop, or the way you're facilitating? Firstly, check your group's expectations near the start of the workshop. Hopefully you'll find that you've prepared a workshop that's relevant to this group. If your plan doesn't meet people's expectations, at least you'll know, and can either change things if possible, or else suggest that people might want to leave.
It can help to explain at the start of each activity what you are aiming to achieve with it, and how it fits in with the overall aims of the workshop. If you can't (because, for example, the exercise needs them to come to it with an unprejudiced mind) explain this to them and make it clear that the rationale will become obvious.
Acknowledge any skepticism – don't just ignore it and hope it'll go away! You can be explicit–
I know some of you aren't sure how this workshop will help, but this is how I think it might be useful...
Trust your workshop preparation – you've checked that it meets all the needs of a good learning experience. If you evaluate exercises regularly, you know what works and what doesn't. Be confident – not easy when faced with skepticism – but do it anyway!
Getting different numbers from those you planned for

It’s not uncommon to plan a workshop for 12 people and then find that only six show up, or vice versa. Do whatever you can in advance to find out how many people are likely to come. When preparing, work out how you can adapt activities to deal with different numbers, or whether at a certain point you might cancel, or run the workshop twice in smaller groups. Often this is as simple as having some extra resources just in case a bigger group turns up, and being ready to do things as a whole group if there aren’t enough people to break up into smaller ones. Sometimes you may have planned an exercise that you just don’t see working with this number of people. Go back to the aims of the exercise – what were you hoping to achieve? How can you achieve those ends with this number of participants? It may mean you have to fall back on more traditional methods, such as idea storms, gorounds and whole group discussion – this is fine. As long as you keep the energy of the group up your plan should still work.

Late arrivals

When you are running workshops in informal settings it is very common for people to arrive late. One way to get round this is to state clearly beforehand that the workshop will start promptly, and/or give some encouragement to be punctual, e.g. tea and coffee. Especially if you are feeling nervous you may be tempted to wait until more people have arrived. In this situation you could check what the people who have arrived on time want to do. They might prefer to wait until everyone is there, or prefer to get the benefit of the full workshop you had planned. However, if it was clearly stated that the workshop will start on time, feel free to get going, particularly if you know that starting late would be detrimental to the workshop.

When people arrive late you need to find a balance between welcoming them and disrupting the workshop for everybody else. What you do will depend a lot on what’s going on in the workshop when they walk in. If it is a small group activity, you could assign them to a group and ask the other participants to fill them in on what they have missed, or you could take the time to give them a quick summary yourself. If they arrive in the middle of you talking to the whole group, just acknowledge them with a smile until you reach a good moment to pause and welcome them, and then later take them aside and offer a brief rundown of what they have missed.

Getting your timing wrong

Working out how long activities are going to take is always a guessing game, especially when you first start running workshops. During the workshop keep checking the time and if it is obvious that you are getting through things too quickly, or (more likely) too slowly, then allow yourself a moment to work out what to do about it.

If an activity is taking longer than you expected, but is providing useful learning that meets your aims, then you may want to cut something short later in the workshop. An example is doing an exercise as a whole group rather than splitting into pairs and feeding back.

In less obvious cases go back to the aims of the workshop, and decide which activities are most crucial for achieving these aims. You may decide to offer the group some choices of what to do and what to cut, but beware spending as long deciding what to do as you would have done doing it.

Even though you might be feeling anxious about the time, avoid making people feel rushed as this would have a negative effect on the quality of their learning.

Technical hitches

Check all equipment and venue practicalities before you start your workshop, and have backup plans that don’t depend on technology. If something does go wrong unexpectedly, see if people can achieve the aims of the planned activity in a different way. For example, you might have planned to use some film clips as a starting point for small group discussions, but you might be able to offer them a verbal summary of the films instead. Or your participants were going to practice wiring an electrical circuit individually, instead of which you could put

them in pairs. Don't hesitate to explain the situation to your participants, and ask how they would like to deal with it. For example, one of them might have the technical knowledge to fix your computer, or know someone who could do it while you got on with a different activity. Sometimes it might be better to reschedule the workshop entirely.

Evaluation

Evaluating the workshop together with the group allows you to check that the workshop has met the group's expectations and gives you ideas for improvement.

Build at least five minutes evaluation time into each workshop plan. Don't just evaluate the content. Ask questions about the quality of your facilitation, whether you met expectations, the pace and length of the workshop, etc. You can also ask if there are other workshops the group would like. Here are three evaluation tools: GoRound / shout out– ask participants to say things that worked well and things that didn't – ask them to be honest, as it'll help you learn how to do it better next time. Be open to criticism – listen for what went wrong and how they think you could improve. You can reflect later on whether you agree or not. More of ... Less of .. the same...

Divide a flip chart into three columns: more, less and the same. Hand out pens and ask participants to write down things that worked well for them in the 'same' column, things they wanted to see less of, e.g. 'use of jargon' and more of e.g. 'chances to practice new skills'. Encourage people to include reasons for what they are saying and then leave them to it to encourage honesty.

Evaluation form– prepare a form that has room for comments and maybe a way to score different aspects of the session. Evaluation forms take a bit longer to fill in, but you can glean more information than with other methods. Phrase questions neutrally. Encourage people to fill it in straight away, or you will never get it back. NB: take lots of pens with you – that way No one has an excuse not to fill it in there and then!

Facilitator's debrief

Debriefing workshops is essential for learning from our mistakes and improving future workshops.

You can do it on your own, with your cofacilitator if you have one, or with someone else. Debriefs are a great way to deal with any problems in communication between cofacilitators, and can be a very creative process. It's amazing how much of the detail you'll forget after a week, so do the debrief as soon as you can after the workshop. A suggestion for structuring your debrief:

1) Overall: what went well/less well?
2) How was the relationship with the cofacilitator?
3) Go through each exercise: what went well/less well? (Whoever facilitated the session gives their feedback first, then the facilitator offers feedback.)