Essentials for Differentiated English as Second Language (ESL) Instruction

M. Saravanapava Iyer, Ph.D.

Abstract

In most of the English as a Second Language classrooms input is supplied without considering and understanding learners by the teachers due to the administrative pressure and teachers’ ignorance. On many occasions, the task of the educational administrators is merely completing the syllabus before the end of the semester/year in order to conduct the semester-end examination/year-end examination without considering the quality of the outcome. Therefore, the effectiveness of the classroom input becomes questionable and in this particular situation, the achievement rate of the learners frequently indicates the insufficient proficiency level in any basic skills. In reality, it is an acceptable fact that every learner is unique in the classroom and their approach to language learning differs across individuals. Thus the classroom teaching system needs to be remodelled to cater to these learners’ requirements.

In order to provide adequate and appropriate insightful ideas, this article attempts to discuss some major facts pertinent to the differentiated instruction; therefore it chiefly aims to focus on how teachers can successfully investigate some major learner factors (internal/external) before they embark on to implement their teaching programme and also how successfully they can implement differentiated instruction.
Keywords: Differentiated instruction, learner factors, needs, proficiency level, learner centredness

1. Introduction

In English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom, some learners learn English faster and effortless compared to others; for these learners language learning is pleasurable and fun. Some other learners learn a language by hard work and endeavour. However, there are other sets of learners who learn a language very slowly. Experienced teachers may not deny that these types of variation in learning process among learners are common in the same classroom. Furthermore, the current evidences in the ESL scenario clearly show that a large number of learners are unable to accelerate their learning process due to many factors. In fact some of them are internal and others are external. Whether these factors are internal or external, undoubtedly they play a crucial role in deciding the pace of learning process. Most of them are beyond learners’ control. Therefore, in this situation teachers’ responsibility becomes significant. If language teachers are smart enough to investigate those factors properly and implement an appropriate differentiated teaching programme (classroom input) accordingly, major segment of the ESL learners can be liberated from those learning issues.

1.1. Differentiated Instruction - Definition

Differentiated instruction is widely recognized nowadays because of its effectiveness in mixed ability learning environments. Exactly it is not simply an introduction of different activities or strategies in ESL classrooms. It requires deeper level understanding of the learners and their needs with background knowledge. Ongoing evaluation has to be administered by the teacher to check the learning purposes and needs of the learners. In this situation, teachers have to become ethnographers and investigators. Teachers have to pay attention to make a better balance between their input/activities and learners’ desires.
Irujo (2004) presents adequate information relevant to differentiated instruction. This type of instruction is not individual coaching/training. All the learners learn the same in the classroom. They do it using different learning approaches based on their own learning preferences. The differentiated instruction has become popular in the field of ESL due to the influence of learner-factors in the learning process. Therefore, it is useful to discuss learner-factors at this moment.

1.2 Learner-factors

One of the major puzzles in the area of SLA is the issue of differences in achievement level of proficiency among learners. Language learners are diverse in learning another language, and in their approach to learning and their abilities. After recognizing the above concepts, slowly the notions of ‘learner-centred’, ‘student-centred’, and ‘personalized’ entered the field of second language teaching to shape the pattern of second language classroom instruction. This shift shows the centrality of the learner in the teaching-learning processes of a second language classroom. Advocates of this view suggest that, since learner factors have significant effect on learning, they have to be taken into account for the successful teaching and learning.

Among learner-factors, one of the most important aspects is age. With this factor there are bundles of other factors, which play a governing role in differences in achievement level of proficiency. For example, language aptitude of a learner, personality, attitude, motivation, individual variations, learning style, hemisphere dominance, learner strategies, are some of them. However, I do not attempt to maintain in this article that these are the only factors, which have an influence on differences in the achievement level of proficiency of a learner. Other factors also contribute in creating differences of achievement level of
proficiency in ESL across individuals (for example, genetic factors, gender, etc. are a few of them).

In his study, Kumaravadivelu (2006) presents a continuum to demonstrate learner factors. He names it “intake factors continuum” and interprets using an acronym, **INTAKE**: Individual factors, Negotiation factors, Tactical factors, Affective factors, Knowledge factors, and Environmental factors. He categorizes learner factors into two: learner internal factors and external learner factors.

**Intake factors continuum**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner internal Factors</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual ---------------</td>
<td>Age, anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective ---------------</td>
<td>Attitude, motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tactical ---------------</td>
<td>Learning strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication strategies</td>
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<tr>
<td>Knowledge ---------------</td>
<td>Language knowledge and Metalanguage knowledge</td>
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<tr>
<td>Negotiation --------------</td>
<td>Interaction, interpretation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Environmental ------------</td>
<td>Social context</td>
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<tr>
<td>Educational context</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Learner External factors

(Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 31)

I shall however, discuss briefly a number of the key factors, which appear to play relatively greater role than the others.

As mentioned previously, generally scholars classify learner factors into two: internal and external. Most of the internal factors are instinctive and they cannot be changed in the classroom since they are more or less permanent features. Internal factors are age and...
anxiety, aptitude, personality, affective (attitude & motivation), hemisphere dominance, 
learning style and cognitive style, experience and mother tongue influence. When learners 
come into the classroom, they bring these factors with them. On the other hand, external 
factors are curriculum/syllabus, style of instruction, learning strategies, learners’ culture and 
background knowledge, motivational strategy and native speakers contact situation; these 
variables can be modified by the teacher in order to make effective teaching.

Table – 1.2.1 – Learner factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal factors</th>
<th>External factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01. Age &amp; anxiety</td>
<td>Curriculum/syllabus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. Aptitude</td>
<td>Style of instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. Personality</td>
<td>Learning strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. Affective (Attitude &amp; motivation)</td>
<td>Culture and background knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04. Hemisphere dominance</td>
<td>Motivating strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05. Learning style &amp; cognitive style</td>
<td>Native speakers contact situation</td>
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<td>06. Experiences</td>
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<td>07. Mother tongue influence</td>
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</table>

1.3 Needs

In a second language course designing processes in general, needs assessment serves 
as a compass for a range of purposes. Needs analysis in the field of ESL may be employed for a 
number of diverse purposes, for example:

a) to recognize what type of language skill a learner requires

b) to accommodate learners’ available potentials

c) to identify learners who require special care in a particular skill

d) to recognize learners’ learning issues in any of the four skills

e) to establish learners’ profile
f) to identify learners’ desired language learning areas

g) to assess their abilities and disabilities to perform any of the language skills

h) to determine their background knowledge

i) to ascertain learners cognitive levels

j) to measure learners socio-political experience

k) to gauge the current proficiency level

l) to select the appropriate materials

Needs analysis was introduced into language teaching through the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) movement, approximately after 1960s. Pratt (1980) opines needs analysis as signifying a range of activities for recognizing and confirming learners’ needs, and choosing required needs according to preference for the construction of a language curriculum (Pratt, 1980). Large numbers of scholars have discussed needs analysis and its importance in the field of ESP, for example, Babar (1962); Selinker (1979); Long (2005); Munby (1978); Swales (1981). In the field of second language teaching, practitioners generally adopt two types of approaches while conducting needs analysis: (1) situation approach and (2) communicative needs analysis (Munby, 1978). This step is also very essential when we introduce differentiated instruction.

1.4 Proficiency Level

Investigating current proficiency level of the learners may not be an easy task for ESL practitioners. I prefer to use the term “investigation” rather than “entry-level exam” because entry-level examination will not mirror the true story of the learners’ proficiency level.
Investigation, in other words, is a process, which may take a week or two to make a reasonable judgment on the current proficiency level of the learners. Investigator has to employ different tools to achieve a fair judgement. For instance, entry-level examination, informal discussion, discussion with the group teacher, discussion with other subject teachers and peers are to name a few. Krashen’s (1985) input hypothesis $i + 1$ also confirms the necessity of recognizing the entry proficiency level of the learners; therefore, course designers have to set the cognitive level on par with +1 level (+1 is little beyond the current level of the learner). Together with these tactics, teachers can apply University Testing of English Language (UTEL) guidelines to identify the current proficiency level of their learners. UTEL is an accepted benchmark descriptors designed based on Sri Lankan context; this bench standard is accepted and recognized by the University Grant Commission (UGC), Sri Lanka.

1.5 Learner-Centredness

Currently unlike conventional ESL teaching method, all the teaching approaches give priority to the learner since teaching is for them. This approach places learners at the central position in the teaching and learning process. Learner-centredness exclusively lays emphasis on outcomes of the teaching-learning programme and considers that learners have the ability to recognize and discover novel ideas in the classroom with the help of their creative and innovative abilities. In the traditional classroom, teachers were the knowledge builders whereas, in the learner-centredness approach, learners are not considered as empty vessels and they are supposed to construct knowledge during teaching process collaboratively. They take charge of their own learning process in the classroom with the help of the teacher and peers. The teaching programme and method are supposed to promote and create learning environment in the classroom and learners are considered active dynamic partners in the teaching-learning process.
2. Differentiated Instruction - Classroom Implication

For the differentiated instruction, a teacher requires adequate time to investigate each learner and modify the activities to appropriate their needs and necessities. Tomlinson and Imbeau (2010) interpret the role of teachers during this type of instruction by presenting two questions:

1) "What does this student need at this moment in order to be able to progress with this key content, and
2) what do I need to do to make that happen?" (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010, p. 14).

Unlike conventional teaching method, teachers following differentiated instruction approach require high attention to recognize his learners’ diverse needs and interests. To check these, teachers have to conduct a thorough investigation of their learners before initiating the teaching programme. This investigation is supposed to help establish a learner profile to prepare appropriate activities. Differentiated instruction is supposed to provide comprehensible input to all the levels of the learners, for example, fast learner, average learner and slow learner.

The responsibility of teachers is extremely high compared to other approaches. This is inevitable because differentiated instruction is planned based on these data unlike conventional curriculum and classroom activities. They are prepared to fit all the learners considering “one size fits all” philosophy. In order to achieve this task, teachers have to conduct very careful investigations employing appropriate tools to recognize learners’ abilities and disabilities relevant to learning process, for example, their academic skills, interests, linguistic knowledge and skills, English language proficiency level, general and special background knowledge in association with their respective socio-religious and cultural elements. Teachers have to implement ongoing assessments to guide the teaching
programme. Proper multiple style assessment schemes have to be implemented in the classroom to match all the learners; these assessment styles are supposed to ensure that every learner will get an opportunity to demonstrate his/her understandings and abilities appropriate to their language proficiency. Based on their needs and ability, manifold types of homework can be assigned. In the classroom, teachers have to apply micro level monitoring system to check if the comprehensible input is accessed to all the learners and so on.

In the following section I attempt to associate some major theories with differentiated instruction.

3. Theoretical Underpinnings

3.1 Paulo Freire's Pedagogy

Freire (1971) introduces a new educational philosophy called “Pedagogy of the oppressed” which suggests a triangular pattern innovative affiliation among the teacher, the learner and the society. He also connects traditional education system to the banking concept where learners are considered empty bank accounts (“tabula rasa” or "blank slate") and teachers are considered as depositors in the classroom. Instead, he proposes an authentic and mutual approach by which he claims that learners and society can be consciously shaped. Freire greatly approves learners’ ability to think significantly about their learning process and conditions. This style of thinking permits the learners to identify the relationship among individuals’ issues and the society where they are associated. Understanding his/her consciousness is an essential step of "praxis," which is interpreted as the fuel and know-how to liberate one. It is possible if we implement differentiated instruction.

3.2 Critical Pedagogy
Critical pedagogy (CP) has numerous positions and fundamentals. CP was strongly powered by the thoughts of Freire, perhaps the most renowned critical educational philosopher. Initially Freire’s chief focus was on oppressed members in the society and then it was expanded to issues related to religion, military, identification, race or caste, gender, sexuality, nationality, ethnicity, unfortunate or less opportune learners, slow learners, society and age. This extensive coverage is possible if teachers implement differentiated instruction.

3.3 Schema Theory

Background/prior/world knowledge/learner resource is of paramount importance in the classroom to understand the text completely. In this section, we shall discuss prior knowledge in the form of schema theory and how this knowledge is supposed to be employed successfully by a learner in the processes of learning. The term “schema”, that is mental configuration, can be traced back to the work of Gestalt psychologists. Particularly, the introduction of schema theory is recognized in the work of the cognitive psychologist Sir Frederic C. Bartlett. Bartlett (1954) carried out a series of experiments, which explored the influence of prior knowledge in understanding a text. Based on this investigation, it is claimed that comprehension and memories are influenced by learner’s existing prior knowledge. Further, from these experiments, it is concluded that new forms of knowledge are not accumulated individually in one’s memory but they are built up with parallel prior experiences in the form of generic structures, which is denoted as schemata (generic knowledge structure in memory). Sometimes other notions such as “script,” and “frame” or “scenario” are alternatively employed to denote schemata by various authors. The schemata, knowledge structure, consists of knowledge about the world (thus it is called word knowledge), topics, objects, people, culture and situation. This knowledge is built up in a person’s mental store when he undergoes frequent exposure to parallel experiences.
learning processes, productive inferences are based on shared background knowledge. If a learner has no or limited relevant background knowledge, s/he may encounter dilemma in understanding and comprehending the text fully due to the less or no productive inferences. Rumelhart (1980), based on his studies, explains schemata as “data structures for representing our knowledge about all concepts: those underlying objects, situations, events, sequences of events, actions and sequences of actions” (Rumelhart, 1980, p.34). Therefore, including this knowledge would be beneficial to our learners. Bottom up model of curriculum approach permits to include learners’ background knowledge in the classroom.

3.4 Krashan’s Claim

Krashen (1981) also pinpoints the effectiveness of incorporating learners’ background knowledge in the classroom by saying “understanding is prerequisite to acquisition. Thus, the more context or background we can provide, the more acquisition will take place” (pp. 66-68). In another situation, Krashen and Terrell (1983) claim, “we are able to understand language containing unacquired grammar with the help of context, which includes extra-linguistic information, our knowledge of the world, and previously acquired competence” (p.02). Extra/non-linguistic knowledge in our context is background knowledge. In other words, learners’ non-linguistic knowledge.

The above perspectives unmistakably inform us that if a learner’s cultural and contextual features in the form of background knowledge are incorporated in the curriculum appropriately as a classroom investment, most of the learning impediments can be exterminated and classroom learning process can be accelerated.

3.5 Learners’ Autonomy
The concept of “autonomous learning” stemmed from debates about the development of life-long learning skills and the development of independent thinkers both of which originated in the 1960s in the field of ESL. Many scholars have defined the term “autonomous learning.” However, I have selected an appropriate definition to this study. Benson (1997) defines autonomy as “a recognition of the rights of learners within educational system” (p.29) and within the context of teaching English as a foreign language, as “a recognition of the rights of the “non-native speaker” in relation to the “native speaker” within the global order of English” (p.29). Benson’s latter claim reflects the needs of maintaining the global order of English. Therefore, if we seriously consider the learners’ rights pertinent to English language teaching, we have to consider and include the relevant socio-culture aspects with appropriate norms in the form of their background knowledge during ESL teaching-learning processes.

3.6 Appropriate Methodology

Holliday (1994) argues that most of the ESL teaching methodologies have been built up largely in the English-speaking countries of 'the west' and primarily they do not address the needs and interests of the postcolonial communities. In order to recognize viable solutions, Holliday explores this situation by associating the extensive social background of what goes on between teachers and students in the classrooms. He employs an ethnographic framework to discover the multifaceted and varied cultures of classrooms, of learners and language teachers in various countries and instructive atmospheres. He continues to debate that these matters have to be considered seriously and acknowledged when designing and implementing ESL teaching programmes. Although his primary concern is with classroom teaching, the methodologies for curriculum development and designing are addressed based on “thick description”. He undoubtedly states that when designing a curriculum “classroom culture” has to be taken into account honestly.
3.7 Allwright’s Claim

Allwright (2000) also proposes seven principles, which have to be considered sincerely in the classroom during teaching-learning processes; differentiated instruction permits to accommodate these seven principles; there are presented here.

a) Put quality of life first.
b) Work primarily to understand language classroom life.
c) Involve everybody.
d) Work to bring people together.
e) Work also for mutual development.
f) Integrate the work for understanding into classroom practice and
g) Make the work a continuous enterprise.

3.8 Kumaravadivelu’s (2006) Macro Strategies

Kumaravadivelu (2006) suggests ten principles to be considered during teaching-learning processes and he labels them as macro-strategies; they are presented here:

a) Maximize learning opportunities
b) Facilitate negotiated interaction
c) Minimize perceptual mismatches
d) Activate intuitive heuristics
e) Foster language awareness
f) Contextualize linguistic input
g) Integrate language skills
h) Promote learner autonomy
i) Ensure social relevance
j) Raise cultural consciousness
The above principles directly or indirectly support differentiated instruction; therefore, differentiated instruction receives international recognition currently.

4. Investigations

As I have mentioned above, appropriate tools have to be used for proper investigation. If the data are wrong, the total differentiated instruction will become utter failure. In order to get to know about the learners, at the initial stage teachers have to establish a complete learner profile.

4.1 Profiling Learners

It is an effective and recognized means of collecting and listing data about learners, parents and guardians; this profile is established at the beginning of a teaching programme. However, it has to be updated by the teacher continually. Information like learners’ educational background with age, their motivation and attitude, parental support and motivation, financial position, physical problems, habits with cultural information, background knowledge, professional experience and English language ability are very useful to establish a complete learner profile. In addition to these other data can be collected separately using suitable inventories; for example brain dominance, learning style,

4.2 Entry Level Information from Different Sources

Varieties of methods are used to identify entry-level proficiency of the learners by language scholars. O’Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989) requested the learners’ language teachers to make a reasonable judgement on their learners’ proficiency level. Rost and Ross (1991) considered learners’ dictation test performance to categorize their proficiency level. Thomson and Rubin (1996) and Vandergrift (1996) employed the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) proficiency listening guideline (1986) to rank their

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learners. Vandergrift (1996) used the assessment conducted by the learners’ instructors previously to classify the learners’ proficiency level. Each method has its own advantages and disadvantages.

In Sri Lanka the University Testing of English Language (UTEL) guideline can be utilised to measure learners’ current proficiency levels since that is recognized by the University Grant Commission (UGC), Sri Lanka. Entry proficiency level information can be also obtained from an initial test In order to be able to prepare appropriate tasks for the differentiated instruction. The performance level obtained from this test can be cross checked by consulting their teachers and their past grades. The test, in addition to providing information about their academic level, was also expected to provide insights about the affective factors that come into play during learning process of any particular skill. For instance, behaviour of the learners and their attitude towards the task, are some of them. Initial test is hoped to provide adequate information about required support needs by the learners.

4.3 Learning Style Inventory

Every student has his own learning style and these learning styles differ across learners. For example, some students like to learn by looking at things (visual learners) and some prefer to hear (auditory learners) and learn. While some students like to learn by doing things (kinaesthetic or tactile learners) others prefer to study in groups/pairs (group/combine/cooperative/pair work).

To investigate individual learning style, Reid (1987) and Richards and Lockhart’s (1996) inventory models can be employed. This inventory is expected to help plan the differentiated instruction. Appropriate learning style recognition becomes essential for a planner of differentiated instruction because if a learner, having individual learning style, is
asked to work in the group/pair work in the classroom, he/she might be affected psychologically. This mental state may hinder his actual performance. Therefore, to avoid such an unusual situation the learning style inventory is believed to enhance the classroom management and planning of the teaching and classroom activities based on differentiated instruction (appendix I).

4.4 Recognising Learning Strategies

There are many internationally accepted strategy inventory tools; here are some examples of learners’ self-support assessment instruments:

a) Strategy questionnaire – This questionnaire (included 51-item survey) was used by Politzer (1983). It is classified into three categories: general behaviours, classroom behaviours, and interaction with others outside the class. This instrument employs a 5-point Likert scale starting from 0 to 4.

b) Behaviour questionnaire: this type of survey questionnaire (includes 66 items) was used by Politzer and McGroarty for their research (1985).

c) Language Learning Strategy Student Questionnaire: This survey instrument contains 56 items and it was designed by McGroarty (1987).

d) Learning strategy inventory: This instrument contains 48 items and it was designed by Chamot, O’Malley, Kupper, and Impink-Hernandez (1987).

e) Oxford (1990) also presents an instrument to measure learning strategies and it is labelled as the Strategy Inventory of Language learning (SILL). This particular version, which contains 50 items, has been specially designed for learners of English as a second or foreign language. Most of the researchers in many parts of the world have applied this SILL to investigate learning strategies of their learners. Some of the examples in different languages of SILL are Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Spanish, Russian, Thai, and Turkish.
5. Implementation and Planning

Based on the information collected by employing various investigation tools have to be pulled together and teachers have to plan the lesson before implementing it. First of all, teachers have to organize a classroom to cater individual requirements with appropriate scaffoldings. At the initial stage very small activities can be prepared and learners can be asked to choose independently one or two among them. Choices provide a kind of strength and positive feelings to the learners; thereafter, 2nd stage activities can be implemented on par with their cognitive levels or little beyond their current cognitive levels (i + 1).

Teachers of differentiated instruction have to note when they implement the content, designing the activities and articulate the outcomes they have to correlate with learners’ readiness and current proficiency level, and with their learning profiles. Teachers can prepare their own plan but they have to frequently ask themselves these questions:

What are you going to teaching?
To whom are you going to teach?
How are you going to scrutinize learning process?
How are you going to implement?
How are you going to evaluate?

I am sure these questions will function as a guiding compass to the teachers and help them put into operation the teaching programme into operation successfully.

5.1 Special Features

During differentiated instruction, teachers prepare varieties of tasks for the same activity to cater to learners of all the proficiency levels (fast, average and slow learners); many of these tasks can be implemented in the pre-task session; tasks have to be designed
with different types of choices; at the initial stage, tasks can be broken down into two or three to set the level of difficulty; learners are given freedom to select the task according to their proficiency level; if any of them select lower cognitive level task, teachers can request them to select the next level of task for the second round; finally all learners are supposed to reach the set objective; instruction will go on like this; adequate home works can be assigned for the learners to reinforce the input.

Conclusion

To introduce this teaching approach teachers have to do the following:

- The activities have to encourage and activate the learners linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge
- The activities have to encourage the learners’ pedagogical needs and interests.
- Content has to be selected in matching with the learners’ cultural experience
- Content and activities have to include learners’ background knowledge and learners’ own potentials as much as possible.

Compared to other teaching approaches, this approach demands more careful attention of the teachers; teachers have to establish his/her learners’ strengths and weaknesses relevant to learning process; it is teachers’ responsibility to present right tools and techniques to increase learners’ interest and struggle free environment; this learning context will make the learners highly motivated and self-efficacious.

I’m confident enough to claim that the above discussion is adequate to understand the concept of the differentiated instruction and its effectiveness for all the levels of the learners.

This approach indicates that all types of learners can be instructed simultaneously and they
can be prepared for the common examination. Thereby they can be assured employment opportunities too.

References


### Appendix I
Learning Style Inventory

(Reid – 1987; Richards & Lockhart – 1996)

Name: ___________________________ Date: ___________________________

**Scoring procedure**

Read each statement on the following page. Please respond to the statements as they apply to your study of English. Decide whether you agree or disagree with each statement. For example, if you strongly agree, give 5 points, if you agree give 4 points, and so on.

- **Strongly agree** = 5 points
- **Agree** = 4
- **Undecided** = 3
- **Disagree** = 2
- **Strongly disagree** = 1

Now read the following statements and put the points in the appropriate boxes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>When the teacher tells me the instructions, I understand better.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I prefer to learn by doing something in class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I get more work done when I work with others.</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>I learn more when I study with a group.</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>In class, I learn best when I work with others.</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>I learn better by reading what the teacher writes on the chalkboard.</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>When someone tells me how to do things in class, I learn better.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>When I do things in class, I learn better.</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>I remember things I have heard in class better than</td>
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<td>25.</td>
<td>20. ------</td>
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When you have completed transfer all the points in the respective category, add them and multiply by two, you will get score for each category.
### Results

01. Major learning style preference  -  37 – 50
02. Minor learning style preference  -  25 – 36
03. Negligible  -  0 - 24

### Appendix II

Lesson Plan Template

01. Unit title:

02. Activities: (four skills)
03. Language area:
04. Learners current proficiency levels: Standards – ACTFEL/ UTEL
05. Grouping style: whole group/small group/pairs or partners/homogeneous/heterogeneous
06. Required time:
07. Materials: (authentic/non authentic)
08. Aim & purposes
09. Differentiation method:
10. Strategies:
11. Learning outcome: What they will know
What they will do
12. Evaluation method:

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M. Saravanapava Iyer, Ph.D.
Senior Lecturer in ELT, Gr. I
English Language Teaching Centre
Faculty of Arts
University of Jaffna
Jaffna
Sri Lanka
bavaneltc@yahoo.com