

Міністерство освіти і науки України  
Вінницький державний педагогічний університет  
імені Михайла Коцюбинського  
Факультет іноземних мов

**PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING IN TEACHING  
ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE:  
THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL ISSUES**

**ПРОБЛЕМНО-ОРІЄНТОВАНЕ НАВЧАННЯ  
У ВИКЛАДАННІ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ ЯК ІНОЗЕМНОЇ:  
ТЕОРЕТИЧНІ І ПРАКТИЧНІ ПИТАННЯ**

**Монографія**

За загальною редакцією Н. Є. Дмитренко

Вінниця  
ФОП Т. П. Барановська  
2017

УДК 378.147.091.33:811.111

ББК 81.2 Англ – 9

П78

Автори:

**Ю. О. Бардашевська, Ю. О. Будас, Н. Є. Дмитренко, І. В. Доля, О. В. Зарічна, Н. С. Клос, Ю. В. Колядич, А. М. Лиса, Л. В. Мельник, А. І. Петрова, О. А. Подзигун, О. І. Тарнауз, Г. П. Теклюк, Л. Я. Терещенко, О. М. Яцишин**

Рекомендовано до друку Вченою радою Вінницького державного педагогічного університету імені Михайла Коцюбинського (протокол № 15 від 23.02.2017 р.)

Рецензенти:

**Н. Л. Іваницька, доктор філологічних наук, професор;**

**Л. І. Морська, доктор педагогічних наук, професор;**

**Т. І. Ямчинська, кандидат філологічних наук, доцент.**

**П78 Problem-based learning in teaching English as a foreign language: theoretical and practical issues** (Проблемно-орієнтоване навчання у викладанні англійської мови як іноземної: теоретичні і практичні питання) : монографія / за заг. ред. Н. Є. Дмитренко. – Вінниця : ФОП Т. П. Барановська, 2017. – 164 с.

ISBN 978-617-7233-34-2

У монографії висвітлено зміст і структуру проблемно-орієнтованого навчання на заняттях з іноземної мови у вищому навчальному закладі. Авторами запропоновано модель і етапи реалізації проблемно-орієнтованого навчання на заняттях з іноземної мови у вищому навчальному закладі, а також звернено увагу на роль та компетенції викладача-тьютера. Результати дослідження можуть бути застосовані у процесі впровадження проблемно-орієнтованого навчання на заняттях з іноземної мови та інших дисциплін з урахуванням специфіки їх викладання у вищому навчальному закладі.

**УДК378.147.091.33:811.111**

**ББК 81.2 Англ – 9**

ISBN 978-617-7233-34-2

© Н. Є. Дмитренко, загальна редакція, 2017

## ЗМІСТ

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| ШАНОВНІ ЧИТАЧІ!.....   | 4   |
| PART I.....  | 5   |
| ВСТУП.....   | 6   |
| ЗАСТОСУВАННЯ ПРОБЛЕМНО-ОРІЄНТОВАНОГО НАВЧАННЯ<br>НА ЗАНЯТТЯХ З ІНОЗЕМНОЇ МОВИ У ВИЩОМУ НАВЧАЛЬНОМУ<br>ЗАКЛАДІ..... | 7   |
| ВИСНОВКИ.....  | 33  |
| PART II.....   | 35  |
| INTRODUCTION.....  | 36  |
| THE IMPEMINTATION OF PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING<br>IN UKRAINIAN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.....                   | 38  |
| PROBLEM AS THE MAIN POINT.....   | 58  |
| ASSESSMENT IN PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING.....  | 70  |
| ORGANISING A PBL SESSION IN ESL GROUP.....   | 86  |
| THE ROLE OF PBL TUTOR IN ESL GROUP.....  | 96  |
| PBL TUTOR'S ROLE IN POST-DISCUSSION PHASE<br>IN ESL GROUP.....   | 104 |
| FUTURE OF PBL IN ESL GROUP.....  | 118 |
| CONCLUSIONS.....   | 136 |
| APPENDICES.....  | 139 |

## ШАНОВНІ ЧИТАЧІ!

Дозвольте представити результати дослідження, проведеного 15 викладачами факультету іноземних мов Вінницького державного педагогічного університету імені Михайла Коцюбинського. Протягом десяти тижнів 2015-2016 н.р. он-лайн навчання на платформі NovoEd викладачі переймали досвід колег з Маастрихтського університету щодо застосування проблемно-орієнтованого навчання (ПОН). У цьому нідерландському університеті вже протягом тридцяти років упроваджується таке навчання для майбутніх лікарів, а також фахівців у галузі медичної юриспруденції і медичної інженерії.

Познайомившись з досвідом колег, опрацювавши сучасну науково-методичну літературу з даного питання, викладачі факультету іноземних мов зробили спробу теоретично обґрунтувати та практично перевірити можливість застосування ПОН у викладанні іноземних мов у вищому навчальному закладі, шляхом порівняння й аналізу ПОН та інших сучасних методик і з'ясування ролі викладача в традиційному та проблемному навчанні.

Викладачами, які брали участь у проекті, **розроблено** практичні рекомендації для роботи тьютерів, які застосовують ПОН на заняттях іноземної мови; **окреслено** психологічні параметри, які слід враховувати під час розподілу ролей і дискусії; **запропоновано** рівні учасників і рівні навчання, а також критерії оцінювання студентів за ПОН; **відібрано** тезаурус викладача-тьютера й допоміжні фрази для проведення обговорень студентами; **підготовлено** низку різнопланових проблемних ситуацій із покроковим методичним супроводом.

Авторський колектив працював спільно над створенням кожного розділу, оскільки робота передбачала вивчення матеріалу, створення узагальнень, висновків, презентацій під час он-лайн навчання, а також доповнення і редагування матеріалів у процесі підготовки монографії. Опрацювання усіх розділів здійснювалось у тісній рівноправній співпраці. Тому авторство й відповідальність за представлену роботу належить кожному зі співавторів.

У даній колективній монографії увесь розроблений матеріал було систематизовано, узагальнено й подано у вигляді двох частин: української та англійської з метою залучення ширшого кола читачів. Перша частина, яка представлена українською мовою, стисло відображає матеріали другої частини представленої англійською мовою.

Сподіваємося, що представлена колективна монографія зацікавить і надихне усіх небайдужих, сучасних, прогресивних педагогів на застосування проблемно-орієнтованого навчання на заняттях з іноземної мови у вищому навчальному закладі й спонукатиме до подальшого глибокого вивчення розглянутого нами актуального методу вивчення іноземної мови.

Запрошуємо до співпраці й обговорення ПОН.

З повагою колектив авторів.

# PART I



## ВСТУП

Швидкий темп розвитку сучасного суспільства вимагає негайних рішучих змін в освітній галузі. Сьогодення вимагає від висококваліфікованих фахівців миттєвої професійної реакції, мислити критично, підходити комплексно до розв'язання проблем, шукати нестандартних рішень, діяти виважено й злагоджено у команді, координуючи свої дії з колегами, ефективно налагоджувати професійні контакти, у тому числі й з колегами з-за кордону. Тому нагальною стає потреба пошуку інших підходів до організації навчального процесу, оновлення методів, засобів, форм навчання, розробка й імплементація в освітній процес нових педагогічних технологій.

З огляду на вищевикладене, пріоритетним напрямом вищої освіти має стати професійна спрямованість навчання, невід'ємною частиною якого є іншомовна підготовка майбутніх фахівців. До іншомовного спілкування залучається все більша кількість людей різного віку, професій, інтересів. Тому головним завданням у вивченні іноземної мови є опанування нею як засобом спілкування.

У методичних рекомендаціях Міністерства освіти і науки України про вивчення іноземних мов у 2016-2017 навчальному році наголошується на необхідності здійснювати іншомовне спілкування на міжкультурному рівні, що є викликом нашого часу, зумовленим сучасними реаліями світу, який глобалізується.

Вивчивши методичну літературу, можна стверджувати, що іншомовна обізнаність майбутніх фахівців посідає чільне місце у їх професійному становленні. Науковці розглядають процес оволодіння іноземною мовою, як інструмент у діалозі культур, засіб розвитку особистості, розкриття її внутрішнього творчого потенціалу, запоруку успішної професійної діяльності, стрімкого кар'єрного зростання, засіб компетентного функціонування у професійному середовищі.

Інтенсифікувати навчальний процес, стимулювати пізнавальний інтерес студентів, мотивувати їх до вивчення іноземних мов, покращити рівень іншомовної підготовки майбутніх фахівців допоможе, на нашу думку, застосування проблемно-орієнтованого навчання на заняттях з іноземної мови у вищих навчальних закладах. На таких заняттях студенти самостійно здобувають необхідні знання, у них виробляються навички мисленнєвих операцій і дій, розвивається увага, творча уява, здогадка, формується здатність відкривати щось нове для себе та знаходити нові способи дій через висування припущень й формулювання доказів чи спростувань.

# ЗАСТОСУВАННЯ ПРОБЛЕМНО-ОРІЄНТОВАНОГО НАВЧАННЯ НА ЗАНЯТТЯХ З АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ У ВНЗ



- *Які риси притаманні ПОН?*
- *З яких етапів складається процес реалізації ПОН?*
- *Переваги і недоліки застосування ПОН на заняттях з іноземної мови?*

## **ЗАСТОСУВАННЯ ПРОБЛЕМНО-ОРІЄНТОВАНОГО НАВЧАННЯ НА ЗАНЯТТЯХ З ІНОЗЕМНОЇ МОВИ У ВИЩОМУ НАВЧАЛЬНОМУ ЗАКЛАДІ**

У сучасній вищій школі велика увага приділяється застосуванню інноваційних методів навчання в навчально-виховному процесі. Раціональне поєднання традиційних та інноваційних методів навчання сприяє розвитку пізнавальних процесів і творчих здібностей студентів, їх підготовці до практичної роботи. В стрімко змінюваному світі, де конкуренція з кожним днем стає все сильнішою, відсутність практичного досвіду та навичок у студентів можуть бути серйозною і вагомою перешкодою на шляху до працевлаштування і кар'єрного зростання. У зв'язку з цим все більшої популярності набувають сучасні методики навчання, спрямовані на формування у студентів певних практичних навичок.

Згідно з останніми світовими тенденціями удосконалення системи підготовки випускників, головними навичками, які повинні бути сформовані під час навчання, є наступні:

- вирішення проблеми: критичне мислення, вміння аналізувати;
- навчальні навички: здатність здобувати нові знання, робити висновки з досвіду і застосовувати їх у пошуку інновацій;
- комунікативні навички: вміння читати та писати, знаходити й використовувати інформацію для спілкування з іншими;
- особисті навички: самоорганізація, прийняття обґрунтованих рішень і моніторинг ризиків;
- соціальні навички: співробітництво й мотивування інших членів команди, керування стосунками з клієнтом, здійснення керівництва, вирішення конфліктів, нетворкінг.

Серед сучасних новітніх методів організації навчально-виховного процесу, які застосовуються для формування і розвитку окреслених навичок, покращують процес засвоєння матеріалу, вчать студентів мислити і по-справжньому застосовувати знання на практиці, чільне місце посідає **проблемно-орієнтоване навчання (ПОН)**. Саме проблемно-орієнтоване навчання дозволяє особистості на основі наявної багатоаспектної інформації сформулювати свої власні позиції, співвіднести їх із поглядами інших, знайти серед них ті, що перетинаються з власними поглядами, і розробити



своє ставлення до різних точок зору, тобто створити інформаційне світо-сприйняття, яке є відкритим для уточнення, поглиблення і зміни.

Мета проблемно-орієнтованого навчання полягає у забезпеченні глибокого й всебічного розуміння навчального матеріалу, розвитку аналітичного, креативного мислення. Це є засіб створення мотивації, стимулювання пізнавальної діяльності студентів. Проблемно-орієнтоване навчання сприяє інтегруванню навчального процесу з наукою, з проблемами реальної дійсності і з життєвим досвідом тих, хто навчається. Застосування ПОН дозволяє виявити рівень знань і здібностей студентів, краще зрозуміти їх психологію. Під час проблемно-орієнтованого навчання у студентів з'являється можливість самореалізації і розвитку навичок командної роботи.

Проблемно-орієнтованому навчанню притаманні такі **рис**и:

- центральне місце курсу чи програми займає складна, погано структурована, оригінальна проблема;
- оригінальна задача прив'язана до реальної життєвої ситуації і потребує від студентів застосування широкого спектру знань і вмінь;
- процес навчання орієнтований на студентів і очікується, що вони візьмуть на себе ініціативу і відповідальність за процес навчального пізнання;
- індивідуальний підхід до студентів у процесі вирішення проблеми;
- мультидисциплінарний підхід до вирішення проблем;
- викладач виконує роль супроводжуючого фасилітатора, наставника (тьютера), а не є джерелом знань;
- студенти працюють у маленьких групах, для того, щоб визначити потреби пізнання і знайти вирішення проблем;
- оцінка досвіду навчання містить оцінку тьютера, самооцінку і оцінку одногрупників;
- оцінка використовується як інструмент рефлексії та аналізу навчального процесу (Hmelo, 2004).

Основними **характеристиками** проблемно-орієнтованого навчання є:

- актуальність, яка обумовлюється необхідністю активної участі в комплексних проектах, що забезпечує розвиток здібностей, творчого мис-

лення і самостійності студентів, застосування набутих ними теоретичних знань і практичних навичок, вмінь;

– міждисциплінарний характер навчання, пов'язаний з постійною потребою використання студентами знань, набутих у процесі вивчення різних дисциплін з метою виконання завдань, ефективного вирішення поставлених задач;

– комплексне розв'язання завдань, яке ставить за мету постановку і спільне дослідження складних проблем, аналіз і узагальнення вивченого і зібраного самостійно матеріалу з метою віднаходження оптимального шляху і виявлення можливих варіантів вирішення задач;

– мотивуючий характер навчання, спрямований на розвиток інтересу студентів до навчального процесу, їх потреби в постійному самовдосконаленні, самоосвіті шляхом пропонування їм права вибору, можливості самим контролювати процес і співпрацювати з одногрупниками;

– достовірність і реалістичність навчання, спрямованого на реалізацію таких проектів, які представляють інтерес для сучасного суспільства, науки та освіти;

– налаштування на співпрацю, що зумовлено потребою спільного виконання завдань, рішенням складних задач, встановленням партнерських стосунків із викладачем;

– позитивний настрій, який виникає внаслідок стимулювання пізнавальної діяльності студентів, надаючи їм свободу вибору й самостійності.

На відміну від традиційних інструкцій, які досить часто студенти отримують із лекційного курсу, вивчення матеріалу в процесі ПОН зазвичай проходить у вигляді практичних занять, у невеликих за чисельністю групах студентів, у формі дискусії, яку спрямовує викладач. Внаслідок того, що об'єм прямих інструкцій в ПОН зведено до мінімуму, студенти беруть на себе більшу відповідальність за власне навчання. При цьому роль викладача може зводитися до ролі експерта з обговорюваної проблеми, керівника з використання інформаційних джерел і консультанта у виконанні групового завдання.

Проблемно-орієнтоване навчання обумовлює широке використання в процесі навчання інформаційних і комунікаційних технологій. Їх застосування дозволяє суттєво підвищити ефективність пояснення матері-

алу, розширити діапазон пошуків у виконанні проектних завдань, забезпечити візуальний супровід наданим фактам і результатам дослідної діяльності.

Таким чином, у проблемно-орієнтованому навчанні роль викладача полягає в заохоченні активного обговорення проблеми, організації взаємодоповнюючої роботи студентів, забезпеченні можливості отримання відповідної інформації, підтриманні суті проблеми під час обговорення.

У процесі проблемно-орієнтованого навчання викладач не повідомляє готові знання (інформацію), а ставить перед студентами проблему й шляхом пробудження інтересу до неї стимулює в них бажання знайти способи її розв'язання. У даному випадку мова не йде про вирішення проблеми, яка стоїть перед наукою, а про характер передачі (викладання) відомої навчальної інформації, хоча й не виключається постановка та обговорення питань, які не розроблені наукою і не вирішені на практиці.

Зміст навчального матеріалу визначає рівні проблемно-орієнтованого навчання, тобто залежить від наявності визначених умов для створення проблемних ситуацій того чи іншого ступеня складності. З огляду на вищесказане, можна виділити чотири рівні проблемності:

1. Рівень, який забезпечує застосування попередньо засвоєних знань у нових ситуаціях.
2. Рівень, який забезпечує діяльність, засновану на репродукції, повторенні.
3. Пошуково-репродуктивний рівень.
4. Творчий рівень (Cockrell, 2000).

Ключовим питанням проблемно-орієнтованого навчання є **«проблемна ситуація»**, яка створюється викладачем з начальною метою. Вона містить складне теоретичне й практичне питання, яке вимагає вивчення, розширення, дослідження у співвідношеннях з певними умовами й обставинами, які створюють ту чи іншу ситуацію. Проблемна ситуація, як правило, має дві сторони:

- *предметно-змістову*, пов'язану з виокремленням суперечностей базових знань, недостатнім об'ємом певної суттєвої інформації;
- *мотиваційну*, яка спрямована на усвідомлення суперечностей і стимулювання бажання їх подолати за умови засвоєння студентами певних нових знань.

Проблемно-орієнтоване навчання дозволяє сфокусувати увагу студентів на аналізі й розширенні конкретної проблемної ситуації, що стає відправною точкою в процесі навчання.

Основними рисами вдало розробленої проблеми є:

- зв'язок з реальним життям і мотивацією студентів;
- опис кількох взаємопов'язаних явищ і подій;
- незадовільно сформульована комплексна проблема;
- потреба у прийнятті рішень, розсудливості та поміркованості;
- необхідність групового прийняття рішень;
- потреба у розгорнутих відповідях, які спонукають до обговорення;
- потреба у вивченні нових ключових концепцій;
- пов'язана з навчальними цілями і задачами;
- адаптується з попередніми знаннями;
- представлена у відповідному аутентичному контексті;
- стимулює інтерес;
- включає інтеграцію мислення;
- має підсумковий результат, який можна застосувати в реальному житті (Maurer, 2012).

Існують різні способи створення проблемних ситуацій. Це підведення студентів до суперечностей і пропозиція їм самим знайти рішення, зіткнення з суперечностями практичної діяльності, викладення різних точок зору на одне й те саме питання, пропозиція розглянути явище з різних позицій, спонукання робити власні порівняння, узагальнення і висновки.

Мовленнєва ситуація, яка містить проблему й потребує її успішного розв'язання, сприяє самостійній пошуковій діяльності студентів, стимулює їх пізнавальний інтерес, забезпечує розвиток критичного мислення й творчих здібностей учасників, задіяних в обговоренні.

Така форма спілкування дозволяє успішно обговорювати всі питання, досягати їх суті, і що найважливіше, залишає більш глибокий слід у пам'яті, ніж «озвучування» авторитарної думки викладача.

У науково-методичній літературі проблемна ситуація визначається як психологічний стан, що виникає в результаті мисленнєвої взаємодії суб'єкта (студента) з об'єктом (навчальним матеріалом), який стимулює пізнавальну потребу розкрити суть процесу або явища, що вивчаються. У педагогіці проблемна ситуація розглядається як стан розумового утруднення, який викликаний об'єктивною нестачею знань і способів розумової чи практичної діяльності, необхідних для розв'язання проблемного завдання.

**Проблема ситуація** представляє собою пізнавальну трудність, для подолання якої студенти повинні отримувати нові знання або зробити інтелектуальне зусилля. Проблемні ситуації можуть бути об'єктивними (ситуація, що задається викладачем) і суб'єктивними (психологічний стан інтелектуальних зусиль при вирішенні поставленої проблеми).

Виділяють чотири взаємопов'язаних **функції** проблемної ситуації: а) стимулююча; б) навчаюча; в) організуюча; г) контролююча. Проблемна ситуація стимулює мовленнєву діяльність, збільшує її обсяг і різноманіття форм висловлювання, а також сприяє міцності мовленнєвих навичок і вмінь, що формуються.

Проблемна ситуація, яку усвідомили й прийняли до розгляду студенти переростає у проблему. Проблема з вказаними параметрами й умовами вирішення є проблемним завданням.

**Проблема** – це усвідомлення студентами неможливості подолати труднощі й протиріччя, з якими вони зіштовхнулися під час заняття в даній ситуації, застосовуючи наявні у них знання і досвід.

**Проблемне завдання** – це навчальна проблема з певними умовами, що обмежують коло пошуку рішення цього завдання. Поєднання таких цілеспрямовано сконструйованих завдань і має на меті забезпечити основні функції проблемного навчання: творче опанування навчального матеріалу та засвоєння досвіду творчої діяльності.

Будь-яка проблема бере свій початок у проблемній ситуації: усвідомивши складність, що виникла через неможливість її подолати, маючи певний рівень знань, студента охоплює бажання знайти вихід із ситуації, що склалася шляхом мислення. (трохи викинула) З цього моменту проблема перетворюється в завдання, яке потребує розумової активності, оскільки студенту відомо з якою метою говорити, про що говорити, але невідомо, як потрібно формулювати думку, які засоби мовлення слід використовувати.

Оскільки проблемне навчання передбачає чітко продуману систему проблемних ситуацій, проблем та завдань, які відповідають пізнавальним можливостям студентів, можна виокремити такі рівні складності:

1-й рівень. Викладач сам аналізує проблемну ситуацію, виявляє проблему, формулює задачу і направляє студентів на самостійний пошук шляхів її вирішення.

2-й рівень. Викладач разом зі студентами аналізує ситуацію і вказує їм на проблеми, а вони самостійно формулюють завдання і вирішують його.

3-й рівень. Викладач знайомить студентів зі змістом проблемної ситуації, а її аналіз, виявлення проблеми формування завдання і вибір оптимального рішення студенти здійснюють самостійно.

До проблемної ситуації висувають такі **вимоги**:

- наявність елемента новизни;
- проблемна ситуація повинна містити перепони на шляху до досягнення поставлених цілей;
- проблеми потрібно пред'являти в логічній послідовності.

Крім того пізнавально-комунікативні потреби повинні відповідати можливостям студентів. Тому варто моделювати такі ситуації, які студенти могли б реалізувати в повсякденному житті, перш за все, рідною мовою, а вже потім іноземною, відповідали б їхньому досвіду й фоновим знанням, здатності вирішувати проблеми. До іншомовної здатності можна віднести: вживання більш складної структури висловлювання (кількість розмовних кліше, використання довших і складніших фраз, поширених складносурядних і складнопідрядних речень); до мовленнєвої належить детальний відбір слів (зменшення лексичних й синтаксичних повторів, відсутність затяжних пауз, слів-паразитів); до смислової – ширший обсяг предмету обговорення.

Застосовуючи проблемне навчання, спонукаючи студентів самостійно знаходити й використовувати необхідну інформацію, викладач може зіштовхнутися з наступними психологічними проблемами:

- вміння сформулювати проблему;
- вміння визначити необхідну кількість проблем для обговорення на занятті;
- вміння вийти з ситуації, коли на проблемне питання не вистачає інформації не тільки у студентів, але і у викладача.

Викладачеві слід намагатися ставити проблемні питання студентам на занятті. Як відомо, проблемність потребує пояснення, обґрунтування, аналізу й оцінки, доказу, тому стверджувальне формулювання навчального питання потрібно переробляти на проблемне.

Узагальнивши досвід вітчизняних й зарубіжних учених, ми можемо виокремити певні **способи створення проблемних ситуацій**:

- спонукання студентів до теоретичного пояснення фактів, явищ, зовнішньої невідповідності між ними;
- застосування навчальних і життєвих ситуацій, які виникають під час виконання практичних завдань. У цьому випадку проблемні ситуації виникають під час спроби самостійно досягти поставлених цілей;
- орієнтація проблемних завдань на пояснення явищ або пошук шляхів їх практичного застосування;
- спонукання студентів до аналізу фактів та явищ, які спричиняють суперечності між власними уявленнями й теоретичним трактуванням цих фактів;
- висування припущення, оформлення висновків та їх перевірка;
- спонукання студентів порівнювати, зіставляти факти, явища, правила, дії, в результаті чого виникає проблемна ситуація;
- спонукання студентів до попереднього узагальнення нових фактів. Завдання містить новий матеріал, передбачає порівняння певних фактів і явищ та здійснення самостійного узагальнення.
- ознайомлення з фактами, які мають незрозумілий характер і призвели до утворення наукової проблеми. Як правило ці факти і явища суперечать студентським уявленням і поняттям, що можна пояснити недостатніми попередніми знаннями.
- організація міжпредметних зв'язків, оскільки навчальний матеріал певного предмета не забезпечує створення проблемної ситуації.
- варіювання завдання, перефразування питання.

Створюючи різні проблемні ситуації, вважаємо за доцільне дотримуватись певних правил їх укладання. А саме: виконання завдання повинно передбачати оволодіння новими знаннями, уміннями, практичними навичками; самі завдання мають відповідати інтелектуальним можливостям студентів; містити достовірні та реалістичні проблеми, які представляють інтерес для сучасного суспільства, науки та освіти; передбачати комплексне їх вирішення, аналіз і узагальнення вивченого й зібраного самостійно матеріалу з метою віднаходження оптимального шляху досягнення поставленої мети; мати міждисциплінарний характер; мотивувати студентів до

самовдосконалення й самоосвіти; передбачати право вибору й можливість контролювати процес; налаштовувати на співпрацю, встановлення партнерських стосунків один з одним і з викладачем; стимулювати пізнавальну діяльність студентів, надаючи їм свободу вибору й самостійності.

У проблемному навчання центральною ланкою є проблемна ситуація. Від того, на скільки вдало вона створена, багато в чому залежить успіх навчально-пізнавального процесу. Тому викладачеві слід:

- створювати проблемні ситуації на реальному життєвому матеріалі, як на історичному, який описано в літературі, так і на сучасному, але в жодному випадку вони не є довільною розумовою конструкцією;
- проблемні ситуації слід направляти на стимулююче мислення, яке не є самоціллю, так як і у всіх випадках ціллю виступає формування у студентів навчальних навичок роботи, комунікативних вмінь, необхідних для повсякденного життя знань і вмінь їх застосовувати;
- конструювати проблемну ситуацію в такий спосіб, щоб її зміст узгоджувався з теоретичними знаннями студентів. Якщо студенти не мають якихось вихідних теоретичних знань, викладачеві потрібно шляхом роз'яснень доповнити знання, яких не вистачає, перш ніж вони візьмуться до вирішення проблемної задачі;
- проблемну ситуацію слід вибудовувати на знайомому матеріалі, який раніше не аналізувався;
- проблемні ситуації обов'язково спираються на певний практичний досвід студентів;
- формулювати питання таким чином, щоб вони дійсно були проблемними і виключали будь-яку спробу обійтися завченим матеріалом і потребували самостійного мислення, творчої мобілізації всіх раніше отриманих ними знань, які можна використати для правильної відповіді на дане питання-проблему;
- при складанні проблемних питань слід враховувати, що усі питання повинні потребувати або пояснення тих чи інших явищ, або доказів, теоретичного обґрунтування правдивості відомих положень, що вивчаються в даній темі.



Важливою умовою розробки проблемної ситуації є послідовна система її впровадження у навчальний процес. Вважаємо за доцільне навести правила, які визначають **послідовність проблемних ситуацій**.

1. Продумуючи проблемну ситуацію, треба розробити систему завдань, яка б слугувала підґрунтям створення самої проблемної ситуації.

2. Розроблена система проблемних завдань повинна охоплювати повністю всю тему, що вивчається. Ця система має забезпечувати послідовний розвиток знань і вмінь.

3. На різних етапах вивчення певної теми проблемні ситуації виконують різні дидактичні функції. На початковому етапі проблемна ситуація має забезпечити пізнавальну потребу опанувати тему. Проблемні ситуації, які передують оволодінню системою знань, є основними або тематичними. Наступні конкретні проблемні ситуації слугують подальшому опрацюванню основного проблемного завдання, яке потребує не окремих конкретних знань, а усієї системи знань і вмінь, що опановуються.

4. Проблемні ситуації повинні містити конкретні поступові кроки опанування новими знаннями та діями, які має здійснювати кожний студент залежно від своїх можливостей.

5. Варто виокремити основні знання і дії й визначити їх оптимально ефективну послідовність засвоєння, що стимулюватиме пізнавальну діяльність студентів.

Слід зауважити, що проблемна ситуація повинна викликати зацікавленість у студентів, бажання у всьому розібратись самостійно. Тому інформація, яку вони отримують у результаті вирішення проблеми, повинна мати особистісну значущість, бути важливою в навчальному плані й практичному застосуванні.

Хоча коріння ПОН можуть бути простежені від методів так званого цільового навчання, які були запропоновані Дж. Дьюї і його послідовниками, найактивніше ця педагогічна стратегія стала розповсюджуватися в США з другої половини 1960-х років. Структура викладання, яка була розроблена в Західному університеті Каліфорнії та канадському університеті МакМастера, зараз слугує основою багатьох навчальних рекомендацій і викладацьких планів у провідних вищих навчальних закладах світу. Європейські традиції в проблемно-орієнтованому навчанні розвивалися паралельно і незалежно від північноамериканського підходу. Найактивніше

ПОН розробляється і застосовується в університетах Маастрихта (Нідерланди), Ольборга і Роскильда (Данія). Проблемно-орієнтоване навчання широко використовується і в австралійських університетах.

**Реалізація** проблемно-орієнтованого навчання складається з декількох етапів:

**I. Планування:**

- формулювання проблеми;
- вивчення студентських стилів навчання, визначення, що їм вже відомо, і як передбачити потреби навчання;
- визначення результатів навчання;
- проходження усього процесу розв’язання проблеми з метою передбачення можливих питань студентів, напрямів, які вони можуть обрати і виявлення потенційних збоїв;
- підбір необхідних матеріалів, включаючи Інтернет-ресурси, враховуючи можливі питання студентів.

**II. Процес:**

- розподіл студентів по групах (за інтересами, стилем навчання, вміннями чи поєднуючи різні фактори) для покращення процесу вирішення проблеми;
- виокремлення найефективніших шляхів регулювання роботи маленької групи;
- ефективне інтегрування в навчальний процес технологічних інструментів і ресурсів;
- розробка стратегічних інструментів підтримки навчання студентів, наприклад, створення веб-сайту з прямим посиланням на потрібні ресурси, використання заголовків, щоб студенти чітко уявляли суть кожного етапу навчання;
- підготовка до оптимального використання технології, особливо, як інструменту розвитку, й застосування на практиці потрібних навичок.

**Модель** процесу проблемно-орієнтованого навчання містить:

1. Знайомство з проблемою, спостереження і обговорення отриманої інформації: студентам пропонується обговорити представлену викладачем проблему, з’ясувати терміни та концепції її розв’язання.

2. Формулювання питань, ідей і гіпотез: для кращого розуміння проблеми студенти використовують знання з попереднього життєвого досвіду та з'ясовують, що залишається невизначеним і формулюють питання для подальшого дослідження.

3. Збір інформації для вирішення проблеми: розподіл ролей і завдань, пошук необхідної інформації, самостійне навчання.

4. План дій: студенти інтегрують отриману інформацію, порівнюють результати, обмінюються аргументами та пропонують шляхи рішення проблеми.

5. Рефлексія: студенти обговорюють, які знання і навички вони набули в процесі вирішення проблеми, проводять само і взаємооцінювання.

### III. Оцінка:

– створення можливості для самоаналізу, оцінки групи, оцінки викладача й одногрупників;

– розробка ефективної методики оцінювання, у співвідношенні зі способом навчання, змістом дисципліни й результатами програми;

– забезпечення ефективними інструментами оцінювання з акцентом на постійну оцінку завдань курсу;

– запровадження постійного оцінювання як невід'ємної частини процесу викладання і навчання.

У процесі вирішення проблеми кожен студент виконує певну командну **роль**, яка змінюється з кожною проблемною ситуацією, або ж протягом вирішення однієї проблеми (за певних умов). Це може бути:

1. Лідер команди, який керує роботою студентів.

2. Секретар, який фіксує думки, висловлені в ході обговорення.

3. Виконавчий директор, який вислуховує, делегує, підтримує, зосереджує на питаннях.

4. Дослідник, який використовує різні джерела, вміє визначати потрібну інформацію.

5. Людина, яка слідкує за часом і термінами виконання завдань.

6. Представник – людина, яка представляє роботу групи.

7. Людина, яка робить заключні висновки й визначає найкращий вибір.

8. Креативний консультант, який відповідає за творче представлення результатів командної роботи.

9. Юридичний консультант, який перевіряє дотримання правил цитування і посилань на першоджерела (Beringer, 2007).

За проблемно-орієнтованого навчання роль викладача-тьютера полягає у стимулюванні групи до проведення більш детального дослідження, виконанні обов'язків фасилітатора навчального процесу й формального контролюванні окремих студентів у групі. Діяльність педагога передбачає пояснення змісту найбільш складних понять, систематичне створення проблемних ситуацій, повідомлення навчальних фактів, організацію навчально-пізнавальної діяльності таким чином, щоб на основі аналізу фактів студенти самостійно могли створювати висновки й узагальнення, формулювати за допомогою педагога певні поняття, закони.

Під час роботи з групою викладач (тьютер) повинен:

- сприяти взаємодії між студентами й співпраці в групах для досягнення цілей;
- уважно вислуховувати студентів і готувати їх до нових проблем;
- задавати питання і спонукати до обговорення;
- пояснювати яким чином організовано навчальний матеріал;
- слідкувати за прогресом і виконанням.

Тьютеру слід уникати наступних дій:

- виступати в якості керівника, голови;
- читати лекції на традиційній основі;
- нав'язувати групі свої знання і стандарти, а допомагати студентам самим вивчати проблему.

До **компетенцій** викладача-фасилітатора належать:

- володіння внутрішньою мотивацією, тобто міцною вірою в підхід, зорієнтований на студента;
- обізнаність, як розробити гарну проблемну ситуацію;
- володіння знаннями з предмета і внутрішніми ресурсами;
- здатність ефективно супроводжувати процес навчання, допомогти студентам самостійно вести власну пізнавальну діяльність без надмірного керівництва та настанов;
- адекватне керування роботою в групі;

- уміле спрямування студентів до додаткових ресурсів;
- здатність ефективно застосовувати технології в якості інформаційного джерела та інструменту розвитку (Dmitrenko, 2016).

Отже, проблемно-орієнтоване навчання дозволяє формувати та закріплювати навички, розвивати вміння, досягати консенсусу, орієнтуватися в інформаційних полях та міждисциплінарних ситуаціях. Однією з головних вимог ПОН є активне співробітництво з метою всебічного вивчення проблеми та формування життєздатних рішень. Застосування проблемно-орієнтованого навчання можливе у будь-якій галузі науки, але вимагає ретельної підготовки в організації навчально-виховного процесу й врахування особливостей вивчення, які притаманні тій чи іншій дисципліні.

Процес вивчення іноземної мови може стати ефективнішим за допомогою запровадження проблемних ситуацій до навчального процесу. ПОН розглядається як принцип навчання і як новий тип навчального процесу, як метод навчання і як нова дидактична система. Проблемність, як пріоритетний напрям особистісно-орієнтованого підходу в навчанні іноземної мови, може реалізовуватися на всіх рівнях організації навчального матеріалу й самого навчального процесу. Проблема подача матеріалу сприяє підвищенню ефективності процесу навчання, оскільки це стимулює розумову діяльність, самостійний пошук інформації і прагнення до аналізу та узагальнення. Принцип проблемності зближує між собою процес навчання з процесом пізнання, дослідження, творчого мислення. Суть активізації навчальної діяльності засобами проблемного навчання полягає не в звичайній розумовій активності і мисленневих операціях з розв'язання стереотипних задач і виконання репродуктивних завдань, а в активізації мислення шляхом створення проблемних ситуацій, у формуванні пізнавального інтересу й моделюванні розумових процесів, які обумовлюють справжній творчий підхід. При цьому формуються навички пошукового, дослідного підходу до рішення теоретичних або практичних проблем. Застосування принципу проблемності дозволяє варіювати навчальний матеріал, прийоми викладання з урахуванням змісту освіти, форм організації навчального процесу, рівня знань студентів, їх підготовленості до самостійного роботи.

Проблемно-орієнтоване навчання на занятті з іноземної мови дозволяє розвивати творчу активність студентів, підвищувати їх мотивацію, самос-

тійність, поінформованість про зміст майбутньої професії, розвивати мисленнєві вміння. Найбільш ефективним у процесі викладання іноземної мови є розвиток іншомовної професійної комунікативної компетенції. При цьому завдання в проблемно-орієнтованому навчанні мають яскраво виражений професійний характер, а викладення проблеми, обґрунтування її актуальності, опис методів і ходу дослідження, представлення висновків і результатів відбувається з активним використанням лексики та фразеології іноземної мови. Проблемні ситуації з використанням іноземної мови дозволяють активізувати розумову діяльність студентів. Програвання на заняттях з іноземної мови великої кількості різноманітних ситуацій як усного, так і писемного спілкування, допомагають студентам інтегруватися в процес іншомовної професійної адаптації і бути готовими до реалій майбутньої професійної діяльності.

Застосування проблемно-орієнтованого навчання на заняттях з іноземної мови допомагає шукати ефективніші шляхи й способи перебудови репродуктивного мислення на продуктивне, творче.

Специфіка предмету «Іноземна мова» і ступінь його складності обумовлюють застосування проблемно-орієнтованих завдань, які сприяють оптимізації мовленнєвої діяльності студентів і формуванню вмінь практично використовувати іноземну мову як засіб спілкування, підвищують ефективність навчального процесу й дозволяють досягти кращих результатів. Робота над проблемними ситуаціями дає можливість студентам активізувати пізнавальні потреби, розумово-мовленнєву діяльність, краще засвоювати новий матеріал.

У контексті вивчення іноземної мови особливу значущість набувають такі групи проблемних завдань: пошуково-ігрові, комунікативно-пошукові, комунікативно-орієнтовані, пізнавально-пошукові, культурологічні. До основних властивостей проблемних завдань належать:

1. Автентичне спілкування на занятті.
2. Актуальність завдання для учасників.
3. Складність завдання.
4. Інформаційна нерівність партнерів (учасники, які мають різні інтереси, різні захоплення доповнюють один одного).
5. Творчий характер.

Для того, щоб розвинути у студентів комунікативні вміння поза мовним оточенням, недостатньо наповнювати заняття умовно-комунікативними або комунікативними вправами, які дозволяють вирішувати комунікативні задачі. Важливо запропонувати студентам мислити, вирішувати проблеми, які породжують думки, міркування над можливими шляхами рішення цих проблем з тим, щоб студенти акцентували увагу на змісті висловлювання, щоб у центрі уваги була думка, а мова виступала у своїй прямій функції формування і формулювання цих думок.

Під час обговорення теоретичних і практичних проблем на заняттях з англійської мови доцільно використовувати метод дискусії для обміну досвідом між студентами, для уточнення й узгодження позицій усіх учасників обговорення, для вироблення єдиного підходу до аналізу певного явища та ін.

Метод навчальних дискусій покращує і зміцнює знання, збільшує обсяг засвоєної інформації, розвиває вміння сперечатися, доводити, захищати і відстоювати свою точку зору, а також прислуховуватися до думки інших.

Дискусія потребує належної організації, тому викладачеві слід завчасно скласти план її проведення. В ньому зазвичай передбачають:

- декілька ключових питань і блоків (по 3-4 додаткових питання до кожного вузлового), за допомогою яких опановують основний зміст теми;
- вступ, спрямований на зав'язку дискусії;
- основні аргументи й тези, які будуть головними орієнтирами під час обговорення;
- завдання для найбільш успішних студентів, які передбачають взяття на себе ролі опонентів з низки ключових позицій. Іноді основні питання оформлюються у вигляді спеціальних схем, в яких лише одне з трьох-чотирьох положень є вірним. Необхідність вибору пробуджує активність мислення, бажання подискутувати, висловити власну точку зору.

Дискусія має певну динаміку, в якій явно виділяються три етапи: зав'язка, колективне обговорення, підведення підсумків.

**Зав'язка дискусії.** Тема пропонується у вигляді розумової задачі, вирішити яку однозначною відповіддю неможливо, адже вона потребує роздумів, які дають різні варіанти відповіді. Задачі мають відповідати інте-

ресам і віковим потребам студентів. За таких умов дискусія сприймається як життєва, актуальна та вагома.

У вступному слові викладач не просто пропонує виступити, відповідати на запитання, а створює інтелектуально-емоційну атмосферу, яка спонукає учасників дискусії вільно висловлюватися, ставити нові питання, бути активними і допитливими. Викладач стимулює дискусію на порівнянні двох або більше думок, зіставленні позицій і відповідних аргументів. Не менш ефективними є завдання, орієнтовані на пошук причин і мотивів певних подій та рішень, на прогнозування можливих результатів і наслідків. Розв'язання такого роду проблем є доброю базою для дискусій.

**Колективне обговорення.** Із залученням студентів до спільного пошуку вирішення поставленої проблеми з'являється змагальний дух і зацікавленість.

Для керівництва дискусією використовують у тому числі такі прийоми:

- «підкидання дров у піч», тобто стимулювання процесів колективного мислення шляхом пропонування запитань, ситуацій та прикладів, які потребують спільного обговорення, під час якого висловлюються різні думки та формулюються відповідні висновки. Варіантом застосування зазначеного прийому є спільне обговорення точки зору, висловленої одним із учасників;

- стимулювання активності похвалою та виявом інтересу до висловленої думки;

- запрошення до дискусії пасивних студентів шляхом постановки релевантних їхнім індивідуальним інтересам та нахилам запитань;

- м'яке стримування занадто активних учасників дискусії шляхом постановки питань, які вимагають часу на переосмислення і відповідної предметної підготовки, або ж через прямі заклики до стриманості;

- зняття емоційного напруження та навіть конфліктних ситуацій в групі за рахунок вдалого, доречного й своєчасного жарту, використання гумору;

- моніторинг послідовності досягнення цілей дискусії за рахунок формулювання проміжних висновків, які фіксують успішність розв'язання одного питання і можливість переходу до розгляду іншого.



Під час проведення дискусії слід враховувати індивідуальні типи поведінки її окремих учасників: тактовно зупиняти тих, хто схильний до екстенсивної вербальної комунікації, а також тих, хто зміщує акценти з обговорюваної теми на іншу, не релевантну, проблематику; частіше цікавитися думкою тих, хто намагається відмовчуватися; допомагати правильно ставити питання і виказувати свою думку щодо аналізованої проблеми; своєчасно реагувати на неправильні узагальнення та ін.

Оскільки дискусія як формат спілкування з метою пошуку істини завжди містить в собі елемент суперечки, важливим виявляється акцентувати увагу студентів на тому, що:

- у суперечці потрібно бути готовим до того, що твоя точка зору може скептично сприйматися іншими учасниками. При цьому не варто вважати подібне ставлення ознакою консерватизму аудиторії чи виявленням з боку інших особистісного несприйняття автора ідеї, адже воно може мати цілком виправданий об'єктивний характер;

- для подолання відношення несприйняття необхідна інтелектуальна мобілізація, знаходження переконливої аргументації правильності своєї позиції;

- суперечка не є самоціллю: не слід сперечатися лише задля задоволення обміну контраргументами;

- людині властиво помилятися: помилок боятися не слід;

- істина народжується лише у тих, хто здійснює ментальні зусилля для її пошуку, генерує ідеї і ставить їх під сумнів, ставить питання і віднаходить відповіді на них;

- суперечка – це бажане явище за умови, якщо проходить в атмосфері розумового змагання за правилами *fair play*: розбіжностей не уникнути, але сама суперечка не повинна призводити до взаємних образ;

- надзвичайно важливо напрацювати в собі культуру усних виступів, пам'ятаючи, що врешті-решт більш переконливою є м'яка манера, без зайвої категоричності та агресивності.

Під час підведення підсумків дискусії слід намагатися дійти спільної погодженої позиції в межах відведеного часу. Оскільки досягнення консенсусу вимагає не лише спільних зусиль усіх сторін, але й відповідного часу, потрібно слідкувати, аби дискусія, якою б цікавою вона не була, не пе-

ретворилася на самоціль – іноді її доцільно навіть припинити заздалегідь, аби залишився час на підведення підсумків.

Реалізація принципів проблемного навчання на заняттях з англійської мови у вищій школі пов'язана із застосуванням низки активних методів: методу «круглого столу», ділових ігор, мозкового штурму, аналізу конкретних ситуацій.

Колективний обмін думками, спільний пошук істини за **«круглим столом»** визнано одним із ефективних лінгводидактичних методів, застосування якого виявляє виховний, навчальний, розвиваючий вплив на представників студентської аудиторії. Попри зовнішню спонтанність мовленнєвої поведінки учасників дискусії, «круглі столи» вимагають ретельної підготовки, до якої активно залучаються студенти.

Зокрема, студенти можуть пропонувати проблему для обговорення, яка завчасно повідомляється запрошеним на «круглий стіл». Викладач як номінальний ведучий дискусії ретельно готується в рамках запропонованої тематики, враховуючи всі побажання для того, щоб заняття пройшло активно, а студенти не тільки ставили питання, але й виказували власну точку зору.

Викладач планує захід таким чином, щоб в ньому брали участь усі присутні, а не лише ведучий і запрошені гості. Інакше це буде не круглий стіл, а зустріч питань і відповідей. Слід намагатися створити на занятті довірливу, доброзичливу атмосферу. Під час підведення підсумків дискусії, обов'язково потрібно відзначити тих, хто брав у ній особливо активну участь.

Для підвищення зацікавленості студентів до вивчення іноземної мови, стимулювання їхньої активності в оволодінні предметними знаннями та способами соціально прийнятної і професійно доцільної поведінки слід застосовувати в лінгводидактичному процесі формат ділової гри.

**Ділова гра** – це педагогічний прийом моделювання проблемних ситуацій професійної діяльності, який має на меті навчання студентів прийняття рішень. Заняття у формі ділової гри в значній мірі активізують навчально-виховний процес, сприяють розвитку творчого мислення майбутніх фахівців, навчають цілеспрямовано застосовувати знання на практиці.

Організація ділової гри на заняттях і підготовка до неї – творчий процес, який потребує зацікавленості та ініціативності викладача і студента.

Плануючи ділову гру, слід прогнозувати етапи й засоби досягнення її необхідних проміжних і кінцевих цілей, а також дотримуватися визначених методичних вимог задля найбільш повної реалізації лінгводидактичного потенціалу цього формату навчальної співпраці.

Зокрема, ділова гра повинна проводитися в атмосфері невимушеності й творчого пошуку із залученням максимально доцільної кількості учасників. Ефективність застосування ділових ігор залежить від того, наскільки враховано інтелектуальні здібності, вікові та індивідуально-психологічні особливості студентів, їхній рівень знань і сфера інтересів.

Ділова гра зазвичай складається з трьох етапів: 1) підготовчий етап (формулювання цілей гри, розробка її правил, визначення і розподіл ролей з урахування індивідуальних особливостей студентів, продумування критеріїв оцінки ефективності дій учасників, методичне й матеріальне забезпечення гри, визначення завдань на самопідготовку, розрахунок часу, теоретична підготовка та ін.); 2) проведення ділової гри; 3) підведення підсумків.

Таким чином, ділові ігри змінюють звичний хід занять з іноземної мови, розвивають творчі здібності студентів, формують практичні навички й уміння, що забезпечують ефективність дій у мінливих реаліях професійного та соціального життя, відтак створюють умови для самореалізації й самовдосконалення особистості.

Сутність методу «**мозковий штурм**» полягає в колективному пошуку нетрадиційних шляхів вирішення проблеми, що виникла. Мозковий штурм сприяє розвитку динамічності розумових процесів, здатності абстрагуватися від повсякденних умов та існуючих обмежень, від звичайних поглядів на явища й процеси, формує вміння зосереджуватися на будь-якій вузькій актуальній меті.

Під час планування «мозкового штурму» слід дотримуватися таких умов і правил: спрямованість творчого пошуку на один об'єкт, недопустимість відходу від стрижневого напрямку; стислість і зрозумілість вираження думки учасниками мозкового штурму; неприпустимість критичних зауважень щодо висловлюваних точок зору; недопустимість дублювання точок зору, сформульованих іншими учасниками мозкового штурму; небажаність уникнення учасників від пропозиції висловитися під приводом того, що іншими вже все сказано; стимулювання самостійності мислення й

висловлювання суджень; можливість і бажаність подальшого розвитку положень і думок, висловлених раніше; тактовне й доброзичливе проведення мозкового штурму ведучим; ведучим призначається людина, яка добре обізнана, компетентна у проблематиці, що обговорюється, і користується авторитетом; відкритість у представленні ідей, які отримали визнання.

Метод «інтелектуального штурму» сприяє формуванню у студентів важливих навичок соціальної взаємодії та комунікативних умінь, розвиває здібності самостійно знаходити й використовувати необхідну інформацію, дозволяє удосконалити навички самоконтролю і взаємоконтролю, виховує готовність до взаємодопомоги, толерантність, емпатію.

Для розв'язання виховних, навчальних і розвивальних задач засобами проблемного навчання **метод аналізу конкретних ситуацій** є найбільш ефективним прийомом на всіх етапах лінгводидактичного процесу. Перевага цього методу полягає у тому, що на заняттях з'являється унікальна можливість створити конкретні проблемні ситуації, які взяті зі студентського, побутового і сімейного життя. Молодь з особливим ентузіазмом беруть участь в аналізі ситуації і приймають оптимальні рішення, оскільки теми для обговорення виявляються релевантними та зрозумілими, а відповідно цікавими й актуальними. Залежно від теми й особливостей змісту матеріалу можна застосовувати різні **види проблемних ситуацій**.

1. Ситуація-ілюстрація. Наводиться приклад з практики відповідної сфери діяльності або особистого досвіду. Наприклад, показуються роботи інших студентів, які досягли значних успіхів в навчанні.

2. Ситуація-оцінка. Учасникам пропонується описати конкретну подію, наприклад, оцінити значущість ситуації і правильність дій студентів. Необхідно проаналізувати ситуацію, дати оцінку правильності дій і запропонувати власний варіант розв'язання.

3. Ситуація-вправа. Студенти проводять на занятті окреме дослідження. Наприклад, кожний учасник отримує завдання – провести дослідження в групі (скільки часу опитувані проводять біля телевізора, які їхні улюблені програми та ін.), опитати інших студентів, заповнити таблицю, проаналізувати результати, зробити висновки, дати пораду або поділитися досвідом.

Беручи до уваги напрацювання провідних фахівців у галузі проблемного навчання й опираючись на наш власний досвід, ми можемо стверджувати, що проблемні ситуації доречно активно використовувати у навчанні іноземної мови у ВНЗ. Застосування проблемних ситуацій на занят-

тях з іноземної мови переорієнтовує процес навчання від сухого неефективного заучування лексики та граматики, на чому традиційно базувалось викладання іноземної мови у ВНЗ, до реалізації комунікативних намірів. Наведемо приклади деяких проблемних ситуацій в межах теми «Вища освіта. Найвідоміші університети», яка входить до змісту дисципліни «Англійська мова для професійного спілкування».

Введення теми може супроводжуватись наступною проблемною ситуацією. Студентам протягом 1 хв. пропонується уважно вивчити картинку, на якій зображено фасад університету / територію / навчальний процес / бібліотеку тощо. Картинку забирають. Далі викладач озвучує твердження із застосуванням активної лексики. Студенти або підтверджують, або спростовують інформацію. З наступною картинкою студенти працюють у малих групах і самі складають твердження до картинки.

Наступною проблемною ситуацією може слугувати створення презентацій обраних студентами найвідоміших університетів. Під час презентації ті, хто слухають, заповнюють інформаційну таблицю, потім порівнюють отримані данні, висловлюють переваги та недоліки навчання в кожному із вказаних університетів. Таблиця вміщує наступні поля для заповнення: Name of the educational establishment, The year/ century of foundation, Structure, Admission requirements, Curriculum, Library, Students' life (societies, clubs, sports teams, etc.), Scientific achievements, Famous graduates, Peculiarities.

На заключному етапі вивчення теми студентам можна запропонувати взяти участь в уявному педагогічному форумі чи конференції. Учасники заздалегідь поділені на малі групи по 2-3 осіб. Кожна група представляє певний відомий навчальний заклад. До групи варто включити керівництво закладу, викладача та студента. Університет має відповідати обраному фаху студентів (педагогічний, технічний, медичний). Їхнє завдання полягає у висвітленні переваг навчатися саме у їхньому університеті й переконати абітурієнтів вступати саме до їхнього університету тощо. Усі учасники беруть активну участь в обговоренні, задають питання, наводять приклади, надають переконливі докази тощо.

Створення подібних проблемних ситуацій на заняттях з іноземної мови сприяє розвитку інтелектуальних і творчих здібностей студентів, формує такі навички й уміння, які допоможуть їм самостійно здобувати необхідні знання, підвищує якість їхньої професійної підготовки.

Отже, проблемно-орієнтоване навчання на заняттях з англійської мови «навчає вчитися» і створює атмосферу невимушеного спілкування, де змінюється роль викладача. Особливо помітно це спостерігається під час застосування активних форм навчання. Взаємовідносини, побудовані на співпраці, взаємодопомозі, навчають жити в соціумі. Викладач бере активну участь як помічник, порадник, джерело інформації, поділяючи загальну відповідальність за результат.

Проблемно-орієнтоване навчання на заняттях є ефективнішим, якщо проблемні питання стосуються самого студента, передбачають використання його власного життєвого досвіду (взаємовідносини в родині, захоплення, проблеми молоді). Досвід роботи свідчить, що наближати проблемні питання до умов реального спілкування можливо не тільки за рахунок життєвих ситуацій, але й за рахунок підвищення новизни інформації, що, без сумніву, пробуджує цікавість до них.

Проблемно-орієнтоване навчання на заняттях з англійської мови має практичну значущість у формуванні особистості, оскільки студенти отримують можливість обговорити проблеми, пов'язані з історією, педагогікою, географією, психологією, літературою, музикою тощо. Інтегровані заняття сприяють створенню цілісного сприйняття оточуючого світу: готують молодь до культурного, професійного й особистісного спілкування, розвивають уяву, фантазію, мислення, стимулюють інтерес, підтримують високу мотивацію до вивчення іноземних мов, долучають до культурного спадку та духовних цінностей свого народу і народів усього світу.

Проблемне навчання передбачає застосування нових прийомів у навчальному процесі, поживляє та активізує їх, виключає бездумне заучування і переказ «книжкових» знань, залучає активне мислення, творчу самостійність в процес пізнання світу.

Методика проблемно-орієнтованого навчання відрізняється від традиційної тим, що ставить студента в таке становище, коли він вимушений активно й інтенсивно мислити, мобілізуючи свій інтелектуальний потенціал для розв'язання проблеми та формування теоретичного висновку. Отриманий в самостійному пошуку теоретичний висновок засвоюється студентом як результат його власної праці. А викладач допомагає в пошуку як влучним формулюванням і постановкою проблем, так і показом логіки їхнього рішення, але не у формі підказки висновків-відповідей.

Таким чином, проблемно-орієнтоване навчання на заняттях з англійської мови доповнює традиційне ілюстративно-пояснювальне навчання студентів. Разом з тим, воно сприяє руйнації старих стереотипів пасивного

навчання, змушує студентів мислити, шукати разом з викладачем відповіді на складні життєві питання.

Узагальнюючи вищесказане, варто відмітити, що проблемне навчання стимулює особистісну активність студентів, а це забезпечує ініціативне ставлення до здобуття знань, систематичність і наполегливість пізнавальних дій, і насамперед, позитивний результат в навчанні й вихованні. У студентів зменшується острах припускатися помилок, вони стають більш впевненими в собі, спокійнішими, уважнішими, а під час виконання практичних завдань проявляється самоконтроль. Окрім цього, змінюється поведінка студентів в колективі: вони поводять себе активніше, дослухаються один одного, захищають свою точку зору. Студенти стають комунікабельнішими, тонко відчують твори мистецтва, вміють обґрунтувати свою точку зору, знаходять свій спосіб вираження думок і почуттів. Зникає байдужість і пасивність, з'являється зацікавленість, допитливість, впевненість, увага.

Викладачі іноземної мови, застосовуючи проблемно-орієнтоване навчання, ненав'язливо стимулюють студентів працювати на заняттях творчо, активно, спонукаючи їх до прогнозування подій ще до опрацювання матеріалу, розвинути головну думку, у змагальній формі знайти ключові висловлювання, виконати проектну роботу на основі опрацьованої інформації.

Перевагами проблемно-орієнтованого навчання у вивченні іноземної мови вважають: самостійне оволодіння знаннями шляхом власної творчої діяльності, розвиток продуктивного мислення, високий інтерес до навчального процесу. До недоліків належать: слабка керованість пізнавальною діяльністю студентів, великі затрати часу на досягнення запроєктованих цілей, недостатній рівень мовної підготовки студентів, нестача часу на ретельне вивчення тієї чи іншої теми.

Становлення фахівця нового рівня, наділеного творчими здібностями, критичним мисленням, професійною компетентністю, здатністю виробляти й приймати рішення в мінливій ситуації, в тому числі засобами іноземної мови з врахуванням особливостей культури іншого народу, передбачає застосування проблемно-орієнтованого навчання. Таке навчання дозволяє майбутнім фахівцям будь-якої галузі формувати певні моделі наукового дослідження, випробовувати себе на професійну придатність, шукати найефективніші шляхи розв'язання поставлених завдань й прогнозувати результати їх вирішення засобами іншомовної комунікативної компетенції.

## Література

1. Barrows, H. S. (1996). Problem-based learning in medicine and beyond. In L. Wilkerson, & W. H. Gijsselaers (Eds.), *Bringing problem-based learning to higher education: Theory and practice. New directions for teaching and learning*. No. 68. (pp. 3-13). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers.
2. Barrows, H. S. (1996). Problem-based learning in medicine and beyond. In L. Wilkerson, & W. H. Gijsselaers (Eds.), *Bringing problem-based learning to higher education: Theory and practice. New directions for teaching and learning*, No. 68. (pp. 3-13). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers.
3. Beringer, Jason. (2007). Application of Problem Based Learning through Research Investigation. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*. Vol. 31: P. 445-457.
4. Cockrell, Karen Sunday, & Caplow, Julie A. Hughes. (2000). Context for Learning: Collaborative Groups in the Problem-Based Learning Environment. *The Reviews of Higher Education*. Volume 23, no 3: 347 p.
5. Dmitrenko, N. (2016) Implementation of problem-based learning in tutorials at higher educational institution / *Innovative Solutions in Modern science*. – Dubai, #1 (1), 2016. – 167 p. – PP.77-82. : <http://naukajournal.org/index.php/ISMSD>
6. Dmitrenko, N. (2016) The implementation of problem-based learning in Ukrainian higher educational institutions // *Advanced Education*, KPI. – 2016, #5. – P. 28-35.
7. Dmitrenko, N., Dolia, I. (2016) Problem-based learning at the lessons of foreign language in the higher educational institutions “*Modern informational technologies and innovative methods in professional training: methodology, theory, experience, problems*”, Issue 46, P. 166-170, Vinnytsia, Ukraine.
8. Dmitrenko, Natalia. (2016). Problem-based learning as a learner-centred approach: general review. Proceedings of the international conference “*Modern peculiarities of the identity formation and social adaptation in conditions of liberal values crisis*”, 9.02.2016. – 15.02.2016, London, UK.
9. Hmelo-Silver, C. E. (2004). Problem based learning: What and how do students learn? *Educational Psychology Review*, 16, P. 235-266.
10. Maurer H., Neuhold Ch. (2012). PBL in European studies – Maastricht experience: The Higher Education Academy Social Science Conference “*Ways of Knowing, Ways of Learning*”, 28 and 29 May 2012, Liverpool Session 4 – Tuesday, 29 May, 14h, Canada Suite.
11. Schmidt, H. G., Vermeulen, L., & Van der Molen, H. T. (2006). Longterm effects of problem-based learning: a comparison of competencies acquired by graduates of a problem-based and a conventional medical school. *Medical education*, 40(6), 562-567.
12. Schmidt, H.G., (1993). Foundations of Problem Based Learning: some explanatory notes. Maastricht: University of Limburg. *Medical Education*, 1993, 27 (5), 422-432.



## ВИСНОВКИ

Беручи до уваги напрацювання провідних фахівців у галузі проблемно-орієнтованого навчання й опираючись на наш власний досвід, ми можемо стверджувати, що ПОН доречно активно застосовувати у навчанні іноземної мови у ВНЗ. Застосування проблемних ситуацій на заняттях з іноземної мови сприяє розвитку інтелектуальних і творчих здібностей студентів, формує такі навички й уміння, які допоможуть їм самостійно здобувати необхідні знання, підвищує якість їхньої професійної підготовки.

Проблемно-орієнтоване навчання на заняттях з англійської мови «навчає вчитися» і створює атмосферу невимушеного спілкування, де змінюється роль викладача. Взаємовідносини побудовані на співпраці, взаємодопомозі, навчають жити в соціумі. Викладач бере активну участь як помічник, порадник, є джерелом інформації, розділяє загальну відповідальність за результат.

Проблемно-орієнтоване навчання на заняттях з англійської мови має практичну значущість у формуванні особистості, оскільки студенти обговорюють проблеми, які пов'язані з історією, педагогікою, географією, психологією, літературою, музикою і т. і. Інтегровані заняття сприяють створенню цілісного сприйняття оточуючого світу: готують молодь до культурного, професійного й особистісного спілкування, розвивають уяву, фантазію, мислення, стимулюють інтерес, підтримують високу мотивацію до вивчення іноземних мов, долучають до культурного спадку і духовних цінностей свого народу й народів усього світу.

Проблемно-орієнтоване навчання вносить у навчальний процес нові прийоми, оживлює і активізує їх, виключає бездумне заучування і переказ «книжкових» знань, залучає активне мислення, творчу самостійність у процес пізнання світу.

Методика застосування проблемно-орієнтованого навчання відрізняється від традиційного тим, що студент опиняється в ситуації, коли він змушений активно й інтенсивно мислити, мобілізуючи свій інтелектуальний потенціал для вирішення проблеми і формування теоретичного висновку. Отриманий в самостійному пошуку теоретичний висновок засвоюється студентом як плід його власної праці. Викладач допомагає влучно сформулювати і подати проблему, настановує на логічний шлях її розв'язання,

і в жодному разі не пропонує готову підказку у формі висновків-відповідей.

На завершення слід відмітити, що проблемне навчання забезпечує активне ставлення студентів до власної освіти, передбачає систематичність і наполегливість у здобутті нових знань, рівноправну співпрацю, мотивує студентів до вивчення англійської мови. Вони стають комунікабельнішими, тонше відчують твори мистецтва, вміють обґрунтувати власну точку зору, знаходять свій неповторний спосіб вираження думок і почуттів, з'являється зацікавленість, допитливість, ентузіазм. У студентів зникає страх помилитися, вони стають спокійнішими, впевненішими, уважнішими. Спостерігається помітне поживлення взаємодії студентів на заняттях. Мовлення з незв'язного й односкладного перетворюється у свідому розповідь. Характер і рівень складності питань студентів змінюється від репродуктивних до продуктивних. Помітним стає самоконтроль. Змінюється поведінка студентів у колективі: вони стають активнішими й енергійнішими, але уважно слухають й чують один одного, захищають свою позицію, проте проявляють толерантність до протилежної точки зору.

Таким чином, проблемно-орієнтоване навчання на заняттях з англійської мови доповнює традиційне ілюстративно-пояснювальне навчання студентів, сприяє руйнації старих стереотипів пасивного сприйняття інформації, змушує студентів мислити, шукати відповіді на складні життєві питання й самостійно приймати рішення, стимулює розвиток пізнавальної активності, допомагає моделювати різноманітні ситуації у майбутній професійній діяльності.

# PART II



## INTRODUCTION

In modern higher educational institutions much attention is given to application of innovative methods of study in educational process. Rational combination of traditional and innovative methods of study promotes development of cognitive processes and creative abilities of students, their preparation for practical work. According to the latest world tendencies of improvement graduates' system of preparation, the main skills which should be set during the study are the following:

- the decision of problem: critical thinking, skill to analyse;
- educational skills: ability to extract new information, to draw conclusions from experience and to apply them in search of innovations;
- communicative skills: skill to read and write, find and use the information for dialogue with others;
- personal skills: self-organizing, acceptance of the proved decisions and monitoring of risks;
- social skills: cooperation and motivation of other members of a team, management of relations with the client, realization of management, the decision of conflicts, networking.

Among modern newest methods of the organization educational process which are applied to formation and development of the outlined skills, improvement process of mastering the material, teaching students to think and put knowledge into practice. **Problem-based learning (PBL)** occupies the main place in this process and allows the person to generate own positions on the basis of the available multidimensional information, to correlate them with thoughts of others, to find among them what are crossed with own opinions, and to develop the attitude towards the different points of view, that is to create information for specification, deepening and changes.

The purpose of the problem-based learning consists in maintenance of deep and all-round understanding of teaching material, development of analytical, creative thinking. It is the means of creation of motivation, stimulation of cognitive activity of students. The problem-based learning promotes integration of educational process with science, with problems of reality and with students' life experience. Application of PBL allows revealing a level of knowledge and abilities of students, it is better to understand their psychology. During the

problem-based learning students have opportunity of self-realization and development of team-work skills.

Problem-based learning is an approach of teaching students through analyzing and solving real-life problems related to the course. It has proved to be an active-learning and a learner-centred approach where problems are used as the starting point for examining the given information and finding the possible solution or explanation.

However, PBL is not just about problem-solving processes. Realistic problems are used as a starting point for learning where inquiry activities, self-directed learning, information mining, dialogue, and collaborative problem-solving are incorporated. Tutors rather facilitate the process of learning than merely teach. This approach stimulates students to play an active role in the learning process as compared to the passive information transmission, typical of traditional teaching methods.

The increasing demand of multidisciplinary learning has triggered the development of PBL which is thought to be the link between theory and practice. PBL emphasizes real-life competencies. Students learn to ask question and draw their own conclusions. PBL also helps promote critical thinking. To solve the problem students collect data, read available online materials, scan the information, discuss problems in groups and try to figure out the possible ways of solving problems.

According to our survey foreign language proficiency is a complex phenomenon which is an integrated part of specialists' professional competence. English is treated as a means of specialists' training. The knowledge of the language is not a goal but also a way to succeed in growing into an expert in a person's field of interest. At the same time the ambition to become a well-educated specialist helps students learn English.

Though PBL is considered to be an efficient method of teaching English for specific or professional needs, it is used only occasionally by some enthusiasts in Ukraine. Unfortunately, only some teachers try to implement PBL as a teaching approach in higher educational institutions for teaching English. They admit coming across the problem of organization and implementation of PBL in educational process.

# THE IMPLEMENTATION OF PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING IN UKRAINIAN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS



- *What is PBL?*
- *What are the main goals, components and principles of PBL?*
- *How and when can we use PBL?*
- *What are the major factors with the implementation of PBL in higher schools?*
- *How to implement interdisciplinary approach (on which PBL is used) within Ukrainian context?*

## **THE IMPLEMENTATION OF PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING IN UKRAINIAN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS**

PBL is a learner-centered approach introduced by Medical faculty at McMaster University in Canada, almost 50 years ago. Its origin comes from information processing theory, which suggests that learning is more effective when learners are motivated to restructure their previous knowledge based on additional information from a realistic context and by reflecting about recently acquired knowledge. Currently, it's largely employed in medical education worldwide, but also in other fields. This methodology considers the content of the curriculum, the way of learning is processed and empowers the student on learning process ("learning how to learn").

There is no consensus on a definition of PBL. The reason is that several variations of PBL have been implemented and studied. Schmidt (1995) made an attempt at providing a general characterization of PBL: "A collection of carefully constructed and engaging "problems" is presented to small groups of students. These problems usually consist of a description of a set of observable phenomena, situations, or events. The task of the group is to discuss these problems and elaborate on tentative explanations for the phenomena in terms of some underlying process, principle, or mechanisms" (Schmidt, 1995, p. 247).

Problem-based learning is a learning approach that seeks to create a link between theoretical knowledge and practice (Cockrell & Caplow, 2000). PBL is based on the concepts of Lev Vygotskyi about Social Development Theory, which considers learning as a social construction of knowledge. Due to this origin, PBL recognizes nothing can be learned in totality and learning needs to be shared among transdisciplinary groups (Missimer & Connell, 2012). It is essential to have collaborative groups in learning contexts to explore, analyze and solve the problems presented (Cockrell & Caplow, 2000).

### **PBL main goals are:**

- to develop group learning environments;
- to help students to learn and understand curriculum contents;
- to help students to acquire problem solving skills, to be used in their future practice;
- to improve communication and professional interaction (Sefton & Frommer, 2013).

**Five components** can be considered as the minimum standard set of necessary and sufficient characteristics that should be present in PBL:

1. Ill-structured problems are presented as unresolved so that students will generate not just multiple thoughts about the cause of the problem, but multiple thoughts on how to solve it (Barrows, 2002).
2. A student-centered approach provides the students with the opportunity to determine what they need to learn: to derive the key issues of the problems they face, define their knowledge gaps, and pursue and acquire the missing knowledge (Barrows, 2002; Hmelo-Silver & Barrows, 2006).
3. Teachers act as facilitators or tutors in the learning process.
4. Problems are selected from professional or “real world” (Barrows, 2002). The problems are inherently cross-disciplinary and require students to investigate multiple subjects (Barrows, 1996) in order to generate a workable solution.
5. PBL is typically undertaken in a small group setting (Barrows, 2002; Hmelo-Silver & Barrows, 2006). While groups of five to nine students were used in the original McMaster model for PBL (Barrows, 1996), these later definitions allow for the possibility of PBL without small group work. Thus, cases of large group PBL which were investigated by Barrows with favorable results (Barrows, Myers, Williams & Moticka, 1986).

Problem-based learning as a method of instruction stands firm within the rationalist tradition and is strongly influenced by cognitive psychology. Its roots can be traced to Dewey’s plea for the fostering of independent learning and who stressed the importance of learning in response to and in interaction with real-life events, and also to Bruner’s notion of intrinsic motivation as an internal force that drives the person (Schmidt, 1993).

Theoreticians and researchers have proposed a variety of **learning principles** that are implemented in PBL:

1. The prior knowledge people have regarding a subject is the most important determinant of the nature and amount of new information that can be processed. The availability of relevant prior knowledge is a necessary, yet not sufficient, condition for understanding and remembering new information. Prior knowledge also needs to be activated by cues in the context of which the information is being studied.



2. Knowledge is structured. The way in which it is structured in memory makes it more or less accessible for use.

3. Storing information in memory and retrieving it can be greatly improved when, during learning, elaboration of the material takes place.

4. The ability to activate knowledge in the long-term memory and to make it available for use depends on contextual cues.

5. High learning motivation prolongs the amount of study time (or processing time) and, hence, improves achievement (Clayton, 1996).

These principles are considered to be basic to many forms of human learning, comprehension and problem-solving and are the core of PBL.

There are several educational approaches which are based on similar principles. They include:

- project-based learning;
- case-based learning;
- competency-based learning;
- content-based learning;
- team-based learning;
- flipped classroom learning;
- task-based learning.

Comparing to all other existing methods based on direct instruction, PBL positions itself as a method involving heuristic search of a solution through engaging in team discussions, facilitated rather than led or dominated by the teacher.

While in other learning contexts, PBL is the tool for translating theoretical knowledge into practical decisions within a certain professional domain such as engineering, economics or science.

What makes problem-based learning unique is its core focus on learning through solving real, open-ended problems to which there are no fixed solutions (Ertmer, Lehman, Park, Cramer, & Grove, 2003).

Interest in learning has led to several new theories and related research about the underlying principles in the few past decades (Ormrod, 2006). It has also been shown that the four main strategies of PBL are collaborative, contextual, constructive and self-directed learning (Dolmans, De Grave, Wolfhagen, & Van der Vleuten, 2005). (*See app. A*). These strategies create an active and meaningful learning environment. Together they foster the cognitive,

motivational and social goals related to learning. Literature reveals that in PBL curricula students are more interested and motivated about their learning (Dolmans & Schmidt, 2006), have better interpersonal skills, better competencies in problem solving, self-directed learning (Schmidt, Vermeulen, & Van der Molen, 2006) and are more satisfied with the learning situation (Albanese & Mitchell, 1993).

The PBL approach is characterized by working in small groups on a presented scenario (e.g. problem or case), a teacher who facilitates the process by guiding the students and sufficient time for self-directed learning (Hmelo-Silver, 2004). In theory this approach enables the students to become more effective collaborators, develop self-directed learning and problem solving skills, construct an extensive flexible knowledge which goes beyond the learning of facts and raises the intrinsic motivation (Dmitrenko, 2016).

**The main steps of a tutorial session are:**

1. First, a problem is presented to the students.
2. Students discuss the problem in a small group PBL tutorial. They clarify the facts of the case, define what the problem is, brainstorm the ideas based on the prior knowledge, identify what they need to learn (learning issues), reason through the problem, and specify an action plan for working on the problem.
3. Students are also motivated to an independent study out of the tutorial guidance. This can include: library, databases, the web, resource people and observations.
4. Students come back to PBL tutorial(s) for sharing information, peer teaching and working together on the problem.
5. Students present their solution to the problem.
6. Students review what they have learnt from working on the problem. All who participated in the process engage in self, peer and tutor review of the PBL process and reflections on each person's contribution to that process (*See app. B*).

Tutorial groups typically consist of 6 to 10 students who meet for 2 to 3 hours per session, usually twice a week (Schmidt et al., 2007). These meetings are guided by a tutor and, in addition, two students in the group assume the roles of chair and scribe. In addition to tutorial meetings, lectures can be part of the curriculum, but their occurrence is intended to be limited (Schmidt et al., 2009) and not compulsory. They are typically comprehensive, rather than transmissive.

Each tutorial group is supported by an academic staff member, called a “tutor” who is meant to facilitate the learning process of the group (Schmidt & Moust 1998: 5-11; Moust & Nuy 1987), by asking provocative questions, providing feedback to the chair/secretary or the overall learning process of the group. At no point in time the tutor should lecture the group, but in case of problems, she/he should support the group in identifying what went wrong and what could be improved to get to a more successful learning process in the next assignment. However, as many colleagues often highlight, it is also extremely important especially when tutoring PBL-inexperienced students that the tutor is able to react to potentially distracting group dynamics, and stops the group in case they are “*going off the track*” (Maurer & Neuhold, 2012).

A balance is needed from the tutor’s part, sometimes more guidance will be needed compared to other times. Students new to PBL will benefit from having a more structured curriculum or more directive tutors. However, students that are used to PBL will benefit from more freedom in their learning path. The tutor should be able to adapt to the level of each student group and also be willing to receive feedback and reflect on how he/she is doing (Walsh, 2005).

Assessment in PBL can be done by tutors, peers, or oneself. Tutors can observe the skills and knowledge that learners use. Learners can reflect on their own work and that of their peers, how well the team works, how they feel about their work and progress, and what skills and knowledge they are gaining. Reflecting on work, checking progress, and identifying areas of strength and weakness are part of the learning process.

One part of the PBL process is regular feedback (called formative feedback) to all group members. It should be done at the end of each tutorial not in the form of marks but as statements and commentaries. Regular evaluation should not be interpreted as an assessment of the tutors’ or students’ performances, but rather as a means for checking whether this approach is meeting the students’ needs and is fitting well within the program. Without this feedback the problems in the group work may pile up and turn into a really distressing situation. The summative student evaluation (marks, credits) can take different aspects into account. For instance, the criteria can be knowledge application, critical thinking, self-directed study and collaboration, for professionalism and attitude during the discussion.

There are many opportunities for the creative combination of face-to-face mediation, technological mediation, and e-learning which can be used in PBL. Technology is critical to PBL in several ways. It can be used as a tool and resource 1) for inquiry (search engines), 2) collaboration (emails, on-line collaboration, participation in on-line courses), 3) presentation (different kinds of visual organizer software), 4) assessment (through electronic database, fulfilling online programme of learning activity), 5) as resources of inspiration for teachers (web-based ready-made problems that can serve as examples or classroom material). However, online format of PBL may pose such additional problems as technical problems, differences in students' feedback, it is more time-consuming both for the tutor and the students, slack activity or delay from some of the participants can hinder with the speed of the group progress. To our mind, one very important advantage of PBL online is that it creates a new kind of communicative learning space that reduces the sense of isolation and therefore increases students' motivation.

Problem-based curriculum demands a high standard regarding the problems used as starting points for learning. The purpose of problems is not only to integrate disciplines or subjects, but also to achieve the pedagogical core process of producing learning and competence. The critical point to a successful approach is the selection of ill-structured problems (often interdisciplinary) and a tutor who guides the learning process and conducts at the conclusion a thorough debriefing of the learning experience (Dmitrenko, 2016).

There is some evidence that graduates from PBL schools are better prepared in terms of general competences than their colleagues from non-PBL schools. Busari et al.(1997) showed that graduates from a PBL school felt better prepared in psychosocial and interpersonal skills. Antepohl et al. (2003) reported that graduates from a PBL curriculum felt well prepared for professional practice in the pre-registration period and specialty training, especially in terms of skills for communicating with people, co-operation with other professionals and the development of critical thinking and a scientific attitude. Schmidt and Van der Molen (2006) showed that alumni of a PBL medical school considered themselves to have been better prepared than their colleagues who had been trained in traditional curriculum with respect to the skills needed to collaborate with others, solve problems, run meetings and work independently. There was no difference in general academic knowledge and the

ability to write reports or papers. According to Koh and colleagues (2008) graduates of problem-based learning curriculum had better diagnostic and communication skills; had a greater appreciation for the cultural aspects of care as well as legal and ethical issues; demonstrated greater responsibility; and were better able to cope with uncertainty. However, other competencies, such as planning and organizing work, are in need of more explicit attention in undergraduate training (Norman, 2008). Schlett et al (2010) showed that among medical graduates in Germany, PBL demonstrated benefits with regard to competencies which were highly required in the job of physicians. Similar results showing better performance of PBL vs traditional methods were showed by the study of Imanieh et al (2014). Meo (2013) showed that students in the PBL group obtained significantly higher knowledge and skill scores in the respiratory physiology course compared with students in the traditional (LBL) style of medical schools. In other health students, like pharmacists, Galvao et al (2014) showed that knowledge was improved by the PBL method. It may be concluded that problem-based learning method leads to a significant increase in learning and recalling output compared to the traditional method.

Despite its increasing use and popularity, the PBL approach remains controversial. The main reason for this controversy is that, in spite of being the subject of extensive research, some aspects and influences of PBL remain unclear. For Ukrainian educators it is interesting to know how to implement interdisciplinary approach (on which PBL is based) within Ukrainian context with its strict division between academic disciplines and university departments.

Problem-Based Learning is a very broad concept that can be applied to a specific course or guide the set-up of the whole curriculum. Preconditions and challenges can be identified on three different levels: on the level of curriculum planning and structural preconditions; on the level of course planning (course assignment and other form of preparation); and last, on the level of implementation (role of tutors, students' performance and group dynamics) (Maurer H., Neuhold Ch., 2012).

So main steps for successful conversion to PBL are:

- It is necessary to create a sense of urgency of the faculty or university as a whole. The leadership needs to be convinced that PBL is the answer to the problems of their organization so that they will support the implementation, even when there are challenges. If PBL is introduced as part of a strategic

response to an external need or pressure, there is a greater chance that the implementation will be successful. External pressures might include the demand from industry that graduates acquire more relevant, job-related skills during their university studies, or changes in funding conditions or the need for universities to distinguish themselves with a unique selling point – such as a PBL curriculum.

– *A shift in culture* is required. In a traditional system, the teacher gives a lecture. The teacher presents knowledge and has the responsibility to ensure that all topics in the syllabus are covered in a logical sequence. In PBL, the tutor is more like a facilitator who promotes learning, without giving the students the correct answers. The students have to find answers to relevant problems themselves through active self-study and discussions in their groups about what they already know and what they need to learn to solve the problem at hand. Teachers therefore have less control over what students ‘cover’ since the students seek answers to their questions using a wider range of resources. It is necessary to train the tutors and assure them that this ‘loss of control’ is not an attack on their position.

– It is necessary to have a PBL *friendly organization*. Problems in PBL are by nature interdisciplinary. PBL is an educational systems approach and not just a classroom technique. It makes little sense to have an isolated PBL class, since the students need to learn how to work in a PBL environment and this takes practice. Therefore it makes sense that the entire curriculum uses PBL. To develop an integrated curriculum requires teamwork by teachers in a PBL friendly organisation. A PBL friendly organization also recognizes that the initial time investment in introducing PBL is high, and that the courses take more preparation.

– It is necessary to have an *operational infrastructure* that supports PBL. The way of working in PBL requires that there are many small rooms for the groups to meet as well as an effective means of scheduling classroom meetings and informing the tutors and students about these meetings.

– *The reward system* has to be consistent with PBL. Innovation and excellence in teaching need to be recognized as much as excellence in research.

– *Stakeholder management:* Tutors as well as students have to be trained in PBL. They need to understand the benefits of PBL and what is expected of them.



**Fig.1 Management of PBL**

**List of factors identified for successful implementation of PBL:**

1. Acceptance of change by all stake holders from traditional to PBL curriculum. The potential value of PBL has attracted increasing attention. Some professional schools have adopted PBL as a major feature of their programs, established schools have incorporated it in curriculum revisions and reports on higher education have featured PBL among recommendations as to good practice.

For small groups to function effectively, the facilitator must be familiar with teaching techniques of facilitating small groups. Similarly, it is important for tutors to be well informed about a problem and about related learning issues.

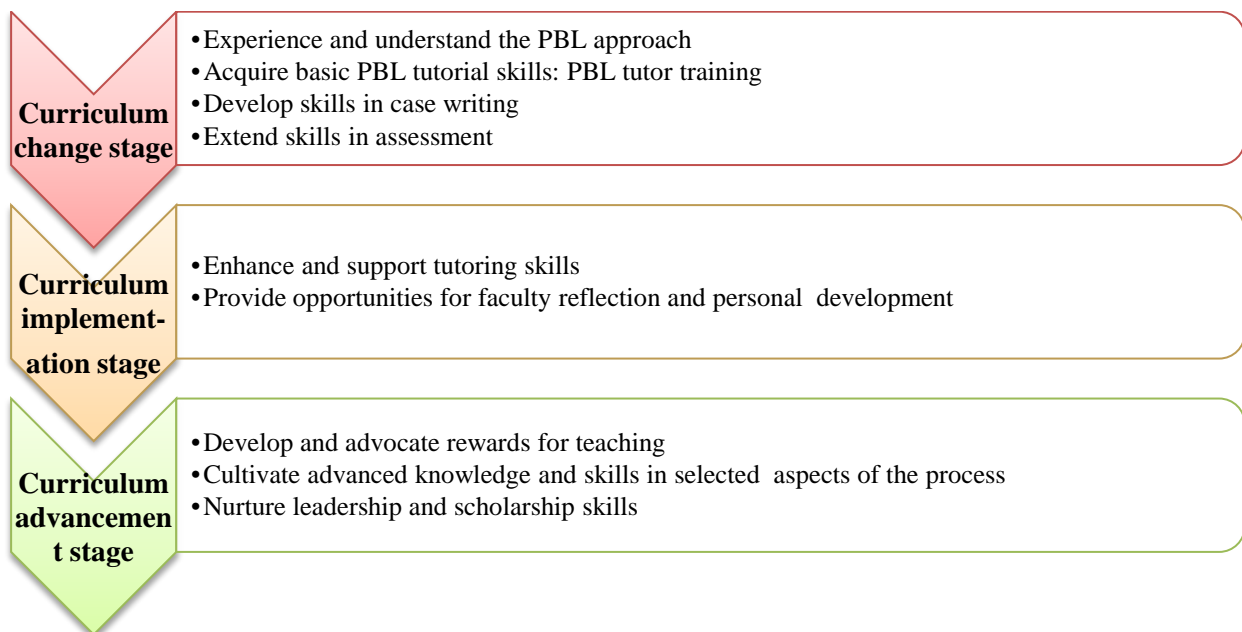
2. Faculty training and priming issues due to stress before or after change of roles of teacher from information provider to facilitator: integration of specialties and working with diverse situations.

Tutor’s tutoring skills are much more important in facilitating student learning than the tutor’s experience in the content of the problems.

This factor focuses on the ability of the subject expert in the conventional curriculum to adapt to the new role of a facilitator in a PBL setting. Again as the present assignment indicates, “Change or be changed”. In the article titled “Faculty development for problem-based learning” Elizabeth (2004) advocates that changing to PBL curriculum possesses substantial challenges to many faculty members who are not familiar with the process. She advocates that faculty development is a crucial component for a successful curriculum change.

Farmer, represents (2004) changing to a problem-based learning (PBL) curriculum a substantial challenge because many faculty members are unfamiliar with the process. Therefore, Faculty development is a crucial component of successful curriculum change to PBL.

The concept of an integrated multidisciplinary case-based curriculum may initially create substantial tensions and students will be able to learn using a PBL approach (Cowdroy R, 1993; Bernstein, Tipping, Bercovitz, Skinner, 1995; Lloyd-Jones, Ellershaw, Wilkinson, Bligh, 1998). Implementing PBL successfully depends on faculty being skilled in all aspects of the new learning process. This dilemma places faculty development in PBL. Therefore, a comprehensive and integrated faculty development programme for PBL is required. Figure 2 shows a sequence for planning a full faculty development programme, divided into three stages to reflect the process of transition to PBL and beyond. It aims to provide a logical approach for educators dealing with the challenge of preparing faculty for a PBL curriculum.



**Fig.2 Three stages of transition to PBL**

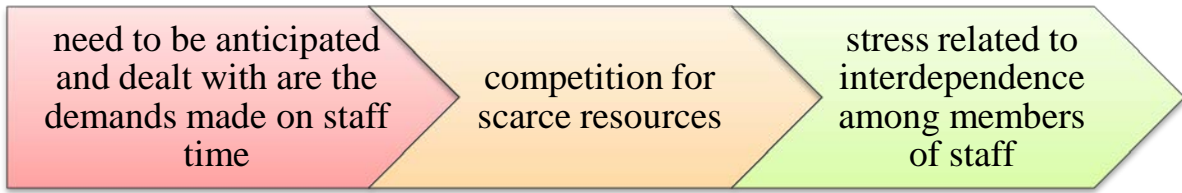
3. Strategies to deal with unforeseen problems arising out of implementation like; students unable to cope with study material, teachers unable to absorb integration of specialties, difficulty in self-directed learning practices, developing unrellevant skills, deficiency of basic knowledge.



The article by Norman & Schmidt (2000) stated that PBL does provide a more challenging, motivating and enjoyable approach to education. Despite of its increasing popularity, there is a question about the effectiveness of PBL. Kirschner (2006) claimed that PBL is less effective than traditional methods because its approach of providing minimum guidance is not compatible with human cognitive architecture. Albanese and Mitchell (1993) examined from 1972 to 1992 and Vernon and Blake (1993) examined from 1970 to 1992 both meta-analyses concluded that the PBL research findings were mixed and inconclusive, and they both agreed that in general, traditional curriculum students perform better on basic science knowledge acquisition, while PBL students perform better on knowledge acquisition and reasoning. On the other hand, another issues of PBL implementation related to the students who are new to PBL reportedly experience discomfort and frustration at the initial stage of learning (see, for example, Dabbagh, Jonassen, Yueh, & Samouilova, 2000; Fiddler & Knoll, 1995; Hoffman & Ritchie, 1997; Jost, Harvard, & Smith, 1997; Schultz-Ross & Kline, 1999). These negative experiences are most likely due to the students' habits of mind toward learning. The traditional "feeding-and-regurgitating" instructional methods (Langer, 1997) fail to cultivate students' self-directed learning skills, and consequently they are hesitant or even resistant to taking an active role in learning processes. The extreme change of roles in their own learning causes them to be "uneasy" in their PBL learning process. Moreover, students need to possess a certain degree of self-directedness to successfully accomplish the learning tasks in PBL, which poses a great challenge for those who are not naturally self-directed learners. Although most PBL studies have shown that students developed positive attitudes toward the end of the term (Dabbagh et al., 2000), the painful transition and adjustment are a long and slow process (Schmidt, Boshuizen, & de Vries, 1992) and may be detrimental to learning.

4. Understand the principles of smooth implementation. Why? How? When? The difficulties for the university authorities in terms of management, staffing, training for staff, the subject experts as well as the students and other stakeholders regarding change management.

Barrows & Tamblyn (1980) acknowledge a number of problems that might affect the transition from a traditional programme to PBL.



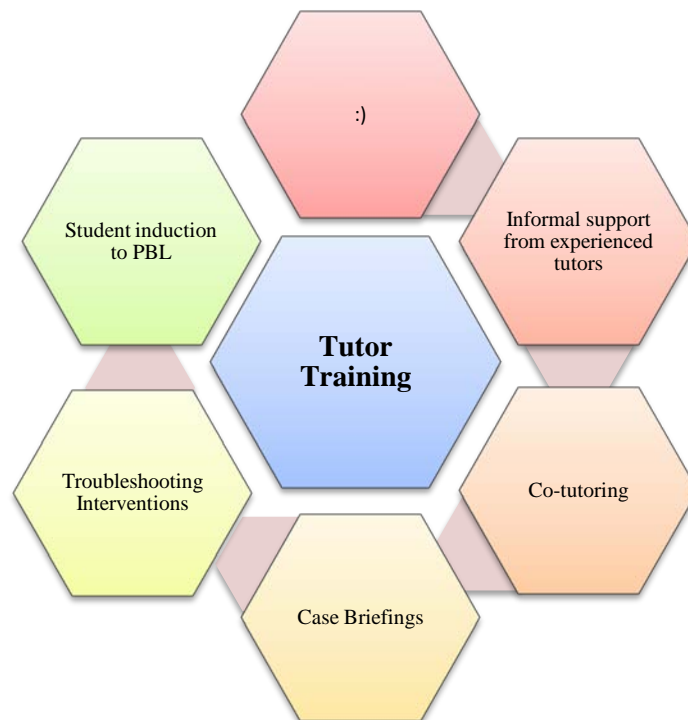
**Fig.3 Problems that might affect the transition to PBL**

Interestingly, Albanese & Mitchell (1993), Problem-based Learning required 22% more time than the more traditional mode of teaching: a 98-week lecture course required 120 weeks using PBL. When tutors consider the time per week in preparation for teaching problems, in comparison to presenting lectures, they may notice that it takes more time. Albanese & Mitchell (1993) found that instead of 8.6 hours per week primarily preparing lectures, faculty spent 20.6 hours per week primarily in groups with students.

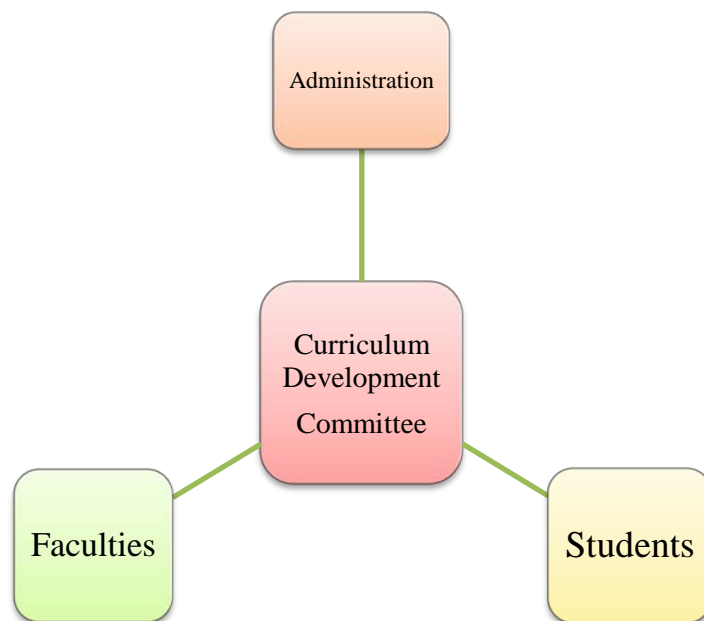
Shanley and Kelly (1994) also comment PBL is intensive in terms of resources and time, both for students and staff. Aldred (1997) noted that during the various phases of implementation, especially in relation to problem design, staff reported spending a large amount of time on Problem-based Learning during the week.

Edens (2000) reports that Problem-based Learning process cycle could sometimes be frustrating for the students, especially when information and resources were often needed at short notice. For example, books need to be made available for a large cohort of students.

Berkson (1993) notes that time constraints, poor student motivation, evaluation problems, concerns about student-directed learning and a lack of structure coupled with loss of faculty control were problems that can act as barriers to the implementation of Problem-based Learning. Moreover, these issues need to look as a critical point of view during or before the implementation.



**Fig.4 Steps of training of PBL tutor**



**Fig.5 The ways how to make conversion to PBL curriculum successful**

To guarantee and sustain the success of conversion to PBL curriculum a close and continuous collaboration between administration, faculties and students is crucial.

There is no absolute priority; all of them are pillar contributors for making the change successful. Any defect can undermine the conversion process.

A curriculum development committee plays an important role for continuous control of the process by collecting, analysing and providing needed adjustment to prevent PBL curriculum disfunction.

Thus, recommendations affecting the successful implementation and maintenance of PBL are:

1. Administration will provide human (course designer, experts, tutor/mentor/coaches, educationist, producers, secretary...) and material (small group teaching rooms, labs, library, study area, IT material, journal and book access, training structure in intra and extramural area...) resources.

2. Skilful implementing team including administrators/managers, curriculum/instructional designers, faculty trainers (support committee such as faculty development committee, assessment committee, student advisor committee...) and student representatives/associations.

3. Trained, motivated and enthusiastic working team: tutors – coaches – mentors.

4. Actively implicated students: gauging students' perspective and expectation and encourage student participation, reflection and feedback.

5. Proper assessment plan aligned with ILOs and the method of teaching.

6. Continuous follow up and feedback from all stakeholders.

7. Quality assurance monitoring: continuous monitoring of the process of implementation by collecting and analysing feedback and KPIs for establishment of plan for improvement and researches.

Setting-up a university programme based fully on PBL is resource-intense: splitting the student cohort in groups of 6-10 puts considerable constraints on scheduling and organisation. It has to be considered that for this kind of teaching an appropriate number of smaller rooms with the necessary equipment is needed (i.e. whiteboard, eventually beamer and computer) that also allow the group to face each other (i.e. to sit in a circle). As self-study is a central element of students to learn in a PBL environment, the importance of the library also increased considerably: students are supposed to have access to various kinds of literature, and students also spend a vast amount of their time in the library reading and preparing during their self-study. Additionally PBL is staff-intensive for the faculty, as each tutorial group has to be accompanied by a tutor.

One of the major problems anticipated with the implementation of PBL in Ukrainian learning process is the disparity between the nature of PBL and

Ukrainian traditional educational settings. Firstly, their goals are different. While PBL aspires to lifelong skills, traditional educational settings covet curriculum coverage and excellence in high-stake examinations (Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Savery, 2006). Thus, PBL's student-centred approach and strong focus on process skills may not be considered a superior approach to the tried-and-tested methods of teaching. Hence, there is the possibility of reverting to the didactic, drill-and-practice methods that have seemingly proven their worth over the years. Another source of complication comes from the disparity between the rigid university structure in Ukraine and the more fluid and multidisciplinary nature of PBL. The highly structured classroom organization and the compartmentalized subjects in the Ukraine university curriculum present a hurdle in accommodating the flexibility in time and subject organization needed for the implementation of PBL.

Unfortunately, interdisciplinary approaches are not supported well by formal education institutions that divide and identify problems in terms of strict disciplinary perspectives. It turns out that the transition to PBL in an existing institute with its own traditions on teaching and learning has serious challenges. It makes a difference whether PBL is concentrated in isolated projects or it is considered a leading principle throughout the curriculum. As a result there is a multitude of more or less differentiated PBL formats, mixing characteristics of case based and project organized PBL and integrating more or less elements from the traditional curriculum.

One may follow the next advice in shifting to PBL curriculum in Ukrainian higher educational institutions:

1. Look at the curriculum as a whole, including all curriculum elements.
2. Think of the coherence between the curriculum and the organization culture.
3. Employ a range of strategies for change, adapting to the situation.
4. Create a general view of the total change process.
5. Motivate staff and students.
6. Develop visions for long-term goals without compromising short-term goals.
7. Plan the development of teaching competences.
8. Raise funds.
9. Participate in network activities.

10. Establish a staff development unit responsible for recurring energizers.
11. Provide proof of the development of students' learning outcome.
12. Provide proof of the development of faculty's capacity.

The main concern of Ukrainian teachers is about the ability of integrated blocks to cover the relative subjects to the extent which is demanded by the final objectives of the degree programme. PBL courses designers state that "The members of the block planning group are responsible for ensuring maximum coverage by the block period for which they are responsible. This means that careful selection of the subjects to be offered is of the essence" (Graff, 2013).

Thus PBL is an outstanding model that meets the needs of our modern society and encourages successful life-long learning.

Problem-based learning focuses on learning through solving real, open-ended problems to which there are no fixed solutions. Problems can be taken from real-life news stories, generated by students themselves, and developed from realia. Students work in pairs or groups to understand the problem and then to find possible solutions to it.

Recent research reviews indicate that problem-based learning can lead to long-term learning outcomes, whereas traditional instruction leads to slightly better performance on short-term learning as measured on standardized tests. Problem-based learning is particularly effective in increasing engagement and reducing the achievement gap among participators.

Most PBL research studies have been conducted in European and American higher educational institutions and, as such, these findings may not be transferable to Ukrainian higher educational institution context without taking into consideration peculiarities of Ukrainian higher education. The main problem is how to implement interdisciplinary approach (on which PBL is based) within the Ukrainian context with its strict division between academic disciplines and university departments. Preconditions and challenges of PBL in Ukrainian higher educational institutions can be identified on three different levels: on the level of curriculum planning and structural preconditions; on the level of course planning (course assignment and other form of preparation); and on the level of implementation (role of tutors, students' performance and group dynamics). The correct implementation of PBL in Ukrainian higher educational institutions as a leading principle throughout the curriculum will lead to the integration of skills and intellectual activity of Ukrainian students and the

development of self-study and the ability to think independently and solve real life problems.

#### References:

1. Albanese, M. A., & Mitchell, S. (1993). Problem-based learning: a review of literature on its outcomes and implementation issues. *Academic medicine: Journal of the Association of American Medical Colleges*, 68(1), 52-81.
2. Antepohl, W., Doneij, E., Forsberg, P., & Ludvigsson, J. (2003). A follow up of medical graduates of a problem-based learning curriculum. *Medical Education*, 37, 155-162.
3. Barrows, H. S. (2002). Is it truly possible to have such a thing as a PBL? *Distance Education*, 23(1), 119-122.
4. Barrows, H. S. (1996). Problem-based learning in medicine and beyond. In L. Wilkerson, & W. H. Gijsselaers (Eds.), *Bringing problem-based learning to higher education: Theory and practice. New directions for teaching and learning, No. 68.* (pp. 3-13). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers.
5. Beringer, Jason. (2007). Application of Problem Based Learning through Research Investigation. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*. Vol. 31: 445-457.
6. Busari, J.O., Scherpber, A.J.J.A., & Boscheizen, H.P.G. (1997). Comparative study of medical education as perceived by students at three Dutch universities. *Advances in Health Sciences Education*, 1, 141-151.
7. Christensen, Clayton M., & Henry J. Eyring. (2011). *The Innovative University: Changing the DNA of Higher Education from the inside out.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2011.
8. Clayton, G., & Pierpoint, P. (1996). *Problem Based Learning: A Would-be Practitioner's Guide.* University of Plymouth Business School, October 1996.
9. Cockrell, Karen Sunday, & Caplow, Julie A. Hughes. (2000). A Context for Learning: Collaborative Groups in the Problem-Based Learning Environment. *The Reviews of Higher Education*. Volume 23, no 3: 347.
10. Collins, James C. (2001). *Good to Great: Why Some Companies Make the Leap – and Others Don't.* New York, NY: Harper Business, 2001. Print.
11. De Graaff, E., & Kolmos, A. (2007). *Management of change: implementation of problem-based and project-based learning in engineering.* Sense Publishers.
12. Dmitrenko, Natalia. (2016). Problem-based learning as a learner-centred approach: general review. *Proceedings of the international conference "Modern peculiarities of the identity formation and social adaptation in conditions of liberal values crisis"*, 9.02.2016 – 15.02.2016, London, UK.
13. Dmitrenko N. (2016) Implementation of problem-based learning in tutorials at higher educational institution / *Innovative Solutions in Modern science.* – Dubai, #1 (1), 2016. – 167 p. – PP.77-82. : <http://naukajournal.org/index.php/ISMSD>
14. Dmitrenko N. (2016) The implementation of problem-based learning in Ukrainian higher educational institutions // *Advanced Education, KPI.* – 2016, #5. – P. 28-35.

15. Dmitrenko, N., Dolia, I. (2016) Problem-based learning at the lessons of foreign language in the higher educational institutions “*Modern informational technologies and innovative methods in professional training: methodology, theory, experience, problems*”, Issue 46, P. 166-170, Vinnytsia, Ukraine.
16. Dolmans, D. H., Wolfhagen, I. H., & Van Merriënboer, J. J. (2013). Twelve tips for implementing whole-task curricula: How to make it work. *Medical teacher*, 35(10), 801-805.
17. Dolmans, D. H. J. M., & Schmidt, H. G. (2006). What do we know about cognitive and motivational effect of small group tutorials in problem-based learning? *Advances in Health Sciences Education*, 11, 321-336.
18. Dolmans, D. H.J. M., De Grave, W., Wolfhagen, I. H. A. P., & Van der Vleuten, C. P. M. (2005). Problem-based learning: Future challenges for educational practice and research. *Medical Education*, 39, 732-741.
19. Ertmer, P. A., & Newby, T. J. (2008). Behaviourism, cognitivism, constructivism: Comparing critical features from an instructional design perspective. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 6, 50-72.
20. Graaff, E. (2013). The Transformation Process from a Traditional Curriculum to Problem-Based and Project-Based Learning: *Proceedings of 41st SEFI Conference*, 16-20 September 2013, Leuven, Belgium.
21. Hmelo-Silver, C. E. (2004). Problem based learning: What and how do students learn? *Educational Psychology Review*, 16, 235-266.
22. Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Smith, K. (2006). The state of cooperative learning and professional settings. *Educational Psychology Review*, 19, 15-29.
23. Jonassen, D. W., Hung, W. (2008). All Problems are Not Equal: Implications for Problem-Based Learning. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning*, 2(2).
24. Maurer H., Neuhold Ch. (2012). PBL in European studies – Maastricht experience: *The Higher Education Academy Social Science Conference “Ways of Knowing, Ways of Learning”*, 28 and 29 May 2012, Liverpool Session 4 – Tuesday, 29 May, 14h, Canada Suite.
25. Missimer, Merlina and Tamara, Connell. (2012). Pedagogical Approaches and Design Aspects To Enable Leadership for Sustainable Development. *Sustainability: The Journal of Record*. Vol. 5(3), 172.
26. Ormrod, J. E. (2006). Learning and Cognitive Processes. In J. E. Ormrod (Ed.), *Educational Psychology. Developing Learners*. (5th ed., pp. 182-221). New Jersey: Pearson Pentice Hall.
27. Ormrod, J. E. (2009). Long-term memory: Storage. In J. E. Ormrod (Ed.), *Human Learning* (5th ed., pp. 194-231). New Jersey: Pearson Pentice Hall.
28. Papinczak, T., Tunny, T., & Young, L. (2009). Conducting the symphony: a qualitative study of facilitation in problem-based learning tutorials. *Medical Education*, 2009, Apr.; 43(4), 377-83.
29. Peter A.J. Bouhuijs. Implementing Problem Based Learning: Why is it so hard? Retrieved from <http://red-u.net/redu/index.php/REDU/article/viewFile/190/164>
30. Pink, Daniel H. (2009). *Drive: The Surprising Truth about What Motivates Us*. New York, NY: Riverhead, 2009. Print.



31. Qin, Z., Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1995). Cooperative Versus Competitive Efforts and Problem Solving. *Review of Educational Research*, 65(2), 129-143.
32. Regehr, G., & Norman, G. R. (1996). Issues in cognitive psychology: implications for professional education. *Academic medicine: Journal of the Association of American Medical Colleges*, 71(9), 988-1001.
33. Rudland, J. R. (2009). Learning in small groups. In J. A. Dent & R. M. Harden (Eds.). *A practical guide for medical teachers* (3rd ed., pp. 80-85). Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone Elsevier.
34. Savin-Baden, Maggi. The challenge of using problem-based learning online. Retrieved from <http://www.mheducation.co.uk/openup/chapters/0335220061.pdf>
35. Schmidt, H. G., Vermeulen, L., & Van der Molen, H. T. (2006). Longterm effects of problem-based learning: a comparison of competencies acquired by graduates of a problem-based and a conventional medical school. *Medical education*, 40(6), 562-567.
36. Schmidt, H.G., (1993). Foundations of Problem Based Learning: some explanatory notes. Maastricht: University of Limburg. *Medical Education*, 1993, 27 (5), 422-432.
37. Sinek, Simon. (2014). *Leaders Eat Last: Why Some Teams Pull Together and Others Don't*. New York: Penguin, 2014.
38. Stewart, A. (2009). Instructional design. In J. A. Dent & R. M. Harden (Eds.), *A practical guide for medical teachers* (3rd ed., pp. 205-210). Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone Elsevier.
39. Van Boxtel, C., Van der Linden, J., & Kanselaar, G. (2000). Deep Processing in a Collaborative Learning Environment. In H. Cowie & G. Van der Aalsvoort (Eds.), *Social interaction in learning and instruction: the meaning of discourse for the construction of knowledge* (pp. 161-178). Amsterdam: Pergamon.

# PROBLEM AS THE MAIN POINT



- *The Wal-Mart syndrome in PBL. What's that?*
- *Can a photo contain a problem?*
- *Do learners like facing problems?*

## **PROBLEM AS THE MAIN POINT**

The most reliable estimates of the future job market needs indicate that the most urgent and valued skills in employees will be connected with complex problem-solving. Jerome Bruner, the former Director of the Harvard Centre for Cognitive Studies, once stated that we should consider a person knowledgeable if he/she is a problem solver, interacts with the environment in testing hypotheses, develops generalizations and is actively engaged in learning to arrive at solutions. Bruner saw the goal of education in further development of problem-solving skills and the process of inquiry and discussion. It is universally acclaimed nowadays that learners develop best in the learning environment which provides them with possibility to both observe and learn process skills, problem-solving skills, and thinking skills while acquiring content knowledge.

PBL is essentially dedicated to learning how to solve problems in novel real-world contexts. It is recognized as a progressive active-learning and learner-centred approach where unstructured problems (real world or simulated complex problems) are used as the starting point and anchor for the learning process.

Generally, problems are designed based on guidelines derived from experiential knowledge and theoretical principles of learning and cognition (Dolmans, Snellen-Balendong, Wolfhagen, & van der Vleuten, 1997).

Initially, they must create the backbone of course/block/module, and only after, establish the different specific learning objectives for the students. Less complex issues are presented at the beginning of the course. Over time, the complexity of the problems is increased with the intention of instigating the student to better learning.

We believe that good management combined with a clear and well-defined process that we must follow, makes the job easier and allow us to do it with quality.

For instance, Shaw's (1976) guidelines proposed five dimensions of problems, namely difficulty level, solution multiplicity of solution, intrinsic interest, cooperation requirements, and familiarity of the problem by the learner.

Dolmans et al. (1997) outlined seven principles of problem design. These indicated that problems should 1) simulate real life, 2) lead to elaboration, 3) encourage integration of knowledge, 4) encourage self-directed learning, 5) fit in

with students' prior knowledge, 6) interest the students, and 7) reflect the faculty's learning objectives.

Hung (2006) proposed a conceptual framework for problem design in the form a theoretical 3C3R model. The 3C3R model represents three core components and three process components of problems. The core components refer to content, context, and connection. On the other hand, the process components (researching, reasoning, and reflecting) represent the students' cognitive processes and problem-solving skills.

Jonassen and Hung (2008) focused on one of the problem characteristics – problem difficulty – and defined it to be characterized by problem complexity and problem structuredness. According to these authors, problem complexity refers to the breadth, attainment level, intricacy, and interrelatedness of problem space while problem structuredness represents the intransparency, heterogeneity of interpretations, interdisciplinary, and dynamicity of problems.

Jacobs et al. (2003) developed and validated a questionnaire to assess the degree of complexity and structuredness of PBL problems. They defined complexity as the number of characteristics or variables that play a role in challenging the students to think and learn. The authors found that although students could clearly differentiate between simple and well-structured problems, they were not able to discern ill-structured from complex problems. Hence the authors classified both ill-structuredness and complexity as factors of problem difficulty.

Using an experimental approach, Soppe, Schmidt, and Bruysten (2005) investigated the influence of problem familiarity on students' learning. The results showed that the students perceived the familiar version of the problem to be more interesting than the unfamiliar version. However, there was no significant difference in their academic achievement.

Des Marchais (1999) used a Delphi technique whereby he asked six PBL experts to identify three criteria considered most essential for the design of problems. This Delphi approach led to the identification of nine criteria that were ranked by the experts according to importance. The two most important criteria identified were that the problem should stimulate thinking or reasoning.

Schmidt (1985) developed a 59-item rating scale on various aspects of problems and administered it to 102 students. The data collected were factor analysed. A total of eight independent characteristics of problems were identified

using this approach. The identified attributes were learning output, goal clarity, openness, concreteness, familiarity, prior knowledge involved, time on task, and intrinsic interest. Leading to self-directed learning in some of the shortcomings of the existing literature on problem characteristics are that:

- they are generally theory-based and not evidence-based;
- the relatively few empirical studies focus on only few specific characteristics;
- studies that have attempted to explore the quality of problems at a broader level are restricted to expert's perceptions or a priori theoretical considerations address student's perspectives.

To address these shortcomings, a student perspective based study aimed to investigate students' perceptions of characteristics associated with good problems in PBL highlights characteristics of a good problem as (5features/6functions):

- a. 5 features include problem format, clarity, familiarity, difficulty and relevance;
- b. 6 functions include problem leading to learning issues, triggers interest, stimulates self-directed learning and critical reasoning, elaboration of problem and solution and teamwork.

The process of course designing comprises the following 4 stages that make up the instructional design.

#### 1. Learning Tasks:

The definition of the learning itself along with its end objectives is crucial for both the facilitators and the participants. The learning tasks are presented in the form of problems or projects or cases which are drawn from situations that one encounters in the real world. The number of stages through which the PBL proceeds would be decided by the type of learning involved. Thus it is typically a set of problems that have a carefully sequenced complexity. Initial tasks may be relatively simple in order to accommodate different types of learners but the tasks evolve in a gradual manner to attain a final complexity that matches the requirements of learning and skill development as would be expected of a professional.

Initially the amount of support and guidance provided is relatively high and it reduces over the PBL process to a stage when learners solve problems on their own.

The definition and organization of the learning tasks provides the backbone for the PBL problems. It also accommodates the extent and form of learning

desired out of a course and may be linked to the requirements of a formal curriculum if necessary.

2. Supportive Information:

This related to the resources that the students can consult and is also called the “Study Landscape”. The content and form of the resource is connected to each task at a particular level of complexity. The content provided is just enough to fuel and sustain the curiosity while at the same time motivating students to search for information on their own.

3. Procedural information:

Monitoring and maintaining satisfactory levels of progress through the course is important for a timely execution of the PBL. Procedural information is provided by the tutor/facilitator on “Just in time” basis, as and when needed.

4. Part Task Practice:

Problems may contain aspects pertaining to the development of requisite skills. These interventions may be necessary both prior to or during the PBL; initially in order to acquire the minimum requisite skills for the PBL and subsequently to ensure the development of specific skills to accompany the learning itself.

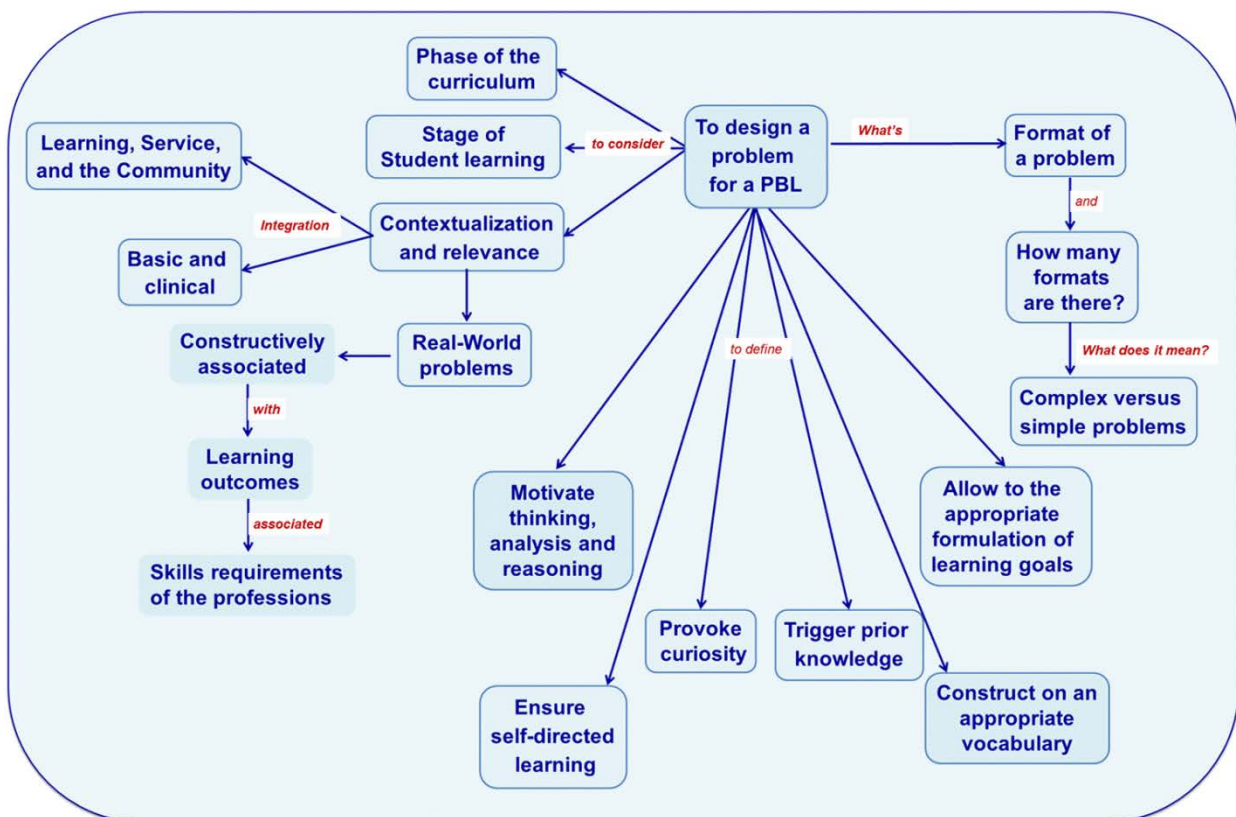
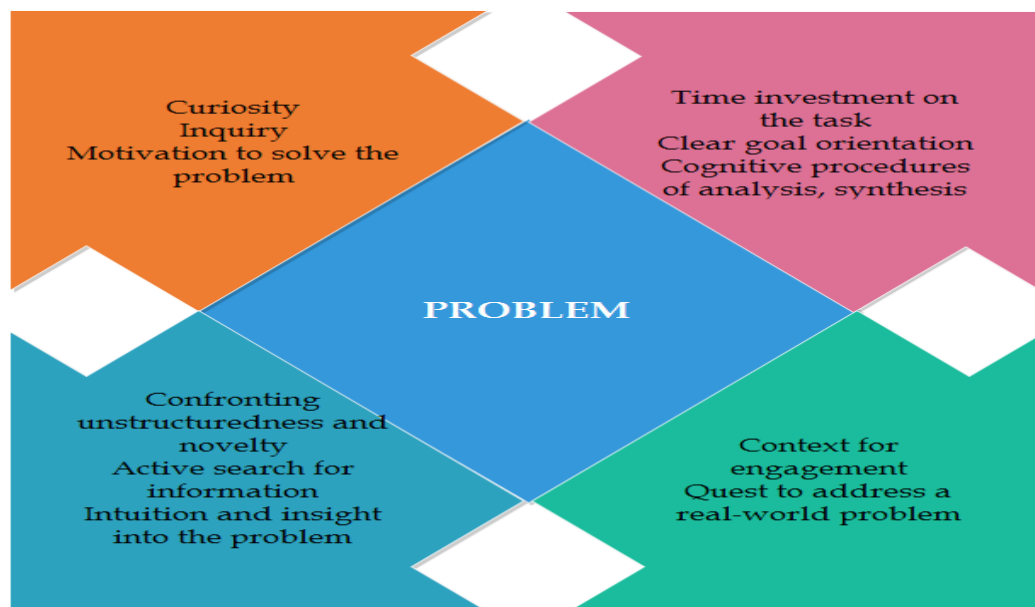


Fig.6 How to design PBL problem

Thus, problems need to be chosen according to learning objectives of the block. Problem should be related to prior knowledge of student, learning objectives of the block and have future relevance. Depending upon type of problem, format need to be chosen. Problem should be simple, not complex but still sufficiently intriguing to keep interest of all learners alive. Language used should be practice oriented and not too much structured. Problem should be short, contain clues/trigger, interest the learner and promote critical skills and self-directed learning.

An authentic problem as the *starting point* of learning calls for multiple perspectives. It challenges students' current knowledge, attitudes and competencies, thus calling for identification of learning needs and new areas of learning. In many PBL approaches, students deal with a situation where they need to achieve a goal, and the means to that accomplishment (i.e. the information, process and actions to be taken) is novel to the student. In such a way, the problem itself becomes a key stimulus for learning which gives rise to many psychological processes underlying the motivation for learning. The use of challenging learning environments, as in problem-based learning activities, encourages questioning and overcomes the fear of making mistakes.



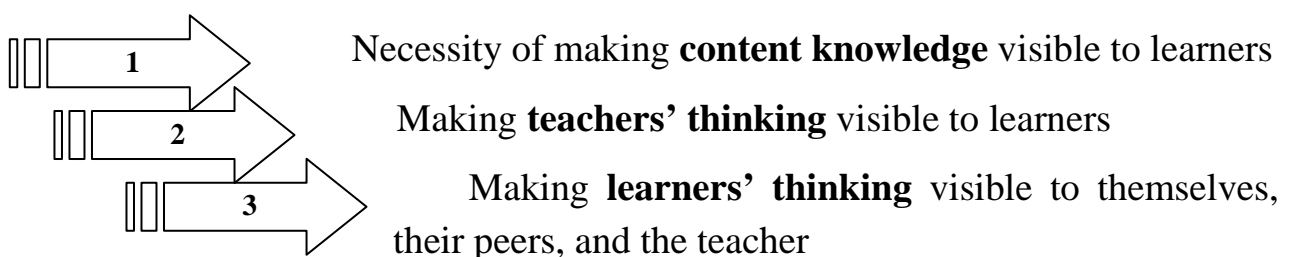
**Fig. 7 Roles and functions of problem in the process of learning**

Moreover, students have to assume major responsibility for the acquisition of information and knowledge as it is up to them to measure the extent and

depth of their knowledge gap, the necessity for harnessing of a variety of knowledge sources and the use and evaluation of information resources. It is obvious that development of *inquiry and problem-solving skills* is as important as content knowledge acquisition for the solution of the problem. The learners need to discover that problems are not only to be confronted and solved as soon as possible but also the fact that positive attitude, inquisitive observation and taking on “problems” as a matter of personal experience and growth, a “door” to new possibilities and opportunities.

Among the four typical clusters of activities in PBL the first one is closely related with the Problem. It involves meeting the problem, problem enquiry, identification and definition of the problem. The implicit mechanisms involved in this stage are (1) mental recognition that there is a problem, (2) lack of knowledge of how to resolve the problem, (3) the inner psychological impulse or need to resolve it, and (4) personal belief that we are able to find a solution. Understanding of the nature of the problem is essential for stage 2: Learning Goals (activation of prior knowledge, generation of issues and setting learning objectives). In its turn, Stage 3: Discovery, Analysis and Solution Development (information and fact-finding, research and problem-solving processes) can be successfully implemented only if the goal orientation and active search for information fall into the pattern of the original problem. Stage 4: Solution and Evaluation (production, synthesis, presentation, reflection, further iteration and review) involves a looping analysis of the problem from the perspective of the suggested solution in terms of its adequate and full response.

Problem-based learning processes call for strategies that are goal-directed and self-directed, although they are influenced by the context of the problem itself. The understanding of importance of metacognition has caused a shift in modern pedagogy towards facilitation of acquisition of self-regulated learning strategies. The progressive challenges in the 20<sup>th</sup>-21<sup>st</sup> century pedagogy are represented in the following paradigmatic shifts:





The challenge modern educators are facing is the design of such types of learning environment where students' cognition, ways and methods of acquiring knowledge are clearly manifested through their active collaboration with each other and readiness to take up responsibility for the organization and arrangement of their own learning. The teacher has to abandon his traditional role of a prophet imparting some knowledge to the novices, but to provide the students with some means that help them realize and evaluate the forms, depth and typical algorithms of their mental work as well as to facilitate the development of their abilities to deal with real-world problems. If the students' cognition process becomes evident for themselves, they get a powerful tool for self-regulation and development. Self-directed learners become proactive in achieving their goals, adapting their personal strategies according to the situational demands. The problem construction can be one of the key elements in teachers' design of a new learning environment.

Three elements should be considered in problem construction: (1) the educational objectives, (2) the type of problem and (3) its format. The educational objectives predetermine the teacher's choice of the problem from the pool of topical authentic or true-to-life stories that can serve as a basis of the educational problem.

The problem should be presented in a variety of **types** that respond to the calls for the increasing ability of the learners to cope with change and to adapt: the explanation problem, the discussion problem, the strategy problem, the study problem, the application problem, and the multi-level problem. A problem can be theoretical, practical, social, technical, symbolic-cultural and/or scientific and grows out of students' wondering within different disciplines and professional environments. It is also essential to select a type the problem appropriate to the curriculum objectives.

O. Tan (2003) enumerates the following example of real-life triggers and stimuli that give rise to a problem: (1) failure to perform, (2) situations in need of immediate attention or improvement, (3) discovering improved ways to do things, (4) unexplained phenomena or observations, gaps in information and knowledge, (5) decision-making situations, (6) need for new designs or inventions. Thus, to the maximum extent possible, the problematic situation presented to the learners should approximate the situation they are likely to face in their own professional life in the future.

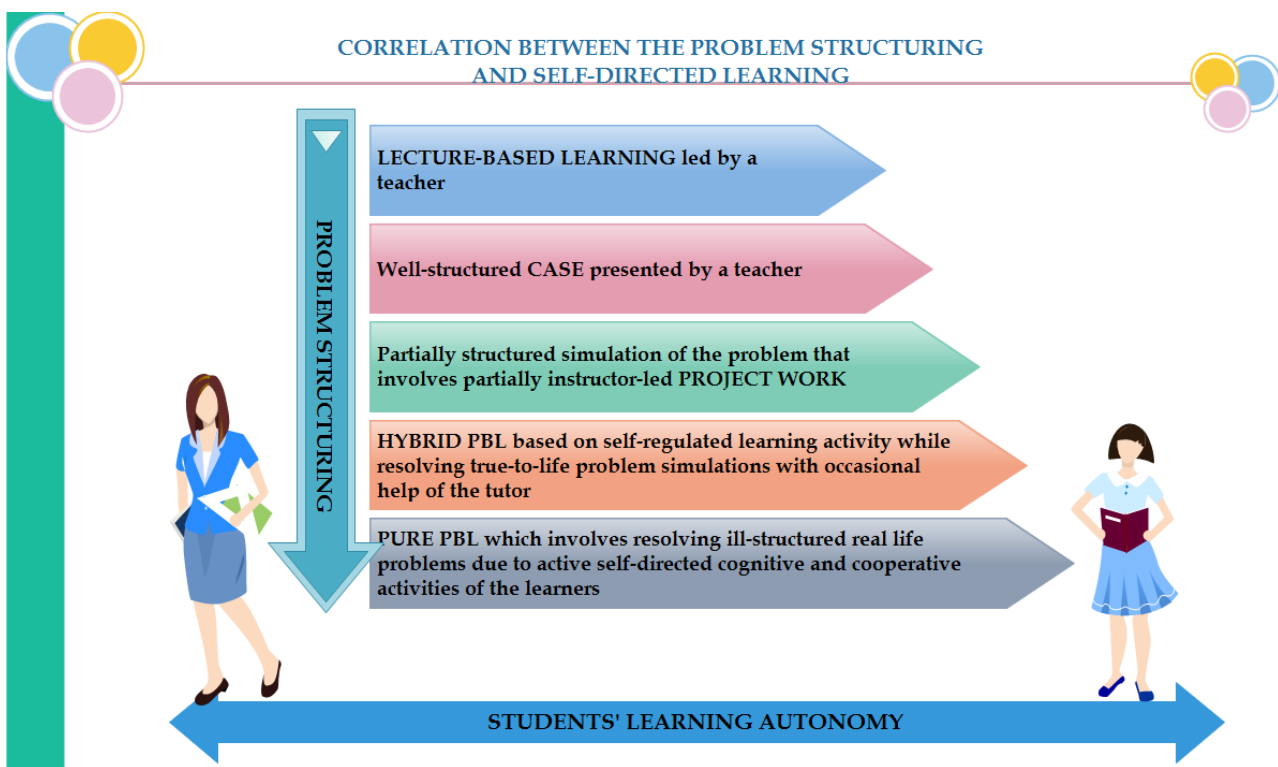
The variety of problem types is a wise way of introducing the learners to the complexity of the challenges they are going to face. There is no doubt that throughout the 21<sup>st</sup> century the problems confronting the world and individuals will come with increasing rapidity, complexity and diversity. While preparing learners for problem-solving the educators should foresee that (1) real world problems are increasing in quantity and difficulty, (2) newer problems have shorter time frame for solutions, (3) global (larger-scale) problems require integrated solutions.

Finally, **the format** in which the problem will be presented to students is to be selected. Those can be scenarios; text assignments; pictures / visualization; video etc. The problem statement or scenario often resembles much the material that professors who teach with the case method might use. The scenario describes the context and nature of the problematic situation. The problem is based upon real problems identified in professional practice and is related to the expected role and work context of the students. However, the focus is made on messy or swampy problems that have a significant impact in the real life conditions. The problems should be presented in a variety of social contexts, involving different spheres of knowledge. Such presentation may include, for example, video clips or photos presenting the main object of concern, or video interviews with the participants of the situation under study which helps to achieve authenticity of the problem. Authentic problems prove to be a source of high motivation to engage in the project process. The problem which is conveyed through a video case, picture, graph or even a consumer product offer important advantages. Through enhancing the sense of reality such contextualized problems stimulate students to pay thorough attention to tacit details embedded in the scenarios. Briefly speaking, due to different problem formats students learn how to look for the important details and weigh the major and minor factors by themselves.

Variety of problem formats serve the important function of providing the learners with the opportunity to learn directly from the problem space and to develop general strategies of problem solving instead of just obtaining knowledge of any specific type of problem-solving. The level of structuring of the problem is of great importance here.

Many so-called “problems” have more in common with the traditional didactics of knowledge accumulation through memorizing and its presentation

in paper-and-pencil testing mode. What many students actually solve in their classes are exercises rather than problems. Teachers typically present in class a large number of examples accompanied by comprehensive guidelines and step-by-step solutions. Students are then given similar exercises of a variety of challenges (e.g. homework exercises, examination-type questions). Often there is very little element of novelty, although these “problems” may call for synthesis and application of the knowledge learnt. There is, however, an overdependence on learning through worked examples and routine exercises. As a result, there is very limited use of the power of problems. For simplicity, the types of problems can be classified along a continuum of routine-artificial instructor-led problems at one end and novel real-world self-led at the other end.



**Fig. 8 Correlation between the structuredness of the problem and its ability to stimulate self-led learning in various models of PBL based on W.Hung’s PBL models (originally H.S. Barrows’ classification)**

As the experience shows, tutors frequently design the problems on their own but it is evident that these problems should fall into the general plan supported by the colleagues. However, problems that have social, political, economic, environmental (biological), historical, and personal implications

often cannot be understood or solved by considering only one disciplinary perspective and multifaceted approach is more preferable. Each perspective needs to be addressed and integrated into the problem space and the problem solution. When the context of a problem requires students to collect knowledge on various interrelated disciplines, integrative thinking is stimulated and the process of cognition is well supported by the processes of revision and generalization, analogy and comparison.

The tutor should remember and take into account the significance of cultural and social changing of the problems to make them suitable both for curriculum design and instructional delivery. Unsuccessful description of an inexact real life problem can make the so called *Walmart Syndrome* happen [6]. It is an effort to find out from problems that are contextually taken away from the learner's personal observation. The term has a specified beginning from the personal experience of one of the Asian business students who was taught to solve complicated managerial problems on the basis of the business cases of Walmart, American retail chain. When the former student saw a real Walmart shop several years after his graduation he understood that he could have managed much better on those cases if he had had the essential cultural background or setting. This issue is of central importance and it is likely to influence learning motivation, comprehension and engagement.

Thus, the choice of the problem design should be predetermined by the aim to make our students ready for a changing at a great rate and complex world. Problems should be presented in different types and formats, as they fulfil a lot of functions of motivating, training and giving new ideas and enthusiasm. Educational problems flash a sparkle of initial interest that sets into motion the whole process of inquiry and search that provides the learners with almost definite evidence of their own mental work, the understanding of which is a fundamental prerequisite of proper personal development of an individual into an independent highly-productive creator of the new ideas and the new world. One important prior condition of a successful problem design is the implication that the problem must be culturally appropriate in both form of expression of the problem and content.

## References:

1. Barrows, H. S. (1986). A taxonomy of problem-based learning methods // *Medical Education*, 20, p. 481-486.
2. Bruner, J. (1977). *The Process of Education*. Revised edition. Harvard University Press.
3. Des Marchais, J. E. (1999). A Delphi technique to identify and evaluate criteria for construction of PBL problems. *Medical Education*, 33(7), 504-508.
4. Dolmans, D. & Snellen-Balendong, H. (2000). *Problem Construction*. Produced by Datawyse.
5. Dolmans, D.H.J.M., Snellen-Balendong, H., & Van der Vleuten, C.P.M. (1997). Seven principles of effective case design for a problem-based curriculum, *Medical Teacher*, Vol. 19, No. 3, 185-189.
6. Hallinger, P., & Lu, J. (2012). Overcoming the Walmart Syndrome: Adapting Problem-based Management Education in East Asia. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning*, 6(1). Available at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.7771/1541-5015.1311> .
7. Hung, W. (2011). Theory to reality: a few issues in implementing problem-based learning. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, Volume 59, Issue 4, p. 529-552.
8. Jacobs, A.E.J.P., Dolmans, D.H.J.M, Wolfhagen I.H.A.P., & Scherpbier, A.J.J.A. Validation of a short questionnaire to assess the degree of complexity and structuredness of PBL problems, *Medical Education* 2003, 37, 1001-1007.
9. Jonassen, D. H., Hung, W. (2008). All Problems are Not Equal: Implications for Problem-Based Learning. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning*, 2(2), 6-28.
10. Nachamma, S. Characteristics of Problems for Problem-Based Learning: The Students' Perspective. *IJPBL*; 2011(5)1, 6-33.
11. Pei-Ling-Tan J., Nie Y. (2015). The Role of Authentic Tasks in Promoting Twenty-First Century Learning Dispositions. *Authentic problem solving and learning in the 21<sup>st</sup> century: Perspectives from Singapore and Beyond*. Education Innovation Series, p. 19-39.
12. Schmidt, H. G. (1985). *Attributes of problems for problem-based learning*. Unpublished manuscript. Maastricht, the Netherlands: University of Limburg.
13. Soppe, M., Schmidt, H. G., Bruysten, R. (2005). Influence of problem familiarity on learning in a problem-based course. *Instructional Science*, 33(3), 271-281.
14. Tan, Oon-Seng (2006). Problem-based learning pedagogies: Psychological processes and enhancement of intelligences. *APERA Conference 2006*, 28-30 November, 2006, Hong Kong.
15. Taylor, D.C.M., Mifflin, B. (2008) Problem Based Learning: Where are we now? *Medical Teacher*, Vol. 30, issue 8, p. 742-763.
16. Van Til, T., & Van der Heijden, F. (2009). *PBL Study Skills*. An overview. Maastricht: Datawyse: Universitaire Pers Maastricht.

# ASSESSMENT IN PBL



- *What is assessment in PBL?*
- *What is the goal of assessment in PBL?*
- *Who assesses?*
- *How do we assess?*
- *How can PBL help students with disability?*

## **ASSESSMENT IN PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING**

The implementation of PBL faces many challenges. Among the most important which need to be discussed and solved is the question of students' assessment. Being frequently a shock to students faced with its unusual procedure, it is often the same ordeal for educators who take the first steps with this technique. Besides the fundamental challenge of creating a good problem, educators are faced with the task of deciding how to evaluate the technique's effectiveness and how to assess whether students have met the overall learning objectives for the course. Traditional assessment techniques are not effective and adequate to measure students' learning experience. It requires more complex techniques. PBL as an innovative method of learning and teaching relies on the evaluation by tutors, peers and self-assessment. Being the integral part of the whole process, the assessment is not easy to perform as tutors and students are often inexperienced and don't know what and how to do it. In the chapter we will try to give the answers to the most common questions about assessment in PBL.

### **What is assessment in general?**

There exist different definitions of what assessment is. The most obvious ones are the following:

- The process of gathering and discussing information from multiple and diverse sources in order to develop a deep understanding of what students know, understand, and can do with their knowledge as a result of their educational experiences. (Learner-Centered Assessment on College Campuses: shifting the focus from teaching to learning by Huba and Freed, 2000).

- The systematic basis for making inferences about the learning and development of students. It is the process of defining, selecting, designing, collecting, analyzing, interpreting, and using information to increase students' learning and development. (Assessing Student Learning and Development: A Guide to the Principles, Goals, and Methods of Determining College Outcomes by Erwin, 1991).

From the above mentioned statements we see that assessment is used mostly to monitor the students' progress in learning and state its development. The National Research Council (NRC) contends that there are 3 guiding principles to assessment (Waters, 2010):

- content: assessment reflects what is most important for students to learn;
- learning: assessment enhances learning and supports instructional practice;
- equity: assessment supports every student's opportunity to learn.

Earl (2003) has identified three methods of learning through assessment: *assessment for*, *assessment of*, and *assessment as* learning.

- *Assessment for* learning is formative: through feedback the student is able to identify their current level of knowledge, understanding and skills to enable identification of additional learning needs.

- *Assessment of* learning is summative and is generally viewed as the traditional approach to assessment: it is used to allocate a grade to individual student work.

- *Assessment as* learning is the learning achieved whilst undertaking the activities required when completing the assessment. A combination of formative and summative assessment is generally viewed as the more positive approach to assessment, and itself is a pertinent area for evaluation to ensure that the optimum balance is being achieved. This is equally so for group and individual assessment, where both collaborative skills and individual knowledge require appraisal.

### **What is assessment in PBL?**

Most researchers look upon assessment in PBL as a feedback given by tutors, peers and students themselves. They believe that evaluation needs to fit the philosophy of active learning rather than passive reproductive learning. It may be preferable, and more rigorous, for assessments to follow the PBL philosophy and to require the individual to analyze a problem, search for and then apply relevant information (Reynolds, 1997, p. 272).

The learning principle emphasizes that assessments should continue the learning process and not be viewed as a disjoint activity. Too often there is a complete break in activities where teaching ends and then there is an assessment. This can encourage students to get by on their memorization skills and continue their passive participation in the educational process. Whatever assessment technique is used, it must be viewed by students as an active part of the learning process, not some ancillary activity. The idealistic goal of the



learning principle is to make it indistinguishable to a visitor as to whether instruction or assessment is occurring in the classroom (Larsson, 2001).

Assessment methods which are used have a great impact on student learning. If they depend solely on factual recall then PBL is improbable to be successful in the curriculum. All assessment schedules should correspond to the basic principles of testing the student in the context of the curriculum consequences and should operate an appropriate series of assessment methods. It is sensible to assess students' activities and progress in their PBL groups. Tutors should react and give feedback or follow formative or summative assessment procedures according to the assessment schedule of their faculty. It is also useful to take into consideration the assessment of the group as a whole. The group should be supported to reflect on its PBL performance including its devotion to the process, communication skills, respect for others, and individual contributions. Peer pressure in the group lowers the likelihood of students failing to keep up with amount of work, and the award of a group mark – attached to each individual's assessment schedule – encourages students to accomplish the typical aims connected with PBL (World, 2003).

It should be also stressed that assessment demonstrates the benefits and drawbacks of PBL, promotes its implementation. Evaluation is crucial for both the maintenance of standards and in developing curricula. It is a source of the information that:

- helps identify problems students experience in foreign language acquisition;
- fosters adjustment of the curricula;
- demonstrates the benefits and drawbacks of PBL;
- contributes to solving existing problems.

The literature pertaining to evaluation of educational methods identifies a number of dimensions which should be considered to assist in order to clarify the evaluative approach.

### **What is the goal of assessment in PBL?**

The overall purpose of assessment has undergone significant transformation over the past three decades. Previously the primary goal of assessment was to measure student performance in order to assign grades and make judgmental decisions. This was often done at the expense of recognizing

the individual and the collective potential of students (Stevens, 1996). More recently, the role of assessment as a tool to facilitate learning has come to be recognized. Indeed, the stressful ritual of end-of-course examinations has been losing ground in favour of continual assessment and its role as part of the learning process (Stevens, 1996).

Peer assessment is regarded as an awareness raising exercise which enables students to consider their own work more closely, highlights what they need to know in the subject, helps them make a realistic assessment of their own abilities, and provides them with skills that would be valuable in the future. Furthermore, the peer assessment process also encourages students to compare and reflect on their own work, which in turn is an important element of self-directed learning (Falchikov, 2005).

Unfortunately, assessment of PBL is poorly addressed in the research literature. Most studies compare students who have undergone PBL curricula with those who have not by using traditional measures, which tend to be almost exclusively content-oriented. Results of these studies vary, but most indications are that PBL “does no harm” in terms of traditional, content oriented outcomes (Albanese & Mitchell, 1993; Vernon & Blake, 1993).

Yet, if the primary goal of PBL is to have students cultivate the habits of mind evidenced by professionals in a field or discipline, faculty need to consider process oriented objectives and the means by which to assess them. Process-oriented objectives can be difficult to articulate, although they constitute the “hidden curriculum” of most courses. We want students to understand concepts, formulas, and skills which constitute the knowledge base of a discipline or profession. But we also want them to recognize the kinds of problems embraced by specific disciplines and professions, and the means by which practitioners go about solving them. Process-oriented objectives are those that relate to how practitioners of a discipline or profession think about and solve problems within a certain field (Toulmin, 1972). Because content-oriented objectives are usually emphasized, those seeking to implement PBL may struggle, initially, with defining, highlighting to students, and then assessing process-oriented objectives. In fact, those who have researched the process-oriented outcomes of PBL have found dramatic results (Hmelo, et al., 1997).

PBL assessments should be authentic, which is to say that they should be structured so that students can display their understanding of problems and their

solutions in contextually meaningful ways (Gallagher, 1997). Clearly, multiple-choice assessments and even short-answer or essay questions that require rote repetition of facts will be of little value in assessing the extent to which students have internalized holistic approaches to complex problems.

Although PBL addresses messy, ill-structured problems, the assessment is to be designed to identify a student's areas of achievement and weakness. Some researchers believe that "for clarity and structure, it is important to provide the students with a generic scoring rubric adapted to meet the different learning aspects of PBL. The purpose of the scoring rubric is to act as both a self-assessment and peer-assessment so that the pre-service teachers can monitor and evaluate their performance and self-regulate both their own learning and that of their colleagues. This was a working, 13-week course prototype solving a real-world problem and presenting the solution to a public audience. This was also to be assessment *as* learning, because it occurred during and at the end of each unit of work. To make this most effective, the five point PBL rubric recommended by Ronis (2008) can be used for the assessment. This allows for both self and peer assessment as well as instructor assessment at the end of the unit of work as a summative assessment (Earl, 2003).

### **Who assesses?**

In traditional form of teaching, the teacher as the most important figure has the power to check and evaluate students' knowledge. PBL as student-centered approach does not only rely on the feedback from the tutor, but peer-assessment and self-assessment are considered to be important and are treated as the integral part of the assessment. It is supposed to be the factor that prevents unfair judgement and stimulates students to learn from their mistakes. Still, assessment in PBL causes some anxiety as evaluating students fairly can be affected by personal and interpersonal impressions. "Although assessment in PBL tutorials is aimed at making students think freely about their own learning process, it can be noticed that they still perceived the assessment process as a ranking tool. This created fear and anxiety despite repeated attempts to stress the long term commitment to learning rather than an exclusive focus on grades. As far as critical feedback is concerned, students tended to refer to the attitude of the tutor during tutorial sessions and the lack of criteria when grades were assigned" (Stevens, 1996).

A critical part of assessment in PBL is the feedback students receive from their peers. Allen, Duch, and Groh (1996) asked students to rate their group members using a numerical scale based on “attendance, degree of preparation for class, listening and communication skills, ability to bring new and relevant information to the group, and ability to support and improve the functioning of the group as a whole” (p. 49). This peer rating constituted up to ten percent of students’ final grades. Peer ratings, however, are not sufficient feedback and neither are single letter grades. The instructor should also provide detailed comments about each student’s strengths and weaknesses. Having students evaluate their own performance can be a valuable task as well (Stevens, 1996).

Students also feel uncomfortable to provide and receive feedback. The reasons for it are different. People usually perceive feedback as criticism and avoid using it. At the same time students demonstrate a corporative attitude among themselves (protecting each other from poor grades). This behavior was also observed in a study comparing tutor, self- and peer-assessment from 349 first year Brazilian students in PBL tutorials where tutors’ marks were consistently lower than students’ self- and peer-assessment marks (Stevens, 1996).

Most of the studies found in the literature on peer assessment focuses on the evaluation of individual contributions to group assignments or the validity and reliability of peer assessment. Although student perceptions of the peer assessment experience have been studied extensively in higher education, few studies have been concerned with evaluating students’ views in a PBL tutorial setting (Eva et al., 2004). To add on, many of the studies reportedly used peer assessment for summative purposes to judge the product of collaborative work (e.g., a poster or report), and is mainly administered towards the end of a predefined period for judging the quality of peers’ works (Ballantyne et al., 2002; Falchikov, 2005).

Giving students the opportunity to evaluate and reflect on their own learning is a key element in PBL. The self-assessment phase of a PBL session allows the facilitator to help students with assessing their own performance in solving a problem. Self-assessment in PBL allows the students to compare their performance with the goals which they set for themselves before the problem started. It allows them to develop the skills to monitor their own learning outside the academic environment and helps them to move towards the elusive goal of becoming life-long learners. The ability of PBL to foster reflection in

students is largely a function of the facilitator's ability to introduce opportunities for reflection into the PBL experience (Waters, 2005).

### **How do we assess?**

It is challenging to create assessment techniques for PBL where the results are repeatable over time. Whether or not we consider "grades" as important, the requirement to report on student's progress will be around for quite some time. An effective assessment tool must also provide the ability to report on student progress in a fair and objective manner (Waters, 2005). Through the use of a range of authentic assessments like process assessment which contains of process assessment (consists of students' *self-reflection, peer's evaluation and task completion reports*); content assessment (consists of *pretest and posttest*); together with portfolio assessment, some papers outline strategies that have worked, as well as those that have not in a PBL setting (Tai, 2007).

The National Science Foundation has published a very useful booklet which every practitioner contemplating an evaluation project should possess (Reynolds, 1997). NSF outlines three types of evaluation: planning, formative and summative. Planning evaluations, while important are not applicable to this established program so they are not further discussed. Formative and summative evaluations are applicable and are best understood by using a quote from (Reynolds, 1997): "When the cook tastes the soup, that's formative. When the guests taste the soup, that's summative" (Bob Stake).

Waters and McCracken wanted to focus on methods more appropriate for a shorter term evaluation method. They used questionnaires to gather qualitative information from students as part of the formative evaluation. It was considered useful to capture student opinions and ideas on improving the class. The summative evaluation consisted of course observations by the TA's and instructor and comparison of pre-test scores to post-test scores. Meeting regularly with the PBL groups tutors noted problems in the process. These problems and general observations about the process were captured through informal interviews with group members. Additionally, the students were administered an examination during the first class period which covered all the major learning outcomes for the course. This pre-test examination was scored and the grades compared to the final examination scores to provide an indication of overall student learning and transfer in the course (Waters, 2005).

The issue raised from PBL is to provide an authentic assessment strategy. This learning space requires support in collaboration and communication among the students as a medium to exchange ideas, conduct discussion and put hands together. Students research, document, do peer's feedback, design, learn various authoring tools for acquiring, manipulating, and communicating information in order to solve the problems and challenges given to them (Tai, 2007).

It is suggested that the following questions should be answered by the evaluators prior to beginning any evaluation: (based upon Nevo's 10 dimensions of educational evaluation, 1986).

| <b>Dimension</b>   | <b>Interpretation</b>  |
|--|--|
| How is evaluation defined?   | <i>For example 'systematic evaluative research to inform, judge and improve';</i>  |
| What are the functions of this evaluation?   | <i>Be clear about the aim of the evaluation in relation to merit, worth, impact and significance: e.g. to inform future developments; to review the effectiveness of particular activities or 'trigger' problems</i>   |
| What are the objects of evaluation?  | <i>Areas for evaluation should also be clear, be this the programme design, student experience, the facilitation, the process and or outcomes of PBL in context</i>  |
| What kinds of information that should be collected regarding each object?          | <i>Both quantitative and qualitative data may be informative in ascertaining an understanding of process and outcome. Information may include effectiveness of knowledge acquisition; academic skill, subject –specific and core skill development; ethical awareness and/or attitude change; self-awareness and critical reflection, etc.</i> |
| What criteria should be used to judge the merit and worth of an evaluation object? | <i>Criteria may include efficient, effective and acceptable use of resources; achievement of explicit learning processes and outcomes; development of independent learners, able to work in teams, etc.</i>  |
| Who should be served by an evaluation?   | <i>Stakeholders may include yourself, students, other teachers within the team; the wider community of educators interested in PBL</i>   |
| What is the process of doing an evaluation?  | <i>Processes should include identification of area for evaluation, timing of the study, ethical methods and</i>  |

|   |  |
|---|--|
|   | <i>approval, undertaking the data collection, data analysis and dissemination of findings</i>  |
| What methods of enquiry should be used in evaluation? | <i>The toolkit offers a selection of appropriate methods signalled from the particular areas for investigation: we suggest methods suited to particular areas of investigation</i>                       |
| Who should do evaluation?                             | <i>Will the evaluator be part of the delivery team or student body (insider research), or external to the people involved in the PBL. Recognise the potential impact of your choice on the responses</i> |
| By what standards should evaluation be judged?        | <i>The standards will be the norms for educational research</i>  |

**Fig.9 Dimensions of educational evaluation**

### **Assessing Language Proficiency in PBL**

Learning a language is very different from learning anything else. Normally language is a tool when learning – not the actual subject of it. This difference has several implications from the point of view of PBL. Though it has been said that the concepts of PBL can be applied to any academic discipline, languages obviously constitute a large challenge (Lew, 2010). Especially it is true about assessing students’ language proficiency.

To be effective, assessment must recognize the diversity of learners and allow for differences in styles and rates of learning. To accurately assess English language learners, variations in students’ English language skills, along with the other growth and development variations based on their age, must be considered.

Developmentally appropriate assessment calls for the use of a range of assessment strategies because English language learners need a variety of ways to demonstrate their understanding. The lower the language proficiency, the more important it is to use assessment techniques beyond pencil and paper tasks. Developmentally appropriate assessment provides opportunities for students to show what they know in an environment in which it is safe to take risks associated with learning.

When assessing English language learners note the type of language the student is using to get his or her message across. Many English language learners use familiar and high frequency vocabulary and long simple sentences to demonstrate social language competency. However, more academic and specialized vocabulary and more complex sentences may be required in the classroom setting. At times, a student may be assessed above his or her actual language level as the social language competency may mask the academic language competency.

A problem that language teachers often face is that of the students communicating with each other in their native language (or another to them common foreign language, such as English) more than they actually need to. In a PBL environment this would be a very real, and very big problem, as communicating in the language being studied would be the central idea of PBL-based language education, and failing to fulfill that demand would greatly decrease, if not entirely eliminate, the profits of using PBL at all (Lew, 2010).

It is useful to define some language aims and present them to students. These aims will demonstrate what students are evaluated for.

1. Scanning information:

- a student can obtain information, ideas and opinions from highly specialized sources within his/her field;
- can understand specialized articles outside his/her field, provided he/she can use a dictionary occasionally to confirm his/her interpretation of terminology.

2. Speaking:

- can pass on detailed information reliably;
- can understand and exchange complex information and advice on the full range of matters related to his/her occupational role.

3. Goal-oriented co-operation:

- can help along the progress of the work by inviting others to join in, say what they think etc.;
- can outline an issue or a problem clearly, speculating about causes or consequences, and weighing advantages and disadvantages of different approaches.

One of the most important aspects of authentic assessment is that the students have a full understanding of the assessment criteria. Part of the learning that needs



to go on in PBL is for students to learn to understand the assessment criteria, learn to assess themselves, and learn to assess their fellow students. Specifically, focusing on self-assessment, Dave Moursund (MSEB, 1993) believes that firstly, students should develop good answers to the following questions:

How can I (a learner) tell if I have learned well enough:

- to serve my current needs?
- so that it will stay with me, for use in the future?
- to transfer my new knowledge and skills to new (perhaps novel) situations where it is applicable,
- so that I can build on my new knowledge and skills in the future?
- so I have some insight into what I don't know, why I might want to learn some of the things that I don't know but might want to know, and pathways to doing the learning?

A key aspect of authentic assessment is helping the student learn the details of what is being assessed, why it is being assessed, and how it is being assessed. Assessment becomes a “white box” instead of being a “black box”.

Students should be provided with the criteria by which they evaluate their fellow students and themselves. According to our observation it is better if not individual members of the group are assessed by peers but the group as a whole. It prevents the behavior when students try to protect each other from poor grades. They feel more relaxed and comfortable evaluating the group's work than each member individually. Students will benefit from PBL more if they are presented with learning objectives and assessment criteria before implementing PBL and before the assessment phase. It should be clear from the very beginning what they are assessed for and how.

Students should be asked to evaluate their fellow-students according to their attendance, perseverance, listening and communication skills, ability to gain and scan information, involvement into the problem-solving.

Here we present a list of criteria which we consider important for students' foreign language proficiency assessment in PBL:

1. Language used during the discussion ( native, foreign, both)
2. Involvement into the discussion (active, unenthusiastic, passive)
3. Collaboration (conscious and freewill participation, guided participation, reluctant to participate)
4. Speaking (fluent, prompted, limited)

5. Listening comprehension (communicating with ease, having some difficulties in understanding, having extensive difficulties in understanding )
6. Vocabulary used (professional, mostly general, basic)
7. Ways of obtaining the information (specialized articles in a foreign language, specialized articles in a native language, hasn't obtained any appropriate information)
8. Presentation of the information (clear, understandable, ambiguous)
9. Selected problem-solving strategy (effective, appropriate, inappropriate)

The lower the language proficiency, the more important it is to use appropriate assessment techniques. These criteria for the assessment of foreign language proficiency provide opportunities for students to show that not their mistakes are evaluated. It gives them the feeling of safety and gives them adequate ideas for reflection and self-assessment. In such a way the philosophy of PBL is preserved. The environment allows taking risks associated with learning and helps identify a student's areas of achievement and weakness. This is assessment as learning, because it occurs during and at the end of each unit of work.

As time permits, take a look at your PBL lesson. Focus on its goals and objectives. Think about the nature and extent of the assessment you will do for each goal and objective. Also, think about formative evaluation versus summative evaluation. Will you be able to provide useful formative evaluation feedback in a timely manner, so that students can benefit from it as the project proceeds? Or, is your main focus in assessment the awarding of a final grade?

We believe that there should be implied two scoring systems: one for language proficiency, another –for problem-solving skills. We have tried to adjust Jon Larsson' scoring tools (Lew, 2010) to our ESP needs.

According to Jon Larsson a rubric is a scoring tool that can be used by students (for self-assessment), peers (peer assessment), teachers, and others. It lists important criteria applicable to a language proficiency type. Note that in each of the examples given below, a six level rubric is presented. An even number of levels (such as four or six) forces an "above the midpoint or below the midpoint" decision on the part of the rater. Some people consider this to be desirable.

| <b>Level</b>       | <b>Brief Description</b>  |
|--------------------|---|
| 1: Emergent (F)    | Student displays few, if any, of the language knowledge and skills that are expected.                           |
| 2: Limited (FX)    | Student displays rudimentary knowledge and skills, but often requires substantial individual help and guidance. |
| 3: Developing (E)  | Student displays a minimally adequate level of the expected knowledge and skills.                               |
| 4: Capable (C)     | Student displays a functional, adequate level of the expected language knowledge and skills.                    |
| 5: Strong (B)      | Student displays a high level of the expected knowledge and skills.   |
| 6: Exceptional (A) | Student displays an outstanding and creative/innovative level of the expected knowledge and skills.             |

**Fig.10 General-purpose rubric for assessing students for problem-solving skills**

Here are six levels of a general-purpose rubric for assessing students for problem-solving skills. It provides more detail for the student and the teacher.

**Level 1 – Emergent**

- Selected strategy to assist in problem-solving that was inappropriate for the task or student is not able to solve the problem.
- Was unable to resolve most obstacles relating to the project.
- Ethical and professional behavior was not shown or was inappropriately shown through lack of citations, copyright adherence, and ethics.

**Level 2 – Limited**

- Selected lesser effective ways from what are available to solve the problem, and only with major outside assistance.
- Was able to solve only elementary obstacles.
- Ethical and professional behavior was occasionally shown through appropriate citations, copyright adherence, and ethics.

**Level 3 –Developing**

- Selected appropriate strategy from what was available to solve the problem, but only with outside assistance.

- Was able to solve most basic obstacles associated with the problem.
- Ethical and professional behavior was generally shown through appropriate citations, copyright adherence, and ethics.

#### Level 4 – Capable

- Selected adequate ways from what were available and appropriate for solving the problem, with minor assistance.
- Was able to solve most basic obstacles associated with the problem.
- Ethical and professional behavior was shown through appropriate citations, copyright adherence, and ethics.

#### Level 5 – Strong

- Selected effective strategy that was appropriate to solve the problem without any assistance following established guidelines.
- Solved most advanced obstacles associated with the problem and predicted other ones that can occur in future.
- Ethical and professional behavior was shown through appropriate citations in proper form, copyright adherence, and ethics.

#### Level 6 – Exceptional

- Selected the most appropriate strategy in an innovative way than assignment anticipated.
- Solved all related problems correctly and appropriately, providing suggestions for improvement in the procedures.
- Ethical and professional behavior was shown through appropriate citations in proper form, copyright adherence, and ethics.

Thus PBL seeks to incorporate a multidisciplinary approach in the solution of problems. Students are given a problem, but not constrained on where they may look for answers. All too often, traditional assessment tools focus on isolated facts and techniques to the detriment of student's understanding of the larger integrated concepts involved. Narrow assessments allow students to pass through the system on rote memorization rather than true understanding. The concept principle emphasizes that assessments should never be trivialized for the convenience of assessment, but rather should emphasize problem solving, thinking and reasoning skills (Larsson, 2001). According to the investigation peer assessment is important for students' and helps them grow as life-long learners and fosters their reflection though we have to admit that for students it is often confusing to assess their fellow-students. If only start implementing

PBL, it proves to be better if not individual members of the group are assessed by peers but the group as a whole. Students will benefit from PBL more if they are presented with learning objectives and assessment criteria before implementing PBL and before the assessment phase.

#### References:

1. Assessment Tools & Strategies Language Proficiency Assessment. – 2012.: <http://www.learnalberta.ca/content/eslapb/languageproficiencyassessment.html>.
2. Ballantyne, R., Hughes, K., & Mylonas, A. (2002). Developing Procedures for Implementing Peer Assessment in Large Classes Using an Action Research Process. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 27(5), 427-441.
3. Bollela V., Gabarra M., Caetano da Costa, Lim R. A Students and tutors' social representations of assessment in problem-based learning tutorials supporting change. *BMC Medical Education*. – 2009.: <http://www.biomedcentral.com/1472-6920/9/30>.
4. Earl, LM (2003) *Assessment as Learning*. Thousand Oaks, California; Corwin Press.
5. Etherington, M. B. (2011). Investigative Primary Science: A Problem-based Learning Approach.– *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*. – 2011. – 36(9). : <http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2011v36n9.2>
6. Falchikov, N. (2005). *Improving Assessment Through Student Involvement: Practical Solutions For Aiding Learning in Higher and Further Education*: (London, Routledge).
7. Lew M. Peer Assessment In Problem-Based Learning: Students' Views: [www.iaea.info/documents/paper\\_2b7122b93.pdf](http://www.iaea.info/documents/paper_2b7122b93.pdf)
8. Larsson J. *Problem-Based Learning: A Possible Approach to Language Education?* – Polonia Institute, Jagiellonian University. – March, 2001.
9. Mathematical Sciences Education Board, *Measuring What Counts, A Conceptual Guide for Mathematics Assessment*, National Academy Press, 1993.
10. Moursund D. *ICT – Assisted Project-Based Learning*: <http://pages.uoregon.edu/moursund/PBL/index.html>
11. *Problem-Based Learning. Speaking Of Teaching*. Stanford University newsletter on teaching. – Winter 2001 Vol.11.No1.: <http://web.stanford.edu/dept/CTL/Newsletter/>
12. *Problem-Based Learning Evaluation Toolkit*. The Higher Education Academy. Health Sciences and Practice: <http://www.pbldirectory.com/downloads/pbl-toolkit.pdf>.
13. Reynolds, F. (1997). “Studying psychology at degree level: Would problem-based learning enhance students' experiences?”. *Studies in Higher Education*, 22 (3), 263-275.
14. Stevens, F. et al, *User-Friendly Handbook for Project Evaluation: Science, Mathematics, Engineering and Technology Education*, NSF: 1996.
15. Tai, Gillian Xiao-Lian and Yuen, May Chan. *Authentic assessment strategies in problem based learning*. – 2007. : [www.ascilite.org/conferences/singapore07/procs/tai.pdf](http://www.ascilite.org/conferences/singapore07/procs/tai.pdf)
16. Waters R. *Assessment and Evaluation in Problem-Based Learning*: <http://wikifuse.pbworks.com/f/Waters+McCracken.pdf>
17. *What Is Assessment?*: <http://assessment.uconn.edu/what/index.html>.
18. Wood D. *ABC of learning and teaching in medicine. Problem Based Learning*. – BMJ. – 2003. – Volume 326, 8 February. – PP. 328–330.

# ORGANISING A PBL SESSION IN ESL GROUP



- *What are the steps of implementing PBL in ESL classroom?*
- *Why does PBL surpass other existing methods?*
- *How and at which stage is the contribution of each student assessed? What if a student is active but the language is poor?*
- *What's the role of the tutor? How often should he interfere in the discussion? In what way should the most challenging and the most passive students be handled?*

## **ORGANISING A PBL SESSION IN ESL CLASSROOM**

The questions raised in this part are primarily concentrated on the problem of PBL implementation in ESL (English as a second language) classroom. Although acquirements of PBL main principles, it is still necessary to focus on some difficulties in imagining how “pure” version of PBL could be applied to courses where the students have poor or rather weak language skills but much deeper knowledge of some specific subjects versus a teacher of English who is mostly good at the language.

Problem-based learning for English language learners is a successful approach to learning that is highly beneficial in addressing the rapid technological changes, challenging global economic markets, and evolving workplace requirements. PBL has the advantage of involving all learners in collaborative activities that provide immediate feedback and reinforce linguistic and content discovery.

### **Steps of PBL implementation in ESL classroom**

Problem-based learning focuses on learning through solving real, open-ended problems to which there are no fixed solutions. Problems can be taken from real-life news stories, generated by students themselves, and developed from realia. Students work in pairs or groups to understand the problem and then to find possible solutions to it.

Recent research reviews indicate that problem-based learning can lead to long-term learning outcomes, whereas traditional instruction leads to slightly better performance on short-term learning as measured on standardized tests. Problem-based learning is particularly effective in increasing engagement and reducing the achievement gap among English language learners.

Many works have described the process of problem-based learning from the perspective of students. This process generally includes four main steps:

1. being introduced to the problem;
2. exploring what they know and do not know about the problem;
3. generating possible solutions to the problem;
4. considering the consequences of each solution and selecting the most viable solution.

Robert Delisle in his book *How to Use Problem-Based Learning in the Classroom* distinguishes the following steps in organizing the problem-based learning process for ESL students:

- connecting with the problem (for the PBL unit to be effective, students should feel that the problem is important and worth their time and attention. The teacher selects or designs problems that are connected to things students care about in their daily lives. This connection can be made through a pre-reading or discussion, which introduces the topic in a specified fashion.);

- creating the structure (the following step is to form the structure for elaboration of the problem. It gives a framework on which learners can build their project. It provides a proper foundation for students' work and that all the essential elements are included);

- visiting the problem (after the teacher has explained what and how they are going to do, she/he asks someone of the group to read the problem statement once again. She/he concentrates on having students generate problem solving ideas);

- revisiting the problem (after they accomplish their independent work, students reconvene as a class and reconsider the problem. The teacher first asks each student or group to speak on the work they have done. At the same time the teacher evaluates the reference materials students used, their time usage, and the general effectiveness of their action plan);

- presenting the results of the work (each problem ends with a student product or performance. It can be writing a letter to an authority or giving a presentation, etc. The product or performance is designed to provide opportunity for the teacher to evaluate both content objectives and mastery of selected skills. The product lends a sense of purpose to the entire PBL assignment. Students go through the process and research their questions to have material for their product);

- evaluating performance and the problem (at the end of the unit, the teacher encourages students to evaluate their own performance, their group's performance, and the quality of the problem itself. Initially this may present students with some difficulties, so the teacher may wish to provide them with a self-evaluation form).



## Why does PBL surpass other existing methods?

Comparing to all other existing methods based on direct instruction, PBL positions itself as a method involving heuristic search of a solution through engaging in team discussions, facilitated rather than led or dominated by the teacher.

While in other learning contexts, PBL is the tool for translating theoretical knowledge into practical decisions within a certain professional domain such as engineering, economics or science, the objectives of ESL teaching are somewhat different. The primary goal is second language acquisition. In this respect PBL transforms the discussion group into a wholesome learning environment in which students get naturally motivated to apply and activate their speaking skills as well as the grammar-vocabulary background.

What makes problem-based learning unique is its core focus on learning through solving real, open-ended problems to which there are no fixed solutions (Ertmer, Lehman, Park, Cramer, & Grove, 2003).

|                                  | <b>Traditional ESL instruction</b>  | <b>Problem-Based Learning</b>   |
|----------------------------------|---|---|
| <b>What does the teacher do?</b> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– presents the material, explains;</li> <li>– corrects mistakes;</li> <li>– provides assessment guided by how correct the student’s speech is</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– exercises the communicative approach in language teaching;</li> <li>– sets the problem;</li> <li>– provides assistance in tricky or conflict-prone episodes of discussion</li> </ul> |
| <b>What do the students do?</b>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– receive ready knowledge and practice it according to an assigned scheme;</li> <li>– learn by heart and reproduce the texts or dialogues made up by somebody else;</li> <li>– follow the assigned roles if engaged in role-play or dramatization</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– take individual effort to speak spontaneously in the settings of natural dialogue;</li> <li>– apply their speaking skills in authenticated interactions;</li> </ul>                  |
| <b>Learning paradigm</b>         | – reproductive  | – productive  |
| <b>Type of inclusion</b>         | – passive, initiated and directed by the teacher  | – active, motivated   |
| <b>Type of interaction</b>       | – material-based; teacher-centred; teacher-student instructional and learning activities  | – problem-based; student-centred; collaborative project work  |

|                               |   |   |
|-------------------------------|---|---|
| <b>Subject orientation</b>    | – subject that is on the curriculum planned for final test or exam  | – subject that relates to the students’ knowledge, interests and experience   |
| <b>How do students learn?</b> | – students learn the language as a concept through drills, exercises and reproduction   | – students learn the target language by using it  |
| <b>Expectations</b>           | – short-time learning outcomes: retaining the knowledge presented; learning skills  | – long-term learning outcomes: interpersonal, communicative skills by fostering team work, diversity and mutual respect; strategic thinking; problem-solving skills; skills related to planning, organization, negotiation, and role distribution.  |
| <b>How does it work?</b>      | – students are presented with and then practice predetermined language structures;<br>– students’ motivation is to learn all the words they will need for the exam or a test. | – enhances the integration of knowledge or relevance to future profession;<br>– increases engagement and reduces the achievement gap;<br>– can involve senior students acting as peer tutors to the students;<br>– provides a meaningful reason or context to use the language;<br>– students acquire a sense of when and how to use which vocabulary |

**Fig. 11 Main features of PBL**

**How and at which stage is the contribution of each student assessed?  
What if a student is active but the language is poor?**

Assessment can be done either by teachers or peers. Teachers can monitor the learners’ usage of skills, knowledge and language during the project. Learners can speculate on their own work and their peers’ one, how well the team works, what they think of their work and progress, and what knowledge and skills they are obtaining. Contemplating the work, checking the progress, and identifying strong and weak areas are constituents of the learning process.

One part of the PBL process is constant feedback (called formative feedback) to all members of the group. It should be done at the end of each

lesson not by marks but by statements and commentaries. Regular evaluation should not be asserted as an assessment of the teachers' or students' performances, but rather as a mechanism for checking if this method is meeting the students' needs and agrees with the program. Without this response the problems in the group work may accumulate and develop into a really distressful situation. The cumulative student evaluation should take different aspects into account. For example, in medical education the assessment criteria can be application of knowledge, critical thinking, self-directed learning and collaboration, professional attitude during the discussion.

According to Peggy Ertmer, founding editor of *Journal of PBL*, Purdue University, IN and Shella Webster, Principal of World of Inquiry School №58, Rochester, NY assessment is integrated into PBL and it starts the minute a tutor introduces a learning target. Using the scholars' findings and our own experience, we may affirm that in ESL classroom assessment is embedded throughout the project. Tutors use different tools for measuring student understanding from the beginning to the end of a project. During the tutorials the teacher does lots of small checking with the students to see where they are and to see that they are growing along. That determines what next steps need to be put into place in order to support or differentiate the learning for the students in the classroom. The teachers of World of Inquiry School apply evaluation scale – fist to five, where five means that students really feel good about the learning target, they are learning what they need and zero means they have nothing. Another form of assessment is a quick check. That's a sort of a thumb up that denotes that a student gets it, sideways – he is not quite sure, thumb down – he doesn't get it. The above mentioned techniques refer to formative evaluation.

In ESL classroom teachers formatively assess students all the time. Some formative assessments are formal (a draft or outline), while others are more informal (interview questions, discussions). It allows the tutor to know which students need more one-to-one feedback, while others are ready to move forward. This makes tutor's work smarter through small-group instruction and whole-group instruction.

Summative assessment may be implied through writing. Many teachers are driven by standards. In ESL classroom summative assessment is associated with standardized tests. Testing is the basis of educational assessment and represents

a commitment to high academic standards. Considering this fact teachers often begin teaching to the test simply to raise scores, often at the expense of more meaningful learning activities. Nonetheless, ESL teachers can provide their students with some choice to perform a written task. Thus, students need to do research, cite evidence, and make sure that it aligns to their ideas in the written product. Some students choose to write a traditional essay, while others may choose to write a letter to someone they know, and perhaps bring some awareness to a larger audience.

In ESL classroom assessment may also be implied through presentation or portfolio. This technique lets teachers assess different learning outcomes. Students show some of their content knowledge as well as speaking and listening standards around collaboration and effective presentation. They choose how to present their answer to the essential question, whether by a podcast or a Power Point presentation. It allows them to go deeper and express their creativity with the content.

Still there is a dilemma in ESL classroom assessment, which lies in the following: how students should be assessed if they are active but their language is poor. Taking into account our professional experience and scientific research in pedagogic we may claim that in ESL classroom lots of preparatory work must be done before assessing students' achievements. Teachers are always in search of motivating and challenging methods. Doing PBL students are not interrupted when making mistakes. The focus is put on the student and learning. Of course students are awarded grades, the most active ones get bonuses, common mistakes are analyzed together with peers and a teacher. Students are involved in self-assessment and reflection.

**What's the role of the tutor? How often should he interfere in the discussion? In what way should the most challenging and the most passive students be handled?**

Modern education is directed at the development of students intellectual activity and improving their skills of self-learning and it involves a special role of the teacher.

Traditional roles of the teacher and students are changing, and the focus of the methodology becomes student centred rather than teacher centred. In a situation where the student is not an object but subject of the education, the role

of a tutor can be compared with an orchestra conductor. As a conductor, a tutor guides the activities of each student so that the result has obtained from the joint coordinated work of the whole group.

The main function of the tutor is to organize the whole group to decide this problem. This involves:

- formulation of the problem (task);
- diagnosis of the level of knowledge of group members;
- clarity of the methodical installation;
- creating a positive mental attitude of students;
- the correct and creative selection of methods, forms and methods of instruction;
- monitoring and summarizing of the results.

Learning a foreign language is primarily based on the significant independent work of each student. Therefore, a tutor, after guiding a class, should give enough time to individual work of every student and interaction in small groups.

Tutor should interfere in students work if they have some difficulties. However, this interference should not provide straight answers; it may be a tip in searching the source of the answer; choices of several variants thereof, addressing to the previously learnt material, etc.

The important point is debriefing sessions and evaluation of all activities as a whole and individually.

For weak and passive students the following approaches are possible:

- a more detailed instruction;
- reducing the volume per unit time reference;
- learning step by step.

Tutor in all cases should follow the principle of psychological and methodological support.

PBL is an outstanding model that meets the needs of our modern society and encourages successful life-long learning. By focusing on an integration of skills, students become self-motivated and develop the ability to think independently. PBL is an excellent strategy because it includes a curriculum and process that guides exploration in numerous directions with positive outcomes.

The mind map shows the results of our general discussion of the matter (*See App. C*).

## References:

1. Azer, S.A. (2001) Problem-based learning: a critical review of its educational objectives and the rationale for its use. *Saudi Medical Journal*, 22, pp. 299-305.
2. Azer, S.A. (2004) Becoming a student in a PBL course: twelve tips for successful group discussion, *Medical Teacher*, 26, pp. 12-15.
3. Barrows, H.S. & Tamblyn, R.N. (1980) *Problem-Based Learning: An Approach To Medical Education*. New York, Springer Verlag.
4. Barrows, H.S. (1988) *The Tutorial Process*. Springfield, IL: Southern Illinois University School of Medicine.
5. Benson, G., Noesgaard, C. & Drummond-Young, M. (2001) *Facilitating small group learning*. In: E. RIDEOUT (Ed.) *Transforming Nursing Education Through Problem-Based Learning*, pp. 75–102 (Boston, MA, Jones and Bartlett Publishers).
6. Cannon, R. & Newble, D. (2002) *A Handbook for Teachers in University and Colleges*, 4th edn, London, Kogan Page Limited.
7. Crosson, J.C., Deng, W., Brazeau, C., et al. (2004) Evaluating the effect of cultural competency training on medical student attitudes. *Family Medicine*, 36, pp. 199-203.
8. Das Carlo, M., Swadi, H. & Mpofu, D. (2003) Medical student perceptions of factors affecting productivity of problem-based learning tutorial groups: does culture influence the outcomes?. *Teaching and Learning in Medicine*, 15, pp. 59-64.
9. De Grave, W.S., Moust, J. & Hommes, J. (2000). *The role of the tutor in a problem based curriculum*. Produced by Datawyse.
10. Dolmans, D. H. J. M., De Grave, W., Wolfhagen, I. H. A. P., & Van der Vleuten, C. P. M. (2005). Problem-based learning: Future challenges for educational practice and research. *Medical Education*, 39(7), 732-741.
11. Evans, P.A. & Taylor, D.C.M. (1996) Staff development of tutor skills for problem-based learning, *Medical Education*, 30, pp. 365-366.
12. Farmer, E.A. (2004) Faculty development for problem-based learning. *European Journal Dentistry Education*, 8, pp. 59-66.
13. Finucane, P., Nichols, F., Bren Gannon, B., et al. (2001) Recruiting problem-based learning (PBL) tutors for a PBL-based curriculum: the Flinders University Experience. *Medical Education*, 35, pp. 56-61.
14. Gillian Maudsley. (1999). Roles and responsibilities of the problem based learning tutor in the undergraduate medical curriculum. *BMJ*, Vol. 318, 6 March 1999.
15. Grand' Maison, P. & Desmarchais, J.E. (1991) Preparing faculty to teach in a problem-based learning curriculum: The Sherbrook experience. *Canadian Medical Association Journal*, 144, pp. 557-562.
16. Grasha, A. A (1994). Matter of Style: The Teacher as Expert, Formal Authority, Personal Model, Facilitator, and Delegator. *College Teaching*, Vol. 42, No. 4 (Fall, 1994), pp. 142-149.
17. Haith-Cooper, M. (2003) An exploration of tutors' experiences of facilitating problem-based learning. Part 2 – implication for the facilitation of problem based learning. *Nurse Education Today*, 23, pp. 65–75.
18. Harmer Jeremy. *How to Teach English*. – Sixth impression 2010. – Pearson Education Limited. 288 p.

19. Harmer, J. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Longman 1991.
20. Loudon, R.F., Anderson, P.M., Gill, P.S. & Greenfield, S.M. (1999). Educating medical students for working in culturally diverse societies. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 282, pp. 875-880.
21. Maudsley, G. (1999) Roles and responsibilities of the problem-based learning tutor in the undergraduate medical curriculum. *British Medical Journal*, 318, pp. 657-660.
22. Moust, J (2010). *The role of the tutor*. In H. van Berkel et al. (Eds.), *Lessons from Problem-based Learning* (pp. 117-128). Oxford: University Press.
23. Neville, A.J. (1999) The problem-based learning tutor: Teacher? Facilitator? Evaluator?. *Medical Teacher*, 21, pp. 393-401.
24. Nunez, Ae. (2000) Transforming cultural competence into cross-cultural efficacy in women's health education. *Academic Medicine*, 75, pp. 1071-1080.
25. O'Neill, R. *The Plausible Myth of Learner-Centredness: or the importance of doing ordinary things well*. *ELT Journal* 45/4, Oxford University Press 1991.
26. Paice, E., Heard, S. & Moss, F. (2002) How important are role models in making good doctors?. *British Medical Journal*, 325, pp. 707-710.
27. Palmer, P.J. (1998) *The Courage To Teach: Exploring The Inner Landscape of A Teacher's Life*. San Francisco, CA, Jossey-Bass.
28. Richard I. (1997). *Arendt Classroom Instruction and Management*. McGraw-Hill Co, 1997.
29. Sampson, E.E. & Marthan, M. (1990) *Group Process for the Health Professionals*. Albany, NY, Delmar.
30. Savin-Baden M. & K. Wilkie (Eds.). *Problem-based Learning Online*. Maisehead: Open University Press, pp. 45-60.
31. Schmidt, H.G. & Moust, J.H. (1995) What makes a tutor effective? A structural-questions modelling approach to learning in problem-based curricula. *Academic Medicine*, 70, pp. 708-714.
32. Thomas, R.E. (1997). Problem-based learning: Measurable outcomes. *Medical Education*, 31, pp. 320-329.
33. Tuckman, B.W. & Jensen, M.A. (1977) Stages of small group development revisited. *Group and Group Organisation Studies*, 2, pp. 419-427.
34. VanTil, T., & Van der Heijden, F. (2009). *PBL Study Skills*. An overview. Maastricht: Datawyse: Universitaire Pers Maastricht.
35. Weizel, M.S. (1996) Developing the role of the tutor/facilitator. *Postgraduate Medical Journal*, 72, pp. 474-477.

# THE ROLE OF PBL TUTOR IN ESL GROUP



- *What methodological and professional aspects should the tutor take into consideration while designing a problem and organizing pre- and postdiscussion in tutorial groups of ESL?*
- *What can the tutor do to make the discussion phase run smoothly? What are the main implementing steps during the pre-and postdiscussion phase in ESL groups in relation to the problem and to the tutor? What are possible tutor interventions?*



## **THE ROLE OF PBL TUTOR IN ESL GROUP THE ROLE OF THE TUTOR IN PRE-DISCUSSION PHASE IN PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING**

This chapter concerns the role of a tutor in pre-discussion phase in Problem-based Learning.

Questions under consideration may be subdivided into more general ones about the functions of the PBL tutor and more specific – his/her role in pre-discussion.

**The first group** of issues deals with lectures and articles. There are some practical pieces of advice in methodological literature, but no common ground for the issue of tutor's expert knowledge can still be found. For teachers of foreign languages it is essential to have expert knowledge of teaching methods and appropriate language proficiency. But what about expertise in economics, geography or any other subject area studied by students? Is it more/less important than the skills mentioned above? Should the tutor know the answer from the very beginning or could there be a mutual process of discovery (in the long run it's the language, not the scientifically precise presentation of some topic)?

**The second group of** questions was prompted by the lecturers who discussed their group videos. Thus, one of the evident problems for a tutor is the management of real and productive group work. How can a tutor prevent the development of such undesired patterns: 1) a group can eventually get into the groove of PBL discussions and fall into some sort of habitual behaviour which has nothing to do with real inspiration, or 2) a group can consider each problem as basically intricate and time consuming while in reality the problem is easy to follow and needs only some essential steps to be taken?

**What methodological and professional aspects should the tutor take into consideration while designing a problem and organizing pre-discussion in tutorial groups of ESL?**

Considering the fact that the primary goal of the ESL classroom is the development of ESL competences and namely speaking skills, the ratio between language and expertise in a certain domain rather favours the former.

Unlike other subject areas (law, medicine, economics etc.) the function of English in the ESL classroom shifts from being a tool to being a goal and a tool

simultaneously. Consequently, a PBL tutor should direct all effort at selecting tasks that would enhance creative thinking, presuppose different viewpoints, associations, emotional memory, experience, individual classifications, preferences and generalizations.

So, the aspects to consider while designing a problem and in the pre-discussion phase can be viewed as follows:

1) The **problem** itself does not have to be a problem to solve but rather a problem to discuss. Thus it can be positioned in the PROS & CONS or FOR & AGAINST frames, it can be based on a story with a moral dilemma implied (parables i.e. open-ended narratives at best) or encourage students to give tips or make generalities on a certain issue.

It might concern curriculum-based thematic field (Family Structures, Employment, Health) or just be placed in a small-talk format (“Should school uniform be mandatory?”). It is the problematic character of question setting that matters.

2) The aspect that matters in terms of idea generating and opinion exchange is **topic specification**. Whatever the topic addressed, the issues for discussion might relate to the individual experience, knowledge and mainly range of students’ interest. In short, issues should be motivational. Questions must be intellectually challenging and exclude the necessity of expert knowledge. However, students can receive a preparation task to collect statistic data on certain phenomena or information on a certain subject. Students may be encouraged to develop their own questions, mind maps or short lists of issues they can point out.

3) To ensure a sustainable talk in the PBL discussion a tutor is to provide students with a **provisional topic-related vocabulary list or material** – short texts, essays or articles that might appear to come handy throughout the pre-discussion phase.

4) Complying with the objectives of the ESL class, the tutor should make use of its prerogative of involving **the language material in all its possible representations**. A problem concerned does not necessarily have to be set in a strictly rational or logical frame, it might be presented implicitly in a metaphorical text, a quotation, an aphorism or even a picture. Again, unlike the subject matter in other domains, the possibility of introducing metaphorisation and symbolization seems to be something that makes PBL in the ESL class still

more special. Herein an example of such is introduced, it is a method referred to as Thinking Story. Students may be encouraged to formulate their own issues or discuss those provided by the tutor (*See App. D*).

**What can the tutor do to make the pre-discussion phase run smoothly? What are the main implementing steps during the pre-discussion phase in ESL groups in relation to the problem and to the tutor? What are possible tutor interventions?**

Speaking about pre-discussion with ESL students it is worth emphasizing on a supportive classroom climate.

Thus, the following preliminary stages of pre-discussion phase have been distinguished:

- make an introduction with clear simple words, use native language if necessary to relax students. If they don't understand what is demanded, they will drop out of the process at the very beginning;
- emphasize on the importance of speaking practice. Mind that you are going to do some activities to get them talking;
- show the awareness that it is difficult, but your job is to help and support. Assure them that they can succeed;
- let students know their speech will be well received. Nod and smile, but don't draw too much attention to the speakers as it may confuse them. Use 'echo' technique for confirmation and complement. It will signify that their words are worthwhile and worth repeating;
- don't turn your attention to mistakes students make; don't let other students correct their group-mates. Respond supportively, supply a needed word, and help each other.

As for the pre-discussion course, it is necessary to keep in mind that the demands of tasks must be well within the students' ability. The activity itself should be self-relevant, interesting and fun to do. Thus:

- set clear achievable goals;
- create conditions for students under which they can express their own ideas, opinions, tastes, experiences;
- choose tasks which are based on familiar vocabulary, present global expressions students know, use entire spoken texts they know by heart;
- use game-like challenges, visual materials as these channels are dominant and draw student's attention;

- give students information through nonverbal means. This includes giving instructions and showing students how to complete the task you have assigned. Communicating through body language lets bypass the language centre of the brain enabling ESL students to follow directions without slugging through English vocabulary and grammar before they know what to do;
- encourage and allow the use of dictionaries during the period. This useful tool enables students to fully participate in pre-discussion. It is fast, convenient, and a great source of information that will not disrupt or disturb the rest of your group.

**Pre-discussion activities** are primarily intended to provide comprehensible input to students and activate student background knowledge. In doing so, two brief activities – **language input and brainstorming** – are offered. The language input provides students with some key words and expressions for a during-discussion stage, and the brainstorming activity is aimed at encouraging students to think critically about some problem-related issues. Thus, these two activities are geared to provide students with a warming-up activity and to help them to be prepared for the next series of activities.

The activities are designed to help ensure that all students participate equally in them, instead of the situation found in many conversation classes where the most proficient, confident, or outgoing students dominate class or group discussions. Many activities require that all students participate, for example, by each student possessing a piece of information that the group requires to successfully complete a story or solve a problem.

There are various ways to **address the mistakes** made. For example, we created exercises from the mistakes or we can simply go through the major mistakes and explain the correct form.

Some examples of pre-discussion activities are presented (Extending English Language Learners' Classroom Interactions Using the Response Protocol (by: Kathleen A.J. Mohr, Eric S. Mohr)

<http://www.readingrockets.org/article/extending-english-language-learners-classroom-interactions-using-response-protocol>)

**TABLE 1**  
**Examples of teacher elaborations  
of correct responses**

---

"You're right! Can you tell me more?"

"Yes, that's good. What else do you know about that?"

"You are correct. How did you learn that?"

"Yes, that's a very good answer. Can you also tell me why this (concept, information) is important?"

"I like that good thinking, and I like the way you said that." (Perhaps repeat the answer.)

"Good thinking! Good English!"

**TABLE 2**  
**Examples of teacher elaborations  
of partially correct responses**

---

"Thank you. Could you tell me more about that?"

"Yes, I agree that \_\_\_\_\_. Now, let's think more about \_\_\_\_\_."

"You're telling me some good things, especially the part about \_\_\_\_\_. What else?"

"We're heading in the right direction, but that's not quite complete. Do you or anyone else have something to add?"

**TABLE 4**  
**Examples of teacher responses**  
**to student questions**

---

"Thank you for asking. Understanding is important. Good learners ask lots of questions."

"Thank you for asking a question. Questions can help us all be better learners. "

"Wow! That is a great (or important) question. Do you know anything that will help you answer that question?"

"I am glad you asked that question. How can the rest of us answer your question?"

"Let me first answer your question, and then I will ask my question again."

"Do you want to call on another student to answer your question? Do you want one of your classmates to help you?"

**TABLE 5**  
**Examples of teacher elaborations**  
**of incorrect or confusing responses**

---

"Help me understand what you mean. Tell me again."

"Tell me more so I know what you're thinking."

"I want to know what you are thinking. Can you tell me more?"

"You said \_\_\_\_\_. But, I thought that \_\_\_\_\_. Please, help me understand."

"Do you think \_\_\_\_\_ or \_\_\_\_\_?" (Give a right answer as one of the options.)

**TABLE 6**  
**Examples of teacher elaborations**  
**in response to student silence**

"I think you know something about this, and I would like to hear what you have to say."

"Can you show us what you know by acting it out or drawing it?"

"I'm going to come back to you and ask you again. Please get ready to talk with us."

"I want to hear from you in this lesson. Get ready with an answer or a question."

"I expect you to know this/to have something to say. Let me know when you are ready." (Provide a yes or no question or an either/or choice.)

**Fig.12 Examples of prediscussion activities**

Not all of these pieces of advice correlate with the philosophy of PBL which sets much more store by the students' autonomous interaction, but taking into consideration the fact that the students' language skills are sometimes very limited and the leader cannot fulfil his/her functions effectively, a tutor has the right to make his presence more marked than in a 'pure' PBL class.

## **PBL TUTOR'S ROLE IN POST-DISCUSSION PHASE IN ESL GROUP**

This chapter touched the ground of PBL tutor's role in post-discussion process. The differences between PBL, ESL classroom and conventional teaching are presented in the table. From the point of view of ESL classroom teachers the same activities sometimes require different sets of skills and abilities to achieve the main goal (*See App. E*).

*First* of all, ESL classroom teacher as well as conventional classroom teacher should know specific educational methods in teaching foreign languages, the variety of culture contexts etc.

*Second*, the roles of the PBL tutor, ESL classroom teacher and conventional classroom teacher are different as their audience and methods of teaching vary. ESL classroom teacher acts as a controller, prompter, feedback provider, assessor, resource, adviser, challenger, and entertainer. He should control the whole process and be ready to help students immediately. Though PBL tutor is more like a diagnostician, challenger, role model, activator, monitor, evaluator and stimulator, consultant. Predominant roles of the conventional classroom teacher are: consultant, evaluator, diagnostician, entertainer, unique expert.

*Thirdly*, discovering the skills, which a good teacher should possess, 13 of them were pointed out, but having looked attentively at the table given bellow, it is quite obvious that a PBL tutor has more freedom in actions than an ESL classroom teacher. For instance, he doesn't need to give straightforward answers, the explanations may be based on the unique knowledge, he can make preference to the relevant books, he explains *why* the answer is incorrect and *what* can be learnt from making this mistake, the tutor avoids being know-all. In case of ESL classroom teacher it is very important to clarify and specify questions, explanation is an essential part of teaching, teacher often refers to dictionaries, shows students his/her competence.

Under consideration there were the most effective tutor interventions which are worth being used by all sorts of educators. ESL classroom teachers try to use different methods that have much in common with PBL tutor interventions: to promote critical thinking, to enhance communicative skills, to develop co-operative skills, to increase gradually the quantity of the learning material and its complexity; to arrange and monitor students' work, etc. Both PBL tutors and ESL teachers pay special attention to the ability of students to work independently and to the degree of their self-regulation.



No doubt, all types of teachers are involved in activities, which are aimed at the best possible outcome in terms of students' qualification and proficiency. However, it is equally evident that none of the teachers (PBL tutor, ESL teacher, a conventional teacher) is ready to conduct a successful lesson off hand in a different educational environment, because it requires specific skills and even a psychological change of attitude.

To sum all mentioned above up, it is necessary to emphasize that any teacher should acquire different skills and methods of teaching and interactions and should be able to choose the appropriate one according to the situation and the audience the teacher works with.

**Table 1. PBL Tutor's Role in Discussion Process**

| <b>PBL</b>   | <b>ESL classroom</b>  | <b>Conventional teaching</b>  |
|--|---|---|
| <b>Tutor's knowledge</b>   |   |   |
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Subject matter knowledge</li> <li>2. Knowledge of educational principles (e.g. cognitive psychology, cooperative learning)</li> <li>3. Knowledge of the educational context (e.g. clear vision of the course objectives)</li> <li>4. Pedagogical content knowledge (e.g. prediction of difficulties and students' misconceptions)</li> </ol> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1-4.</li> <li>5. Non-expert background knowledge of a wide range of topics</li> <li>6. Knowledge of specific educational methods used in teaching foreign languages</li> <li>7. Knowledge of a variety of culture contexts which often cause students' miscomprehension</li> </ol> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1-4.</li> <li>5. Knowledge of general educational principles and specific educational methods (which are studied differently for each subject)</li> <li>6. Clear vision of the educational goals of a separate course in terms of a definite degree qualification</li> </ol> |
| <b>Tutor's roles</b>   |   |   |
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Diagnostician (e.g. at the reporting stage observes to what extent the subject matter has been mastered)</li> <li>2. Challenger (makes sure that the students apply the acquired knowledge to a variety of cases)</li> </ol>   | <p>According to J.Harmer the teacher's roles are that of:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Controller (may work for grammar explanations and other information presentation, but it is less effective for activities where students are work-</li> </ol>   | <p>Most of the roles are present in conventional teaching as well, but the predominant ones are those of a consultant, evaluator and diagnostician. We would also add such roles as:</p>  |

|  |  |   |
|--|--|---|
| <p><b>3.</b> Role model (can demonstrate the samples of questioning, learning and reflection processes)</p> <p><b>4.</b> Activator (activates the student's prior knowledge)</p> <p><b>5.</b> Monitor (oversees the overall progress of the group and individual students, monitors the quality and the level of questions in the tutorial)</p> <p><b>6.</b> Evaluator and stimulator of reflection</p> <p><b>7.</b> Consultant</p> <p><b>8.</b> Discussion stimulator</p> | <p>ing together cooperatively on a project)</p> <p><b>2.</b> Prompter (encouraging students, pushing them to achieve more, feeding in a bit of information or language to help them proceed)</p> <p><b>3.</b> Feedback provider (helping students to evaluate their performance)</p> <p><b>4.</b> Assessor (telling students how well they have done or giving them grades)</p> <p><b>5.</b> Resource (for language information, etc.) when students need to consult us</p> <p><b>6.</b> Advisor who responds to what the student is doing and advises them on what to do next</p> <p>We can also name such functions as: a challenger (makes sure that the students use the acquired knowledge in a variety of real life situations); role model (a primary speaker model for the students); entertainer; unique expert; memory coach (teaches different mnemonic techniques); logopedist (deals with speech problems), etc.</p> <p>Part of our teacher personality is our ability to perform all these roles at different times.</p> | <p><b>1.</b> entertainer – creates a general positive impression that “learning is fun”</p> <p><b>2.</b> unique expert – shares his/her own personal experience</p> |
|--|--|---|

## Tutor's skills

|   |  |   |
|---|--|---|
| <p><b><i>1. Asking questions.</i></b><br/>The questions are as open ended as possible. They should be aimed at activating cognitive learning activities as well as stimulating group interaction, e.g. 1) to draw attention to the inconsistencies of discussion, 2) to invoke different perspectives, 3) to check the level of understanding of the subject, 4) to stimulate the reflection concerning the learning process and group discussion, etc. The last type of questions is very rarely used in the conventional classroom.</p> | <p><b><i>1. Asking questions.</i></b><br/>The questions are both open and close. Asking questions is a verbal skill which is taught by ESL teachers, so their questions are often subjected to the type of verbal form the teacher wants to activate. Questions are also frequently used to check the learners' comprehension of the subject matter and to stimulate elementary linguistic analysis of the speech patterns (e.g. Why do you think the first letter finishes with "Yours sincerely, Kate" and the second with "Best, Kate"?). There are also opinion questions which help to develop relationship between statements.</p> | <p><b><i>1. Asking questions.</i></b><br/>The questions are often closed. They are used 1) to check the individual understanding of the subject matter, or whether the student has studied all the reference sources; 2) to involve all the students in the discussion; 3) to supply the alternative point of view which hasn't been covered by the students. The predominant types of questions are content based or cause-effect investigation.</p> |
| <p><b><i>2. Answering or reacting to students' questions</i></b><br/>Students may study different resources so it is important to give them a kind of indirect guidance of the trustworthy ones. The tutor doesn't need to give a straightforward answer to a disputable question, but he/she can help the students by giving credit to more reliable resources or by asking another question that will serve as a hint.</p>  | <p><b><i>2. Answering or reacting to students' questions</i></b><br/>Questions raised in English class can be of different types: 1) questions about the language – it's up to the teacher to decide whether it is better to give a straight answer or to refer the student to some source (the choice depends on the student's level and time); 2) opinion questions which do not have any "right" or "wrong" answers if they are tackled in a polite and tolerant manner</p>   | <p><b><i>2. Answering or reacting to students' questions</i></b><br/>Reflection and critical thinking are valued in the conventional classroom as well. That is why it is always advisable to refrain from giving dogmatic disheartening answers and instead fuel up the discussion with a short inconclusive remark.</p>   |

|  |  |   |
|--|--|---|
| <p><b>3. Clearing up the ambiguities</b></p> <p>Clarification and specification of a question enable the tutor to see whether students are able to express clearly the difficulty they have in understanding the problem. Questions requiring clarification and specification will provide the tutor with certain feedback vis-à-vis the quality and quantity of the self-study carried out by the group. If a question is more properly formulated students will be able to benefit more from the tutor's answer.</p> | <p><b>3. Clearing up the ambiguities</b></p> <p>It's also very important to clarify and specify questions as otherwise students are at a loss and can't react and move on. In fact, the bigger part of the ESL teacher's job is to rephrase and clarify the discussion to make it more comprehensible for everybody.</p> | <p><b>3. Clearing up the ambiguities</b></p> <p>The teacher often holds himself responsible for the clarity of explanation. So the teachers often resort to paraphrases and lengthy descriptions of the task. Sometimes students use this to their own advantage pretending that they do not understand the task and waiting for the teacher to come up with very evident explanations which are half-answers themselves.</p> |
| <p><b>4. Providing hints so that students are able to discover the answers for themselves.</b></p> <p>The tutor can provide these hints in a number of ways in a tutorial. Direct and indirect hints are therefore helpful in guiding the discussion.</p>  | <p><b>4. Providing hints so that students are able to discover the answers for themselves.</b></p> <p>Direct and indirect hints are given by the tutor to help students answer questions and it's also possible to present ready answers.</p>  | <p><b>4. Providing hints so that students are able to discover the answers for themselves.</b></p> <p>Hinting is often a plausible pretext for some of the teachers to continue their monologues speech and "pour" their knowledge onto the students. To make a helpful hint is a skill which needs practice and conscious effort.</p>  |
| <p><b>5. Explaining the subject matter</b></p> <p>The tutor can always proceed to give an answer to the question on the basis of his expertise. The explanation should be closely related to the question and to the foregoing learning process. The explanation</p>   | <p><b>5. Explaining the subject matter</b></p> <p>The new topics are usually explained in relation to the question and to the foregoing learning process. Explanation is an essential part of teaching grammar, culture and speech norms.</p>  | <p><b>5. Explaining the subject matter</b></p> <p>There is often no tendency to keep the explanation to a minimum. Moreover, eloquence in explanation, abilities to build up an argumentative, logical, stylistically and rhetorically perfect</p>  |

|  |  |   |
|--|--|---|
| <p>may be based on the unique knowledge that the tutor possesses. The effectiveness of the explanation can be improved by factors such as structure, the use of examples, interaction with the group, use of language, eye contact, etc. Still the explanation is kept to a minimum, since this uses up the time that could be used for the reporting phase.</p>   |  | <p>explanation are considered to be essential qualities of an efficient teacher.</p>  |
| <p><b>6. Referring to other sources of information in answers to questions.</b><br/>The tutor makes specific reference to the relevant books, because otherwise students reap the rewards of inadequate preparation for the tutorial.</p>  | <p><b>6. Referring to other sources of information in answers to questions.</b><br/>The tutor doesn't often refer to other sources than dictionaries.</p>  | <p><b>6. Referring to other sources of information in answers to questions.</b><br/>The tutor doesn't often make specific reference to the relevant books, except those indicated as obligatory and optional reading.</p> |
| <p><b>7. Active listening</b><br/>The tutor encourages students to make a positive contribution to the discussion by nodding his head, maintaining eye contact or by the use of other gestures. Active listening also means paraphrasing the contributions of students. The tutor also reflects the unspoken reactions of students and summarises important deliberations made by students or demonstrates the necessity of these.</p> | <p><b>7. Active listening</b><br/>The tutor uses a lot of the methods and techniques of active listening because ELS student need twice as much encouragement to speak up than students who use their native language.</p> | <p><b>7. Active listening</b><br/>It's also desirable for the teacher to use the techniques of active listening.</p>  |
| <p><b>8. Analyzing students' mistakes</b><br/>When a student gives a</p>   | <p><b>8. Analyzing students' mistakes</b><br/>The tutor may explain</p>  | <p><b>8. Analyzing students' mistakes</b><br/>A teacher may explain</p>   |

|  |   |   |
|--|---|---|
| <p>wrong answer to the question the tutor explains why the answer is incorrect and what can be learned from making this mistake.</p>   | <p>why the answer is incorrect or just give the correct answer or explain what can be learned from making this mistake.</p>   | <p>why the answer is incorrect or just give the correct answer and doesn't often explain what can be learned from making this mistake.</p>  |
| <p><b>9. Taking notes</b><br/>When bringing up a relevant aspect from the discussion at a later stage, the tutor also turns to annotations made on the blackboard/whiteboard by the scribe.</p>  | <p><b>9. Taking notes</b><br/>The tutor may take notes during the class and turn to annotations made on the blackboard.</p>   | <p><b>9. Taking notes</b><br/>It's not usually typical to take notes during the class and turn to annotations made on the blackboard.</p>   |
| <p><b>10. Refraining from breaking up silences with a quick response</b><br/>This way the tutor encourages discussion.</p>   | <p><b>10. Refraining from breaking up silences with a quick response</b><br/>It's also desirable for the teacher to stay quiet and not break up silence with a quick response.</p>  | <p><b>10. Refraining from breaking up silences with a quick response</b><br/>It's also desirable for the teacher to stay quiet and not break up silence with a quick response.</p>  |
| <p><b>11. Putting forward a proposition (based on information, an example or an opinion) which is either at odds with or supports what students are saying.</b><br/>The tutor introduces a counterargument which may help stimulate students to prolong the discussion and then passes the initiative for the discussion back to the students. The tutor takes care not to draw too much attention to him.</p> | <p><b>11. Putting forward a proposition (based on information, an example or an opinion) which is either at odds with or supports what students are saying.</b><br/>The tutor doesn't often take care to draw too much attention to him or her.</p> | <p><b>11. Putting forward a proposition (based on information, an example or an opinion) which is either at odds with or supports what students are saying.</b><br/>The teacher often takes up the role of "devil's advocate" setting himself in a mock opposition with the group. This enlivens the discussion unless the students are too afraid to contradict the teacher.</p> |
| <p><b>12. Stimulating reflection</b><br/>The tutor points out contradictions in the discussion and gets students to think out loud.</p>  | <p><b>12. Stimulating reflection</b><br/>The tutor may also get students to think out loud.</p>   | <p><b>12. Stimulating reflection</b><br/>The teacher may also get students to think out loud.</p>   |

|   |  |   |
|---|--|---|
|   |  |   |
| <b>13. Open attitude</b><br>The tutor is positive and avoids being know-all.  | <b>13. Open attitude</b><br>It's desirable for the teacher to be positive and to show students his or her perfect competence.  | <b>13. Open attitude</b><br>It's desirable for the teacher to be positive and to show students his or her perfect competence.   |
| <b>Tutor's interventions</b>  |  |   |
| <b>1. Tutor intervention levels</b><br>The description of the stages in group development has revealed the importance of tutor interventions in creating optimum conditions for group cooperation. One dilemma facing a tutor is when and how to intervene. A useful aid is overcoming this dilemma is provided by Schwarz's diagnosis-intervention cycle: to observe the behaviour of the tutorial group to identify any specific forms of behaviour.<br>Intervention levels.<br><b>1) Structural-functional interventions</b> (the accent here is on the values, norms and perceptions with respect to the role and functions of the group members) – e.g. the tutor helps the students to see the peculiarities and values of different group roles.<br><b>2) Goal-oriented and executive interventions</b> (impact on the objectives of the tutorial group) – e.g. draws attention to the intensity | <b>1. Tutor intervention levels</b><br>Teachers often use traditional methods, but try to focus on the students' self-actualization, so it involves personal approach to each student. A wide range of methods are employed:<br>- to <u>promote critical thinking</u> (debates; fake "expert meetings"; alternative point of view presentations; peer checking of some assignments; stimulating the students to summarize the discussion themselves; questioning stronger students on the levels of analysis, synthesis and evaluation [in Bloom's taxonomy]);<br>- to <u>enhance communicative skills</u> (special training dialogues, teaching special communicative speech patterns, reduction of teacher talk in favour of student talk)<br>- to <u>develop co-operative skills</u> (through frequent change of groups member- | <b>1. Tutor intervention levels</b><br>The main purpose is to provide students with an environment in which everyone is a real subject of study. As it is criticized in PBL sources, teachers often tend to "boss, cop and judge". In fact, a traditional teacher supervises and strongly directs the learning process and assists the students in solving any problems or obtaining knowledge via different educational methods:<br>- providing the reference literature and additional recourses, lectures; summarizing the students' discussions; conducting "interviews" with separate students while the others are listening; offering reproductive training exercises before productive ones<br>- enhancing students' self-learning through a certain number of tasks which are designed for |

|   |   |  |
|---|---|--|
| <p>and the depth of the discussion.</p> <p><b>3) Instrumental interventions</b> (change in behaviour and working relationships) – e.g. the tutor encourages individual responses and active participation.</p> <p><b>4) Interpersonal interventions</b> (focus on the group members' values, norms and perceptions concerning each other) – the tutor stimulates respectful treatment in the classroom.</p> <p><b>5) Intrapersonal interventions</b> (the accent is on values, norms and perceptions which group members hold about themselves with respect to the way in which they function within the group) – e.g. the tutor raises self-awareness of each group member</p> | <p>ship and seating rearrangement in the classroom)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <u>to increase gradually the quantity</u> of the learning material and its complexity;</li> <li>- <u>to arrange and monitor students' work</u> in pairs, in small groups and as a whole group;</li> <li>- <u>to organize extracurricular work</u> (thematic shows, language tournaments, release of wall newspapers and posters);</li> <li>- <u>to use of innovative IC technologies</u>;</li> <li>- <u>to create a favourable climate</u> in the learning process</li> <li>- <u>to teach respect for other members</u> of the group (support of weaker students with additional vocabulary assistance, asking them questions which are of comprehension and application levels, avoidance of commentaries of individual unsatisfactory results of the test, abrupt elimination of any kind of humiliation or bullying if it is noticed in the student group).</li> <li>- <u>to teach tolerance and respect for other nations and cultures</u> (explanation of cultural discrepancies, provision of interesting information about things, relations, traditions pecu-</li> </ul> | <p>independent study without any checking in the classroom. But these questions appear in the exams</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- specifying the form of individual and / or group activities of students, depending on the complexity of the task</li> <li>- assessing individual or co-operative group effort in task accomplishing</li> <li>- stimulating creativity through the usage of different types of presentation and demanding the same from the students.</li> </ul> |
|---|---|--|



|   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
|   | <p>liar of some cultures)<br/> - <u>to conduct continuous monitoring</u> of the language proficiency alongside with the account of the active participation and factual informative input of each student.<br/> On the stage of monitoring and evaluation it is possible to combine traditional and innovative methods.<br/> - <u>to provide the pedagogically adequate feedback</u> to the students concerning the aspects mentioned above and to obtain students' feedback.</p>   |   |
| <p><b>2. Tutor's regulation in self-directed learning</b><br/> <b>1. Congruence</b> exists when there is a balance between the level of students' learning independence in the tutorial group and the method of tutor's regulation.<br/> e.g. Low students' self-regulation level(SSRL) = Strong tutor's regulation(TR); Intermediate SSRL= Shared TR; High SSRL= Loose TR<br/> <b>2. Constructive friction</b> happens when helped by tutor regulation, the students gradually become more responsible for taking charge of the tutorial.<br/> <b>3. a) Destructive friction by overestimation</b> occurs when students are unable to keep</p> | <p><b>2. Tutor's regulation in self-directed learning</b><br/> In ESL class we pay special attention to the ability of our students to work independently and to the degree of their self-regulation. And we may say that all the types of tutor's regulation in PBL exist here as well. For example, experienced teachers easily define the level of their students' learning autonomy and choose teaching strategies which are compatible with it. Whereas destructive friction by over- or underestimation may occur in a young teacher's classroom when he/she inadequately estimates the tutorial group abilities.</p> | <p><b>2. Tutor's regulation in self-directed learning</b><br/> Teacher's regulation of the learning process depends greatly on the students' ability for self-regulation as well as the teaching style typical of that very teacher. We believe that congruence, constructive friction, and destructive friction may also be observed in conventional teaching. <u>What seems to be different is the conscious effort of the PBL tutor to help the group evolve in its ability for self-study.</u> It seems that the conventional educational curriculum doesn't suggest many changes throughout the course</p> |

|   |   |  |
|---|---|--|
| <p>pace with the tutor because they are not able to meet his perceived expectations of them; and thus, the productive potential of the tutorial group will be severely restricted.</p> <p>b) <u>Destructive friction by underestimation</u> occurs when the tutor deprives his students of the possibility to extend and apply their learning skills because he doesn't believe in their learning capacity.</p>   |   | <p>that take into consideration the growing independence of the learners. Such 'self-directed learning progress' can be observed mostly in the research work: students learn how to work more and more independently on their course papers and, eventually, they look for consulting relationships with the tutor at the master's degree level.</p>   |
| <p><b>3. Styles (models) of tutor's regulations</b></p> <p><b>1. Modelling</b> (tutor assumes responsibility for the learning activities of students).</p> <p><b>2. Coaching</b> (the tutor intervenes only when he observes that contributions made by students are insufficient for the required level of understanding)</p> <p><b>3. Consulting</b> (efforts will concentrate on refining those skills which satisfy the professional norms and values that students will require after their studies)</p> | <p><b>3. Styles (models) of tutor's regulations</b></p> <p>We think that teaching in ESL classroom is characterized by a number of styles to facilitate learning. ESL teachers exercise various styles of teaching, which are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- formal authority style at lectures;</li> <li>- expert and demonstrator style to transmit knowledge at the beginning of studying;</li> <li>- coach or facilitator style at the later stages of education when students have enough knowledge and skills to perform certain activities by themselves.</li> <li>-consultant or delegator style is appropriate when student are ready to function autonomously on projects and various researches.</li> </ul> | <p><b>3. Styles (models) of tutor's regulation</b></p> <p>In his work R. O'Neill stated that teachers in traditional approach pay close attention to those factors in a lesson they believe will promote learning and which are most directly under their own control. The teachers may follow different styles (models) of teaching:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- formal authority style (provides and controls the content).</li> <li>- expert style (displays detailed knowledge and challenges students to enhance their competence).</li> <li>- demonstrator style (demonstrates skills and processes and then helps students develop and apply these skills and knowledge).</li> </ul> |

## References:

1. Azer, S.A. (2001) Problem-based learning: a critical review of its educational objectives and the rationale for its use. *Saudi Medical Journal*, 22, pp. 299-305.
2. Azer, S.A. (2004) Becoming a student in a PBL course: twelve tips for successful group discussion, *Medical Teacher*, 26, pp. 12-15.
3. Barrows, H.S. & Tamblyn, R.N. (1980) *Problem-Based Learning: An Approach To Medical Education*. New York, Springer Verlag.
4. Barrows, H.S. (1988) *The Tutorial Process*. Springfield, IL: Southern Illinois University School of Medicine.
5. Benson, G., Noesgaard, C. & Drummond-Young, M. (2001) *Facilitating small group learning*. In: E. RIDEOUT (Ed.) *Transforming Nursing Education Through Problem-Based Learning*, pp. 75–102 (Boston, MA, Jones and Bartlett Publishers).
6. Cannon, R. & Newble, D. (2002) *A Handbook for Teachers in University and Colleges*, 4th edn, London, Kogan Page Limited.
7. Crosson, J.C., Deng, W., Brazeau, C., et al. (2004) Evaluating the effect of cultural competency training on medical student attitudes. *Family Medicine*, 36, pp. 199-203.
8. Das Carlo, M., Swadi, H. & Mpofo, D. (2003) Medical student perceptions of factors affecting productivity of problem-based learning tutorial groups: does culture influence the outcomes?. *Teaching and Learning in Medicine*, 15, pp. 59-64.
9. De Grave, W.S., Moust, J. & Hommes, J. (2000). *The role of the tutor in a problem based curriculum*. Produced by Datawyse.
10. Dolmans, D. H. J. M., De Grave, W., Wolfhagen, I. H. A. P., & Van der Vleuten, C. P. M. (2005). Problem-based learning: Future challenges for educational practice and research. *Medical Education*, 39(7), 732-741.
11. Evans, P.A. & Taylor, D.C.M. (1996) Staff development of tutor skills for problem-based learning, *Medical Education*, 30, pp. 365-366.
12. Farmer, E.A. (2004) Faculty development for problem-based learning. *European Journal Dentistry Education*, 8, pp. 59-66.
13. Finucane, P., Nichols, F., Bren Gannon, B., et al. (2001) Recruiting problem-based learning (PBL) tutors for a PBL-based curriculum: the Flinders University Experience. *Medical Education*, 35, pp. 56-61.
14. Gillian Maudsley. (1999). Roles and responsibilities of the problem based learning tutor in the undergraduate medical curriculum. *BMJ* , Vol. 318, 6 March 1999.
15. Grand' Maison, P. & Desmarchais, J.E. (1991) Preparing faculty to teach in a problem-based learning curriculum: The Sherbrook experience. *Canadian Medical Association Journal*, 144, pp. 557-562.
16. Grasha, A. A (1994). Matter of Style: The Teacher as Expert, Formal Authority, Personal Model, Facilitator, and Delegator. *College Teaching*, Vol. 42, No. 4 (Fall, 1994), pp. 142-149.
17. Haith-Cooper, M. (2003) An exploration of tutors' experiences of facilitating problem-based learning. Part 2 – implication for the facilitation of problem based learning. *Nurse Education Today*, 23, pp. 65–75.
18. Harmer Jeremy. *How to Teach English*. – Sixth impression 2010. – Pearson Education Limited. 288 p.

19. Harmer, J. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Longman 1991.
20. Loudon, R.F., Anderson, P.M., Gill, P.S. & Greenfield, S.M. (1999). Educating medical students for working in culturally diverse societies. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 282, pp. 875-880.
21. Maudsley, G. (1999) Roles and responsibilities of the problem-based learning tutor in the undergraduate medical curriculum. *British Medical Journal*, 318, pp. 657-660.
22. Moust, J (2010). *The role of the tutor*. In H. van Berkel et al. (Eds.), *Lessons from Problem-based Learning* (pp. 117-128). Oxford: University Press.
23. Neville, A.J. (1999) The problem-based learning tutor: Teacher? Facilitator? Evaluator?. *Medical Teacher*, 21, pp. 393-401.
24. Nunez, Ae. (2000) Transforming cultural competence into cross-cultural efficacy in women's health education. *Academic Medicine*, 75, pp. 1071-1080.
25. O'Neill, R. The Plausible Myth of Learner-Centredness: or the importance of doing ordinary things well. *ELT Journal* 45/4, Oxford University Press 1991.
26. Paice, E., Heard, S. & Moss, F. (2002) How important are role models in making good doctors?. *British Medical Journal*, 325, pp. 707-710.
27. Palmer, P.J. (1998) *The Courage To Teach: Exploring The Inner Landscape of A Teacher's Life*. San Francisco, CA, Jossey-Bass.
28. Richard I. (1997). *Arendt Classroom Instruction and Management*. McGraw-Hill Co, 1997.
29. Sampson, E.E. & Marthan, M. (1990) *Group Process for the Health Professionals*. Albany, NY, Delmar.
30. Savin-Baden M. & K. Wilkie (Eds.). *Problem-based Learning Online*. Maisenhead: Open University Press, pp. 45-60.
31. Schmidt, H.G. & Moust, J.H. (1995) What makes a tutor effective? A structural-questions modelling approach to learning in problem-based curricula. *Academic Medicine*, 70, pp. 708-714.
32. Thomas, R.E. (1997). Problem-based learning: Measurable outcomes. *Medical Education*, 31, pp. 320-329.
33. Tuckman, B.W. & Jensen, M.A. (1977) Stages of small group development revisited. *Group and Group Organisation Studies*, 2, pp. 419-427.
34. VanTil, T., & Van der Heijden, F. (2009). *PBL Study Skills*. An overview. Maastricht: Datawyse: Universitaire Pers Maastricht.
35. Weizel, M.S. (1996) Developing the role of the tutor/facilitator. *Postgraduate Medical Journal*, 72, pp. 474-477.

# FUTURE OF PBL IN ESL GROUP



- *What are the ways of introducing PBL into EFL practices?*
- *How can the tutor adapt PBL to the EFL format?*
- *How should the students' individual input be assessed?*

## FUTURE OF PBL IN ESL GROUP

*“To spark a flash of knowledge in a pupil the teacher needs to encompass an ocean of wisdom light” BUT!*

*“A hundred of teachers are helpless unless you make yourself work and set demands to yourself.”*

**Vasyl Sukhomlynskyi**

Information and communication technologies have spread globally to such an extent that the whole world seems to be squeezed into a nutshell and a few clicks transfer you virtually into another hemisphere or time zone. This “time and space travel” has given growth to a tendency of believing that almost anything can easily be transferred from one place into another. The idea that has gone viral among educators is that you can take a bit of one method, add to it a few principles from another one, stir it all up and serve to the learners under the sauce of a third method. Then, such teachers are called creative, innovative and progressive. Are they? It all depends on the fact whether there is a solid ground under their new method in terms of estimated psychological and cognitive effects, as well as learning outcomes.

Problem-based learning is not new (judging by the time of its official implementation), it is not even overwhelmingly trendy (there are so many “interesting” names popping out every day), but it is solid. PBL philosophy follows the natural path of cognitive development of a human being. A pupil acquires knowledge only when he is struggling for it. The truth is so old that it has already been forgotten and seems to be new to novice teachers. PBL makes a point of inspiring learners to look for knowledge, to turn a flash sparked by the teacher into an eternal torch of self-education and personal development. Thus, to support basic PBL principle doesn't mean to be trendy, it means to act in the best interests of your learners.

Pieces of research conducted on the effectiveness of PBL in various disciplines are too numerous to be summed up in a single categorical statement “PBL is bound to be – universally acclaimed or inevitably altered and transformed, etc. – in the nearest future”. The general tendencies seem to be the following:

1. PBL successfully makes its way from medicine into both hard and soft sciences such as engineering, computer programming, management, language acquisition, etc.;

2. PBL penetrates all educational levels which raises a question of preparedness of different types of learners for it;

3. PBL frequently needs adaptation to the cultural and educational background otherwise the learning ceases to be contextualized;

4. There is a very thin line between adaptation of PBL and its utter transformation which ruins its basic philosophical principles (e.g. the controversy of lecturing);

5. Its difference from the so-called conventional teaching is often ill-measured as the researches do not encompass many important factors, narrowing the outcomes only to scoring the knowledge of factual information. This debate drives us to the question “Can the effectiveness or productivity of such complex phenomena as PBL and traditional teaching methods be actually compared?”

6. PBL has found its place among many other new teaching methods as it addresses universal heuristic principles;

7. PBL has been estimated highly by most of the teachers and students who tried it;

8. PBL keeps up with the time “upgrading” its techniques together with the ICT progress;

9. PBL still needs to face the issues of social and cultural justice by finding the solutions for such problems as unequal access of the learners to learning materials, unequal participation of learners with different levels of foreign languages proficiency.

### **Theoretical Issues:**

**1. What is the position of PBL in the context of other group-based methods of learning – case study, flipped classroom, team-based learning and role play? How does PBL principally differ from them or are they rather PBL’s varieties?**

#### **Case-based teaching (CBL) vs PBL**

CBL may be considered similar to PBL if the problem being addressed is very scenario-specific. Also, if well-executed, they both tend to rely on the students’ exploration of the topic and use of critical thinking rather than the instructor’s dispensing of wisdom.

Problem-based learning is more open-ended and the scenarios or problems being presented may not have clear-cut outcomes or even well-documented heuristics about how to go about solving the problem. A limited amount of information is disclosed to students, just enough to frame the problem. The

students are more responsible for interpreting the phenomena before deriving the methods and resources for addressing the problem.

In CBL, the instructor might be tempted to be the sage who provides a path to resolve the case, whereas in PBL the instructor is more of a facilitator and advisor to encourage students but if the problem is well-crafted the facilitator will not be able to indicate a “right” answer. We would compare the instructors in CBL to tour guides who can direct you to the clear path to your destination, while facilitators in PBL are more like midwives who can’t have the baby for you, but they can encourage you to breathe and push.

### **Flipped classroom**

It is an instructional strategy and a type of blended learning that reverses the traditional educational arrangement by delivering instructional content, often online, outside of the classroom. It moves activities, including those that may have traditionally been considered homework, into the classroom. In a flipped classroom, students watch online lectures, collaborate in online discussions, or carry out research at home and engage in concepts in the classroom with the guidance of the instructor.

The similarity between PBL and flipped classroom lies in the students’ prior acquiring the background knowledge of the subject as well as presenting their subjective reasoning. The difference is that the classroom settings do not have to concentrate on a PBL debate but also involve many other activities of which a PBL session might be just an option.

### **Team-based learning (TBL)**

Although problem setting is an essential principle of TBL, students perform as teachers to each other, delivering the bits of information they have preliminarily found and presenting them in class through their own view and understanding of the subject matter.

So, the role of PBL is that of an element of the whole elaborate system of TBL. Most efficiently they cooperate if the subject under discussion is positioned as a problem (instead of “The system of education in the UK” it can be “Should Ukraine adopt some of the principle and approaches exercised in British educational environment?”)



# PBL and other methods in pictures



The **conventional teaching** relies heavily on the teacher's expertise and interpretation. Thus, it is up to the teacher to indicate some of the clues in Jan van Eyck's portrait (one of the most enigmatic in the European art) to drive students to one of the possible interpretations or to present all of them.



**PBL** learners are essentially self-guided learners who are inspired with the problem much as the couple in Marc Chagall's picture is inspired by love.



In **competency-based learning**, the students will not have to look at the same parts of Pieter Bruegel's "The Dutch Proverbs" following the lecturer's instruction, but they will follow their own pace, taking time or moving forward as quickly as their competence in that subject allows them.



Andy Warhol's Coca Cola bottles represent such basics of the **case method** as a well-structured (as opposed to ill-structured) real life or close to real life situation that can inspire role-play and decision making.



**Flipped classroom** turns everything “upside down”: students listen to video lectures and study theory individually at home, while in the classroom they are helped by the teacher to apply their knowledge in practice. The children in the photo seem to be applying their skills of drawing right in the gallery as they are inspired by the works of Ramsis Younan.



**Project-based learning** is oriented at integration of subjects, real life projects, and tangible results. The monument of Ukrainian Easter egg dedicated to Canadian Mounted Police in Vegreville, Canada, is a very multicultural, multidisciplinary, multipurpose project.

**2. Can the PBL format be divided into levels – beginner PBL, advanced PBL, expert PBL, independently from the language competence of the learners? If so, what are the PBL levels in the ESL classroom and what are their distinctive conceptual and procedural features?**

We suppose that the PBL can be divided into some levels because:

1) Student populations range from secondary school to postgraduate. It is clear that PBL should serve diverse student populations who have different abilities, background and thus have different needs and expectations.

2) Some of the articles discuss the challenges that learners face, in particular, learning to do PBL, whether a result of prior knowledge, language, or experiences in schooling. In PBL, students take charge of their education while emphasizing critical thinking skills, understanding, learning how to learn and working cooperatively with others (White, 1996). These skills are not overtly developed or used in the traditional teacher-centred classroom and as a result, students do not become self-directed in their learning and continue to rely too much on being fed information by others.

3) One of the tenets of PBL is that problems should be authentic (e.g., Hmelo-Silver, 2004), but what is perceived as authentic is highly dependent on the learner's cultural and disciplinary context. Problems should be designed to fit the level of students' knowledge and take into account their language proficiency.

But the language competence of the learners can't be separated from the PBL format. The problem-solving tasks involve collecting data to solve the problem in the best possible manner. This involves a huge amount of reading by the students from every possible resource such as reading up books in the library and assessing databases. The level of students' language proficiency should be taken into account. Without such adaptation, it will be difficult to motivate students to engage with the problems and/or discuss them in English. Singaram, van der Vleuten, Muijtjens, and Dolmans focused on the challenges of using PBL with students whose first language is not the same language as instruction. The authors reported that earlier qualitative research in this context found that language and academic achievement hindered group process and achievement. In this study, the results were quite straightforward in that students' prior achievement and English as a first language (EFL) predicted student achievement. EFL negatively affected group motivation, possibly

because the native English speakers may dominate the group, a question worthy of further research.

**Thus, we may distinguish at least three PBL levels – beginner; advanced and expert PBL. Their distinctive conceptual and procedural features are:**

**Beginner PBL:**

In the PBL class, students solve the problems which are mostly dependent on the learner's cultural background and knowledge. At this level PBL is introduced to learners. Students may also be given a worked example of the first problem as a model. Learning how to learn and work cooperatively with others is emphasized. The level of students' language proficiency is pre-intermediate or intermediate.

**Advanced PBL:**

The level of students' language proficiency is intermediate or upper-intermediate. Critical thinking skills, the ability to work productively as a team member, understanding how PBL works are among some distinctive conceptual and procedural features. The problems are real-to-life but not too complicated.

**Expert PBL:**

The learners are competent users of the language or native speakers. Students have a high professional competency, problem-solving abilities, knowledge acquisition, the ability to work productively as a team member and make decisions in unfamiliar situations, and the acquisition of skills that support self-directed life-long learning, self-evaluation, and adaptation to change. They investigate complicated and authentic problems. The learners are expected to be fully absorbed in the tasks.

**3. How free can the students be in structuring the problem, defining its specific issues, selecting the material? Should it rather be the responsibility of the tutor? How does it depend on the type and level of a PBL session?**

A PBL class in ESL practice has a two-fold mission – to enhance speaking skill building as well as to develop research skills of students and their analytical mindset.

Whether the tutor should do the selection and structuring of the problem as well as providing the materials for the would-be PBL class rather depends on how experienced and competent the learners are as PBL participants.

If it is a completely new experience for the learners, PBL is already a challenge in itself, let alone dealing with heaps of new infos in a foreign language. So, initially it is the tutor who should select materials for his students according to the level of complexity, considering the factors of interest and novelty. It is the tutor who can assess the propriety of the materials available so that the students do not get lost or stuck in the great amount of varied information they have access to. The tutor's contribution will spare them a lot of time and effort in their first performances as PBL learners.

The peculiarity of an ESL modification of PBL is that the key factor is the language. It is the tutor who already has a set of materials he finds appropriate for using as basis for an English class. The students will benefit more from the right linguistic material provided by the tutor than from a Wikipedia article interspersed with new and complicated vocabulary.

It is also the tutor who can predict whether the problem set can be potentially "talkable", that is appropriate for an active discussion.

As far as the formulation of the problem is concerned, it can be a collaborative effort undertaken both by the tutor and the students. It is actually the students' prerogative and a matter of their interest to choose the issues they would like to discuss.

#### **4. Can the tutor participate in the discussion as a partner?**

If the tutor takes part in the discussion as a partner he automatically becomes very dominant, as students consider his opinion, knowledge and authority. So, the tutor's active participation has a risk to cause tension and cross-purpose and may lead to lack of commitment, cynicism or student absenteeism. Thus, such situation breaks one of the main principles of PBL – self-direction.

What is needed is shared guidance. This implies that PBL process should be characterized by more tutor guidance at the beginning through shared guidance of both the students and the tutor to more student guidance at the end.

It's necessary for tutors to learn to trust their students. Give them more freedom and responsibility in searching and selecting information that is reliable and relevant to the problems in order not to hinder the learning process but challenge and stimulate it.

We'd like all of us to keep in mind the saying: "The mediocre teacher tells. The good teacher explains. The superior teacher demonstrates. The great teacher inspires".

Although a tutor needs to be present, he needs to relinquish control to the students. He should allow them to explore their passion in learning. However tutors can move strategically from student to student as they all engage in different discussions. When the tutor takes part in an activity or acts as a partner it improves the atmosphere at a lesson. However, the tutor takes a risk of dominating the activity while performing it. And of course the tutor should systematically provide advice and guidance to the students and help them to clarify ideas.

### **5. What psychological parameters should the tutor consider while holding the discussion (personality type, academic capacity, achievement rate, performance style or others)?**

While holding a PBL session the tutor should consider the fact that voluntary participation of each learner is of essential importance as PBL is an exceedingly communicative enterprise. No learner will be willing to contribute to a discussion if they do not feel at ease. Communication is firmly related to comfort.

Therefore a positive learning environment is the necessary background that actually makes a PBL class happen. This is ensured by the tutor's taking into account a set of psychological factors that in this or that respect make an impact on the session.

All the stages of the discussion – from planning to reflection – should be substantially backed by the tutor's consideration of the learners' psychological comfort.

While **PLANNING a PBL** session we should not only go into the problem area, but also into the background and mindset of every student involved in the discussion. Thus we should:

- avoid points that might appear to be sensitive or intimidating to some of the participants (e.g. selecting a problem issue on the topic "Appearance" we'd rather avoid the problem of obesity if there is an overweight student in class);

- pursue political correctness and tolerance (e.g. if there are children from single parent families in class, discussing the potential outcomes of this status would appear to be somewhat allusive);

- avoid issues that hold too much controversy or can be viewed as suggestive and provocative (like single-sex marriages or legalization of drugs).

- While **HOLDING a PBL** class the tutor's job is to get it started and continued in a positive route. So, the following tips might appear to be useful:

- keep balance between the input of each learner – too active learners should not be allowed to dominate the discussion while less active ones should be encouraged;

- lack of activeness on the part of the learners might also have different reasons. So if the learner is too shy but has something to say, we should encourage him/her as much as possible. But if it is just a student with low academic performance, he'd better not be placed in the limelight;

- avoid negative comments or still more negative emotions concerning whatever the students say – criticism should be well-meaning and formulated accordingly;

- in case a conflict arises, be sure to settle it immediately through the appropriate pedagogic means.

- While **ASSESSING** each of the learner's input the tutor should:

- provide a descriptive analysis of each of the learner's contribution, singling out the most active participants though;

- be positive in his/her characterization;

- explain the motivation for the points or marks the students get for the class;

- support those in the background with fair praise and encouragement.

The successful conduct of the discussion and solution of the problem is provided by the correct organization. To do this, the tutor has to choose an important and interesting topic for all students, to formulate the problem, break the decision into the stages and to allocate tasks based on pre-drawn psych diagnosis the members of the group (individually and as a whole), and choose such methods of correction and feedback, to ensure that:

- an activity of each student;

- the freedom of the individual manifestations;



- interaction in system “teacher–student”, “student–student”, “student–group”.

We realize this process on the basis of the following principles:

- imposition of authority (instead of overprotective);
- emphasis on the merits (instead of criticism);
- the projection of the result (instead of threats);
- emphasis on confidence, but also rigor;
- empathy.

Functional and operational approach impact on the group or individual student is performed, of course, in the context of the current socio-psychological situation. During the first few minutes of class, we estimate the situation (for facial expressions, kinesics, and vocabulary) and select the exposure operation, which will create the desired result of the interaction. It should be noted that this is the most difficult aspect of the tutor, and not always successful. This may be due to complex causes.

### **PRACTICAL ISSUES:**

#### **1. What functional vocabulary is to be considered before holding a PBL class (argumentation, comparison, assumption, contradiction etc.)?**

In problem-based learning, the tutor must assume role which is different from any other. A tutor is a teacher who is responsible for stimulating tutorial-based students into working together to find solutions to the problems which they have been assigned. The role of a tutor is not to impart information directly to students, but to assist them in the learning and group processes. The tutor’s support consists of empowering students in the acquisition of knowledge and improving group interdependence. The role of tutor demands a different perspective on teaching and learning and calls upon other teaching and educational-psychological know-how and skills than those with which he is most familiar. A major task of the tutor is to optimise the problem-based learning process. One of the tutor’s most frequent tasks in the tutorial is to ask and answer questions and the way in which he does this can serve as an example to students. This “model” behaviour can help the students to learn and as such, should be made more explicit by the tutor. Here are some examples of how a tutor should behave and what functional vocabulary should be used holding a PBL class.

## **PBL's Thesaurus**

### **Examples of teacher elaboration of correct responses**

“You are right! Can you tell me more?”

“Yes, that’s good. What else do you know about that?”

“You are correct how did you learn that?”

“Yes, that’s a very good answer. Can you also tell me why this (concept, information) is important?”

“I like that good thinking, and I like the way you say that.”

“Good thinking! Good English!”

### **Examples of teacher elaboration of partially correct responses**

“Thank you! Could you tell me more about that?”

“Yes, I agree that ... . Now, let’s think more about ... .”

“You are telling me some good things, especially the part about ... .What else?”

“We are heading in the right direction, but that is not quite complete. Do you or anyone else have something to add?”

### **Examples of teacher elaborations of incorrect or confusing responses**

“Help me understand what you mean. Tell me again.”

“Tell me more so I know what you are thinking.”

“I Want to know what you are thinking. Can you tell me more?”

“You said ... . But, I thought that ... . Please, help me understand.”

“Do you think ... .or ...?”

“Is this what we have to learn?”

“I’m unclear about this particular aspect. Can you explain it, seeing as it’s your field of study?”

“Can you illustrate that in ...?”

### **Examples of teacher responses to students questions**

“Thank you for asking. Understanding is important. Good learners ask lots of questions.”

“Thank you for asking a question. Questions can help us all be better learners.”

“Wow! That’s a great (or important) question. Do you know anything that will help you answer that question?”

“I am glad you asked that question. How can the rest of us answer your question?”

“Let me first answer your question and then I will ask my question again.”

“Do you want to call on another student to answer your question? Do you want one of your classmates to help you?”

“That’s a good question, because it shows how you can differentiate between... ”

“I see from your question that I was too quick to assume you’d understood the subject matter in question.”

| <b>Examples of teacher questions to students</b>   |
|--|
| <p>“If we adopt this solution, what are its pros and cons?”</p> <p>“Does John’s statement square up with Liz’s?”</p> <p>“If A occurs ... then ...?”</p> <p>“Suppose that ... what would happen ...?”</p> <p>“Why is it so?”</p> <p>“What do you think are the most important explanations for the fact that ...?”</p> <p>“What gaps in knowledge did you experience in the brainstorming session?”</p> <p>“Can you now answer the question that was raised at the initial case analysis phase?”</p> <p>“Were the hypotheses correct?”</p> <p>“I’m going to ask this question in order to see whether you’re able to apply this knowledge effectively”.</p> |

**Fig.13 PBL’s Thesaurus**

| <b>Filler Phrases for Students</b>  |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|--|
| <b>agreement</b>  | <b>contradiction</b>  | <b>argumentation</b>  | <b>assumption</b>  |
| I thoroughly agree with .../that ...<br>I quite agree...<br>It is quite true ...<br>It is quite a reasonable argument | Nevertheless, ...<br>However, ...<br>I’m afraid I disagree on this point<br>... | According to ...<br>As stated in ...<br>As far as we can judge from ...<br>As we can see from/in ...<br>Let’s consider the following points | I assume ...<br>It might be true that ...<br>In my opinion ...<br>In my view ...<br>As far as I am concerned ... |

| <b>Filler Phrases for Students</b>                             |  |  |  |
|--|--|--|--|
| <b>explaining ideas</b>  | <b>putting ideas in order</b>  | <b>cause and effect</b>  | <b>concluding words</b>  |
| For instance<br>In other words<br>Namely<br>Such as<br>That is | Firstly<br>Secondly<br>Finally<br>Furthermore<br>Importantly<br>Lastly | As a result<br>Consequently<br>For that reason<br>Hence<br>So<br>Therefore<br>Thus | All this evidence points to...<br>All this suggests that...<br>In conclusion<br>This results in<br>To sum up |

## Fig.14 Filler Phrases for Students

### **2. What assessment grid/scale can be compiled for the ESL problem-based discussion? (It should be two-fold – subject and language).**

PBL complying with the student-centred tendencies in education presupposes delegation of certain teacher's functions and responsibilities to the students.

PBL is actually conceived for the teacher to share his/her functions and prerogatives with the students. That's what student-centred approach is about.

But what about assessment? Should it be, as ever before, the tutor's prerogative and autonomous decision?

We are in favour of a balanced approach. Both the tutor and the students are to come up with an overall descriptive assessment of the session in general and of each of the student's input in particular.

PBL's assessment **principles** should be **fairness, encouragement and positive evaluation**.

In our opinion, negatively set comments will discourage students from further participation. The tutor should insist on everybody's being positive, polite and considerate in their comments.

The most problematic point is converting the impressions from the student's input into a certain grade, mark or number of points.

In order to make the assessment more appreciative of the individual effort of each student we should make use of an elaborate assessment scheme in which every aspect of participation is taken into account.

As a PBL class in ESL is both about language and subject the **assessment scheme** should be three-fold: **subject – language – communicative behaviour**.

Assessment as a **procedure** should be three-fold too: **assessing each other – assessing oneself – tutor's assessment**.

Here is an assessment scheme which represents all the positions mentioned above:

| <b>Category of Assessment Criteria</b> | <b>Assessment criteria</b>  | St. 1 | St. 2 | St. 3 | St. 4 | St. 5 | St. 6 | St. 7 | St. 8 |
|--|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| <b>Subject</b>                         | Preparation and insight into the subject<br>Relevance and reasonability of arguments<br>Originality and creativity<br>Participation and contribution to the discussion. |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| <b>Communicative Behavior</b>          | Respectful and considerate treatment of the other participants.<br>Active listening<br>Collaboration  |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| <b>Language</b>                        | Use of the topical vocabulary.<br>Use of the functional vocabulary.<br>Comprehensibility and correctness of speech.   |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |

**Fig.15 Assessment criteria of PBL**

Each criterion is estimated according to a 10-point scoring scheme in which three levels are to be assumed: high, average, low:

**High level:** 7-10

**Average level:** 4-6

**Low level:** 1-3

## References:

1. Cheaney, J. & Ingebritsen T.S. *Problem-based Learning in an Online Course: A case study*. The USA, Iowa State University, 2005. Retrieved from <http://www.irrodl.org/index.php/irrodl/article/view/267/433>
2. Dolmans, D.H.J.M., Grave De W., Wolhagen, I.H.A.P & Vleuten, van der C.P.M. Problem-Based Learning: Future Challenges for Educational Practice and Research. *Medical Education*, 2005, 39: 732-741. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2929.2005.02205.x
3. Fulton, K. P. *Time for Learning: Top 10 Reasons Why Flipping the Classroom can Change Education*. Corwin, 2014.
4. Golich, V. L., Boyer, M., Franko, P., Lamy, S. *The ABCs of Case teaching*. Georgetown University, 2000.
5. Hmelo-Silver, C.E. International Perspectives on Problem-based Learning: Contexts, Cultures, Challenges, and Adaptations. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning*, 6(1), 2012. <http://docs.lib.purdue.edu/ijpbl/vol6/iss1/3/>
6. Jolly, L. *Supporting Group Learning*. University of Southern Queensland. Retrieved from <http://utmlead.utm.my/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/PBL-tutor-resource-book.pdf>
7. Lockwood, R. B. *Flip It!: Strategies for the ESL Classroom* By. University of Michigan Press, 2014.
8. Michaelsen, L., Bauman-Knight, A., and Fink, D. *Team-based Learning: A Transformative Use of Small Groups in College Teaching*. Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing, 2003.
9. Palmer, P. *The Courage to Teach*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, 1998.
10. Ravitz, J. Introduction: Summarizing Findings and Looking Ahead to a New Generation of PBL Research. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning*, 3(1), 2009. Available at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.7771/1541-5015.1088>
11. Sang, S. & Torp, L. *Problems as Possibilities*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 2002. Retrieved from [http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/101064/chapters/How\\_Do\\_You\\_Support\\_Problem-Based\\_Learning%20%A2.aspx](http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/101064/chapters/How_Do_You_Support_Problem-Based_Learning%20%A2.aspx)
12. Savin-Baden, M. *The Challenge of Using Problem-Based Learning Online*. Retrieved from <http://www.mheducation.co.uk/openup/chapters/0335220061.pdf>
13. Seng, O.T. *Problem-Based Learning: The Future Frontiers*. National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore. Retrieved from [http://www.tp.edu.sg/staticfiles/TP/files/centres/pbl/pbl\\_tan\\_oon\\_seng.pdf](http://www.tp.edu.sg/staticfiles/TP/files/centres/pbl/pbl_tan_oon_seng.pdf)
14. Van Til, T. & Van der Heijden, F. (2009). *PBL Study Skills*. An overview. Maastricht: Datawyse: UniversitairePers Maastricht, 2009.

# CONCLUSIONS



## CONCLUSIONS

To sum it up, we did our best to see the possibility of implementing PBL in a foreign languages classroom and we believe PBL is a promising prospect in terms of the future developments in ESL learning. Unlike other subject domains, ESL is a favourable PBL's "venue" in terms of thematic variety. In case English is taught to pedagogic students, the problem itself can come up in three varieties:

1) *a pedagogic situation* describing problematic, conflict-prone or psychologically controversial episodes of teacher-student interaction;

2) *a linguistic problem* focusing upon modern aspects of linguistic research;

3) *a problem relating to the subject area under discussion* that brings up a certain aspect of the whole theme studied by the students of a definite specialty at their foreign languages lessons.

Hence, the problem-based learning allows forming and fixing skills, developing skill, achieving a consensus, guiding in information fields and interdisciplinary situations. One of the main requirements of PBL is active cooperation with the purpose of all-round studying of the problem and formation of viable decisions. Application of the problem-based learning is possible in any scientific branch, but demands thorough training in the organization of teaching and educational process and taking into account features of studying, that inherent in different disciplines.

Process of studying foreign language can become more effective with the help of input of problem situations in the educational process. PBL is considered as principle of study and as new type of educational process, as method of study and as new didactic system. Problematical character, as the priority direction of the personal-guided approach in study of foreign language, can be realized at all levels of the organization of a teaching material and the educational process itself. Problem submission of a material promotes increase of efficiency of process of study as it stimulates mental activity, independent information search and aspiration to the analysis and generalization. The principle of problematical character makes closer the process of study with the process of knowledge, research, creative thinking. The essence of activation of educational activity by means of problem study consists not in usual intellectual activity and mental operations from the decision of stereotyped problems and performance of reproductive tasks, but in activation of thinking by creation of problem situations, in formation of cognitive interest and modelling of intellectual processes which causes the true creative approach. Thus, skills of



the search, skilled approach to the decision of theoretical or practical problems are formed. Application of a principle of problematical character allows varying a teaching material, receptions of teaching in view of the contents of education, forms of the organization of educational process, a level of knowledge of students, their readiness to independent work.

The problem-based learning at the lessons of foreign language allows developing creative activity of students, raising their motivation, independence, awareness about the contents of the future profession, developing mental skills. While teaching foreign language, the most effective is the development of another language professional communicative competence. Thus, tasks in the problem-based learning have strongly denominated professional character, and statement of the problem, substantiation of its topicality, the description of methods and course of research, representation of conclusions and results occur to active use of lexicon and phraseology of foreign language. Problem situations with the use of foreign language allow making active mental activity of students. Playing at the lessons of foreign language of a plenty of various situations both oral and written dialogue, helps students to be integrated into process of speaking of another language professional adaptation and to be ready to the realities of the future professional work.

Application of the problem-based learning at the lessons of foreign language helps to search more effective methods and the ways of reorganization of reproductive thinking on productive, creative levels.

Specificity of the subject “Foreign language” and a degree of its complexity cause applications of the problem-based tasks which promote optimization of speech activity of students and formation of skills practically to use foreign language as means of dialogue raises efficiency of educational process and allows achieving the best results. Work at problem situations enables students to impose active cognitive needs, intellectual and speech activity and to acquire new material.

In a context of studying foreign language the special attention is paid to such groups of problem tasks: searching and game tasks, communicative and searching tasks, communicatively guided tasks, cognitive and searching tasks, cultural tasks. Basic properties of problem-based tasks are:

1. Authentic dialogue at the lesson.
2. Topicality of the task for participants.
3. Complexity of the task.
4. An information inequality of partners (participants who have different interests and supplementary hobbies).

## 5. Creative character.

To develop students' communicative skills outside of a language environment, it is not enough to fill the lessons by conditional and communicative or communicative exercises which allow solving communicative problems. It is important to suggest for students to think, resolve problems which generate ideas, to think about the ways of the decision of these problems so that students focus on the contents of the statement that in the centre of attention there was an idea, and the language acted in its direct function of formation and the formulation of these ideas.

Teachers of foreign language, applying the problem-based learning, stimulate students to work unostentatiously at the lessons creatively, actively, induce them to study material, to develop the main idea in competitive form, to find key statements, to perform project work on the basis of the obtained information.

Advantages of the problem-based learning in process of studying foreign language are: independent mastering of knowledge by own creative activity, development of productive thinking, and high interest to educational process. Main disadvantages are: weak controllability of students' cognitive activity, great expenses of time for achievement of projected purposes, an insufficient level of language preparation of students, lack of time for careful studying of this or that theme.

Mastering the method of PBL the student becomes an expert of the new level, allocated by creative abilities, critical thinking, professional competence, ability to produce and make decisions in changeable situations by means of foreign language in view of other people culture, provides application of the problem-based learning. Such study allows the future experts of any branch to form certain models of scientific research, to test themselves for professional suitability, to search the most effective ways of solving the problem and to predict the results of their decisions by means of foreign language communicative competence.

If we speak about students of other disciplines whose academic activity is conducted in a foreign language, we, in fact, face one of the challenges for PBL implementation. The tutor needs to find a golden middle between his/her support of the students who grope for comprehension of the task or are in trouble explaining their own opinion and the gradual but inevitable shift for their autonomy in learning.

As always, there are no readymade workable recipes, but you'll never taste any pudding, good or bad, unless you start cooking.

# APPENDICES



**FOUR MAIN PRINCIPLES OF PBL: COLLABORATIVE,  
CONTEXTUAL, CONSTRUCTIVE AND SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING  
(Dolmans, De Grave, Wolfhagen, & Van der Vleuten, 2005)**

**Constructive learning**

Constructive Learning refers to learning which occurs by constructing understanding and knowledge by experiencing things and giving meaning to it (Ertmer & Newby, 2008). The design of instruction should be able to successfully trigger “internal cognitive processing” in the mind of the learner, especially in the complex learning environment of health sciences and medicine (Stewart, 2009). It is important to include strategies and teaching formats that enable knowledge construction, storage and retrieval ways in which new knowledge can be linked to prior knowledge and transferred from short term memory to long term memory (Ormrod, 2009). It includes: strategies to direct attention, giving meaning to learning, constructing, organizing, elaborating and clarifying information. Information retrieval is enhanced by allowing retrieval time, variety of questions, increasing flexibility in teaching and creating challenge.

**Contextual learning**

Contextual learning is characterized by the use of cases/problems or examples that closely match or are real world situations for which the learners are being trained. Learning in the context of a problem or situation helps learners to understand its content application more easily. It is also more motivating and interesting. Coupled with practice, and exposure to multiple related environments, it allows for “deeper learning” and better learning transfer (Regehr & Norman, 1996). Instructional design should therefore include real problems with multiple perspectives, to challenge and motivate students as well as enhance transfer. The cognitivist and constructivist theories of learning emphasize the need of contextual embedding of the new information to more effective learning (Ertmer & Newby, 2008).

Contextual theorists show that the storing process of new knowledge is more effective when connections are made to the prior knowledge. The

contextual approach helps the students to make these connections and to give the new information sense in their own prior existing frames of thinking (Ormrod, 2006).

### **Collaborative learning**

Collaborative learning is a concept in which the members of a group work together to achieve a common goal (Van Boxtel, Van der Linden, & Kanselaar, 2000). They have to interact, share and learn from other students. During the process of discussion, the students need to present and defend their own ideas. This has a positive cognitive as well as social influence on the learning process (Rudland, 2009). Then it could be recognized that their communication and social interaction skills will improve day after day (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2006). The collaborative learning environment has been shown to be very effective on problem solving (Qin, Johnson, & Johnson, 1995). In various professional fields, it provides an authentic environment of team work, which is an important and integral part of their later professional lives. Educational processes must therefore provide opportunities for collaboration. Considering those benefits makes us believe that collaborative learning is one of the most important learning principles and should be applied in any curriculum.

### **Self-directed learning**

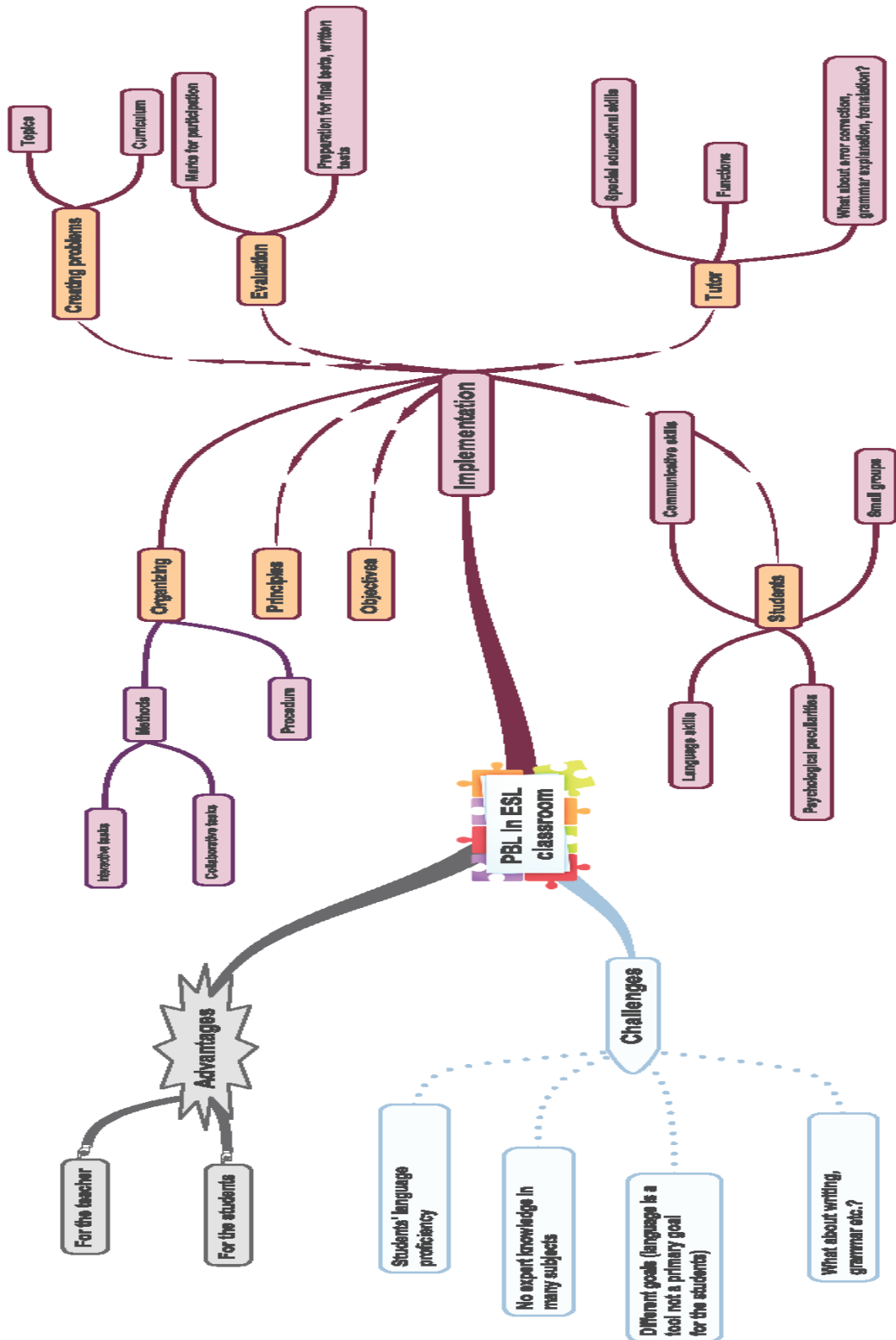
Self-directed learning means that the learners “direct” their own learning process. This requires awareness of metacognitive skills to decide on the goal, on the methods to approach the task and to ensure the goals will be met (Bandaranayake, 2009). It also means that the learner anticipates the difficulties and the enabling factors for learning. The learner not only plans and accomplishes the goals, but also evaluates the process through reflection. Self-regulation requires prior knowledge and motivation, and leads to more effective learning and higher achievement levels (Dolmans & Schmidt, 2006).

**Table 1: Seven-steps of PBL: logic and potential practical shortcomings**

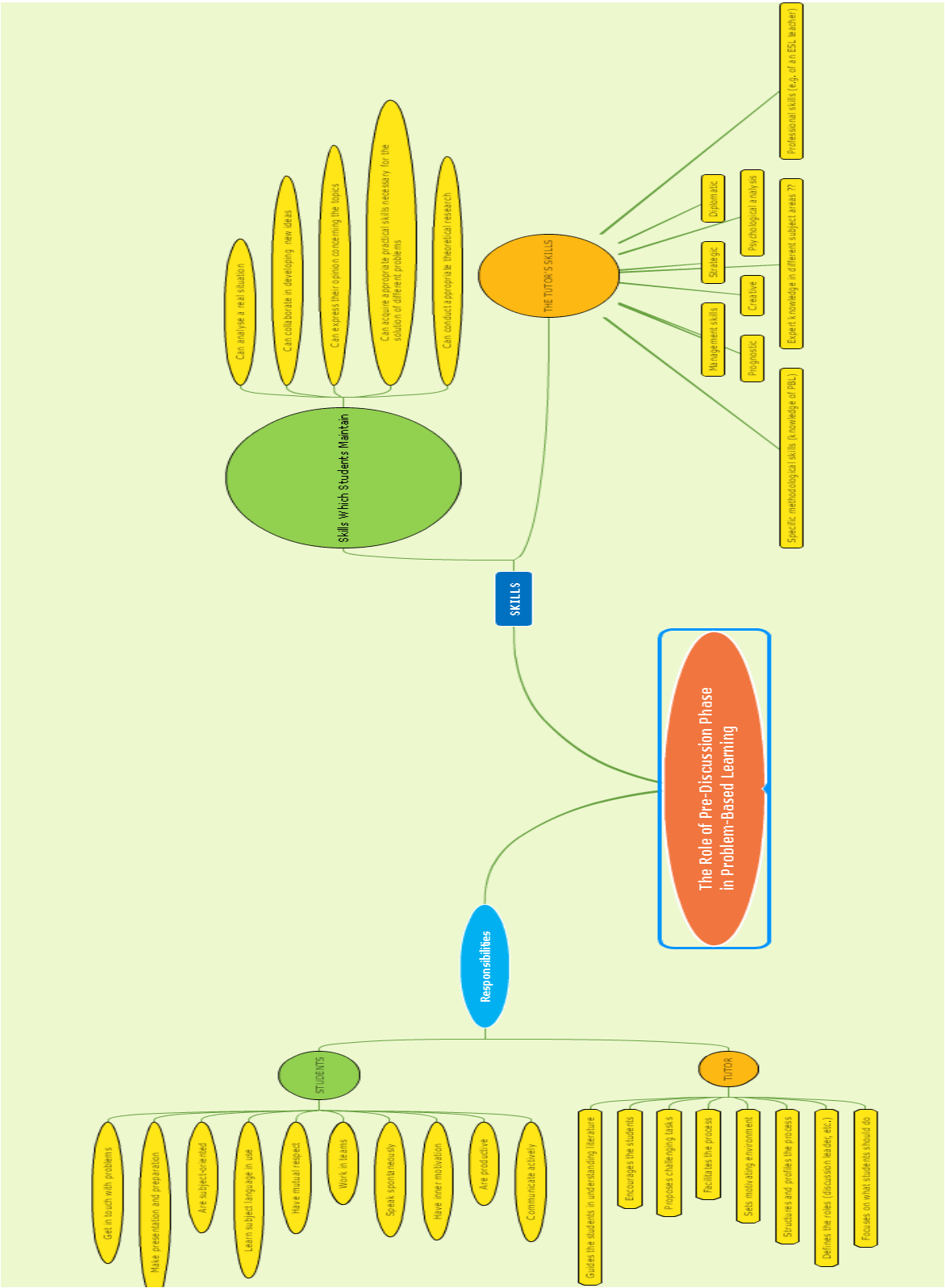
(Maurer & Neuhold, 2012)

|   | What to do?                                | What to do in detail?  | Why?  | Potential shortcomings   |
|---|--|--|---|--|
| 1 | Clarification of terms and concepts        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>ask for explanation of words or concepts that are not understood</li> <li>if illustration: discuss what picture shows</li> </ul>        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>provide common starting point, i.e. every group member should understand the assignment text as it stands</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>students already drift into detailed discussion of concepts</li> <li>students provide wrong explanations for words/concepts - &gt; tutor intervene</li> <li>students wait for tutor to answer their questions instead of collaborate efforts</li> </ul>   |
| 2 | Formulation of Problem Statement           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Provide “title” for the session or formulate wider research question, i.e. “what is it about”</li> </ul>                                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Students dive into topic and grasp the “<i>underlying problem</i>” of the assignment</li> <li>By discussing in the group, students establish a common ground of the problem – they not only name it but discuss it and also examine its wider relevance</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Sloppy formulation of a very broad problem (e.g. “EU integration”)</li> <li>Students just name topic but do not identify “problem”;</li> <li>When assignment has title – students show tendency to copy this title, although then often no understanding of meaning</li> </ul>  |
| 3 | Brainstorm                                 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Everything is allowed: collection of ideas, potential explanations in regard of problem statement, etc.</li> </ul>                      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To establish and contrast: what does the group already know – what does the group want to find out</li> <li>students spontaneously name aspects that THEY consider as interesting and relevant</li> <li>activation of prior knowledge and real-world experiences – students should link the problem statement to existing knowledge</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Students just pick keywords from assignment text and copy them on whiteboard – leads to “deconstruction” of constructed assignment rather than student-centred learning process</li> <li>Students do not explain why they proposed certain keyword – ask for clarification</li> <li>Students are “uncreative” in coming up with potential explanations, and just focus on fact-finding (What is x? What is y?)</li> </ul> |
| 4 | Categorising and Structuring of Brainstorm | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Keywords from Brainstorm are put into similar categories (e.g. according to question type: why, how, what consequences etc.)</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Structuring first creative collection of ideas to find patterns and facilitate the formulation of <i>few</i> learning objectives</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Inexperienced students find it difficult to see patterns, get frustrated, and revolt by putting keywords together that do not fit</li> <li>Majority of group puts keywords randomly together without explaining why this specific system –intervene</li> </ul>  |

|   |                                    |  |   |  |
|---|------------------------------------|--|---|--|
| 5 | Formulation of Learning objectives | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Use categories of structured brainstorm to formulate single questions, or research task (e.g. “look for x”)</li> </ul>      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide clear focus in reading the literature by having smaller research questions guiding the learning process</li> <li>• Clear and guided assessment of what is needed to answer the posed questions</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sloppy formulation of questions, e.g. students do not consider any difference if questions starts with “how” or “why”</li> <li>• Students show tendency to rely on tutor to provide “correct” learning objectives, as seems quicker to get finished for this tutorial</li> <li>• Potential pitfall: if literature does not answer learning objective, students show tendency not to engage with additional literature or reflect on their focus but blame the literature (“the author is not relevant/suitable/expert enough”)</li> </ul> |
| 6 | Self-Study                         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students read literature, look for additional sources, prepare answers to the formulated learning objectives</li> </ul>     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Student as self-directed and responsible learner</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students do not spend enough time for self-study</li> <li>• Students read texts superficially, or find it difficult to judge what are the main important points of a text</li> <li>• Students get study material from more senior students that they bring to class – no reflection, no self-directed learning</li> </ul>   |
| 7 | Post-discussion                    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students report back on how they answered the learning objectives; compare results but also exchange arguments</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• By formulating acquired knowledge in own words and by exchanging arguments with peers, deeper understanding is facilitated in contrast to pure memorising;</li> <li>• Students become aware of potential misinterpretations of (empirical) material in being confronted with reports from other peers</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students just exchange factual knowledge and summarise the literature, instead of embarking on answering the learning objectives</li> <li>• Students remain superficial in their reporting, and do not grasp the depth and full complexity of different aspects</li> </ul>  |
|   | & Reflection on Learning Process   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Self-assessment of students in learning process and peer assessment, especially in roles of chair and discussant</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• By becoming aware of what works well and what could be improved, first step to improve learning process</li> <li>• Not all experiences students have to make themselves, but they can learn tremendously by observing and providing feedback to each other</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Superficial feedback (“chair was good”)</li> <li>• Too less time allocated to reflection on learning process</li> </ul>   |







### USEFUL TIPS FOR A PBL TUTOR

(based on *Samy A. Azer Challenges facing PBL tutors: 12 tips for successful group facilitation*)

One of the main tasks of a PBL tutor is to facilitate group discussion. Group facilitation is about process rather than content. In this process, a tutor helps the group increase their skills and progress in their discussion. PBL tutors usually feel that it is not that easy to change their teaching style to the PBL format. They are sometimes unsure about their role or what strategy they might use to facilitate their students' discussion. '12 Tips' provided in these recommendations should help tutors with practical answers.

**1) Ask your group to identify their ground rules in the first tutorial (a tutor should make sure that they are generally understood and excepted by all the members and can set his/ her own rules concerning the class management):**

- Turn off mobile phones during tutorials.
- Everyone should come on time.
- We should respect each other's opinions.
- Listen to one another.
- Everyone should contribute to the case discussion.
- We will listen to the different views we have in the group.
- We should debate our differences in opinion rather than argue.

**2) Discuss with your group the different roles they may play (tutor should 1) introduce different roles, 2) help the students in their choice (if asked), 3) give additional support to some performers:**

- Listens to each member's input, records and organizes, encourages every member to contribute.
- Adds new information, deepens group understanding, focuses on the issue and avoids negative arguments.
- Summarizes all the information and makes a copy available to every member of the group after the tutorials.
- One of the students could be nominated by the group to be the group representative.

- We might need to use resources as we discuss the case.
- A student may have more than one role in the same tutorial.

### **3) Build trust and encourage bonding of group members:**

- Catch students in the act of doing something good.
- Don't criticize anyone.
- Never label students.
- Avoid adopting an attitude that can cause biases.
- Encourage teamwork.
- Be a good listener and encourage effective communication.
- Value the potential of each group member.

### **4) Do not dominate group discussion but rather facilitate the process:**

- Think empower, not control.
- One of the students in your group will soon say what you want to say.
- Do not rush to ask questions or provide information.
- Get feedback on your teaching style.
- Monitor the timing and type of your interactions
- Teach the joy of learning by discovery.

### **5) Be a role model for your group and monitor your teaching skills:**

- Come on time to the tutorials.
- Read the tutor guide before the tutorial.
- Promote positive attitudes in the group.
- Acknowledge your mistakes.
- Ask your students to give you feedback on your facilitation.
- Monitor your teaching/facilitation skills.
- Regularly update your knowledge.

### **6) Encourage understanding:**

- Motivate students to act flexibly around what they know.
- Ask questions that allow students to assess, evaluate, compare, weigh evidence, make priorities, interpret, seek information, take decisions, plan their approach and use resources.
  - Guide students to use their knowledge to construct their own flow diagrams and mechanisms.
  - Encourage students to use basic sciences to explain patient's symptoms and clinical signs.

- Ask students to provide the reasoning behind their opinions.
- Enhance the use of diagrams in the discussion of difficult concepts.

**7) Foster critical thinking and enhance the group's ability:**

- To debate issues rather than argue
- To weigh evidence as they rank/refine their hypotheses
- To analyze data and information provided
- To synthesize information into informed conclusions
- To emphasize understanding over memorization.

**8) Ask open-ended questions:**

- Expand discussion and allow more members in the group to contribute.
- Keep the group focused on issues discussed.
- Foster self-directed learning.
- Help understanding difficult/complex concepts.
- Make students realize the significance of basic sciences in their discussion.
- Help students make priorities between their hypotheses.
- Allow students to see the big picture as well as some fine details.

**9) Promote group dynamics:**

- Always say 'we'.
- Focus on gains, not losses.
- Ask questions, listen and encourage everyone to contribute.
- Sustain ongoing interaction.
- Foster accountability.
- Empower your group.
- Positive expectations yield positive results.

**10) Solve problems in the group with a win-win approach:**

- Take challenges as opportunities for everyone's success.
- Consider decisions that give as much value as possible to everyone concerned.
- Keep focused on principles and values.
- Focus on relationships rather than rules.
- Document problems with difficult students.

- Consult with a colleague you trust about possible solutions.

### **11) Provide feedback that builds the group up:**

- Remember that feedback is the breakfast of champions.
- Address positive issues first, state issues that need improvement second.
- Be specific and provide examples when needed.
- Discuss with the group strategies and approaches for improving performance.
- State the feedback clearly and follow up issues identified.
- Maintain a weekly teaching journal about the input/ contribution to the discussion and the role of each student in your group.

### **12) Tell them about your roles:**

- Facilitation of discussion.
- Asking open ended questions when needed to encourage group discussion.
- Enhancement of use of educational tools during tutorials.
- Providing suggestions.
- Summarizing key points raised in the discussion.
- Helping in the creation of an open, healthy environment that encourages group discussion, experimentation and dealing with uncertainty.
- Providing feedback to the groups at the end of the case and receive feedback from the group.
- Monitoring students' progress.
- Running group assessment.

In conclusion, these 12 tips are not an exhaustive guide to effective group facilitation. However, they contain the basic principles for becoming a successful PBL tutor. It might be useful to study these tips not only prior to commencing the role as a tutor, but also at intervals throughout the semester/ academic year. One can think about methods of implementing these tips in your teaching, read books, educational reviews and research articles related to these tips and expand the knowledge and skills in group facilitation. One might use reflective journals and regularly record the teaching experiences. Ultimately, aim to motivate yourself to achieve the essence of these tips in teaching.

# PBL and other methods in pictures



The **conventional teaching** relies heavily on the teacher's expertise and interpretation. Thus, it is up to the teacher to indicate some of the clues in Jan van Eyck's portrait (one of the most enigmatic in the European art) to drive students to one of the possible interpretations or to present all of them.



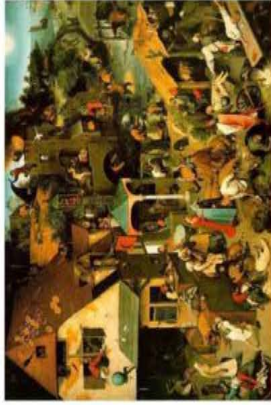
Andy Warhol's Coca Cola bottles represent such basics of the **case method** as a well structured (as opposed to ill-structured) real life or close to real life situation that can inspire role-play and decision making.



**PBL** learners are essentially self-guided learners who are inspired with the problem much as the couple in Marc Chagall's picture is inspired by love. The bond and cooperation among team members should be as strong as that 😊



**Flipped classroom** turns everything "upside down": students listen to video lectures and study theory individually at home, while in the classroom they are helped by the teacher to apply their knowledge in practice. The children in the photo seem to be applying their skills of drawing right in the gallery as they are inspired by the works of Ramsis Younan.



In **competency-based learning**, the students will not have to look at the same parts of Pieter Bruegel's "The Dutch Proverbs" following the lecturer's instruction, but they will follow their own pace, taking time or moving forward as quickly as their competence in that subject allows them.



**Project-based learning** is oriented at integration of subjects, real life projects, and tangible results. The monument of Ukrainian Easter egg dedicated to Canadian Mounted Police in Vegreville, Canada, is a very multicultural, multidisciplinary, multipurpose project.

## Appendix G

### MY EXPERIENCE OF POST- DISCUSSION

Written by Iuliia Budas

My first experience of being a tutor and having a post-discussion was several years ago. The problem under discussion was “The challenges of teaching”. During the pre-discussion students debated

different issues concerning the challenges a novice may face at his or her first year working as a teacher (teens’ disobedience, violence at school, responsibilities of a teacher and even teachers’ fashion style). I divided the students into two teams – “interviewers” and “experienced teachers”. The members of the teams were supposed to find necessary information to be ready to ask additional questions and to respond to the above mentioned ones. As a tutor I tried to be helpful. But the students themselves were really interested in finding the answers as their teaching practice was to begin in a month or two.

After their first debate experience, my students realized the importance of information sources for their argumentation. The post-discussion was more fruitful and educative because the students didn’t just express their own views but gave illustrative evidence from articles or books.

At the reporting stage I observed to what extent the subject matter had been mastered. Sometimes I as a tutor had to remind them to sustain their ideas with the examples from information sources and not to be too emotional. When students hesitated and were not able to answer the question I tried to clear up the ambiguities and formulated the question in another way to sound clearer. Also I had to check the level of comprehension of the discussed question. Now I understand that I interfered too much. I didn’t correct students’ mistakes (the discussion was in English) but I took notes of the most common mistakes and spoke about them later. I used the post discussion to stimulate the reflection concerning teaching profession and their level of English. It was very useful to get their feedback.





### HOW TO DO IT?

*from the experience of Olena Zarichna*



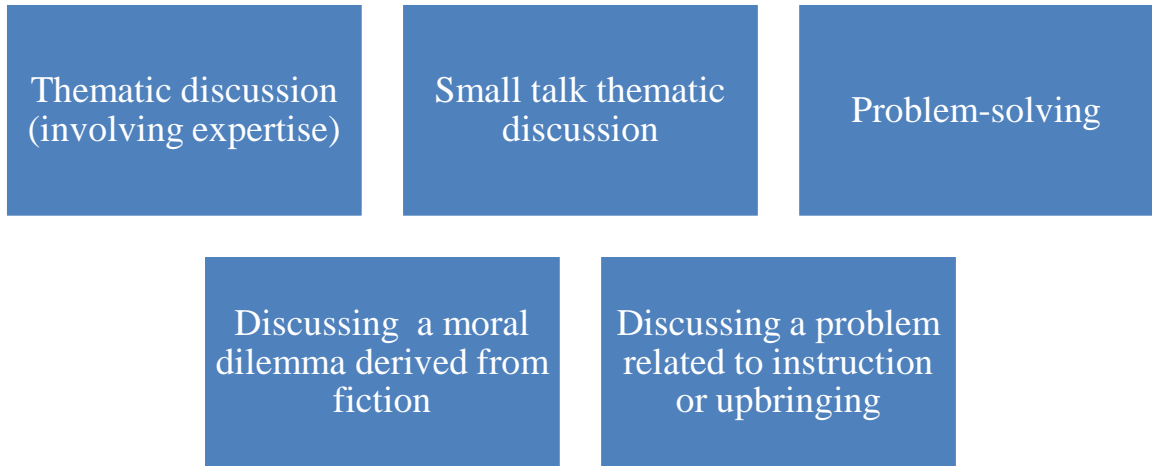
Considering the fact that the primary goal of the EFL classroom is the development of ESL competences and namely speaking skills, the ratio between language and expertise in a certain domain rather favors the former. Unlike it is in other subject areas (law, medicine, economics etc.) the function of English in the ESL classroom shifts from being a tool to being a goal and a tool simultaneously. Consequently, the PBL tutor should direct all effort at enhancing those mental parameters that contribute to extensive verbal activity, i.e. associations, emotional memory, experience, inferences, individual classifications, preferences and generalizations. The problem itself does not have to be a problem to solve but rather a problem to discuss.

So what are the ways of implementing PBL in the EFL classroom? The framework in which PBL appears to be effectively applicable in the EFL format is curriculum-based thematic field discussion (Personality, Family Structures, Employment) which can also be placed in a small-talk format (“Should school uniform be mandatory?”); a moral dilemma inferred from fiction; a pedagogic situation related both to instruction and upbringing (“In what succession should the tense forms be presented to learners?”, “A pupil brings a bunch of flowers picked on the school flower-bed, what should you do?”)

The problem itself can be the one requiring a practical solution or just a point for discussion. Below are examples of the both kinds. If it is not the small-talk version, the PBL-participants should be expected to involve some expert knowledge in the pre-discussion phase or in the course of the discussion itself.



## WAYS OF INTRODUCING PBL THROUGH EFL PRACTICES WITH STUDENTS OF PEDAGOGY



### PROBLEM SOLVING

#### EXAMPLE 1

***Topic: Work and Employment.***

***PBL task: Who gets the job?***

Three men applied for the same job. Which man do you think should get the job? Discuss this with your group and decide which man you would hire for the job. The men who applied for the job are:

*JACK: Jack is well qualified for the job. He has a good education. He is now working for a respected company and earns a good salary. However, Jack thinks he needs a change in his life. His wife died a few months ago. He has been sad since then. He thinks a job change would be good for him.*

*BILL: Bill has a good education and is also qualified for this job. However, he was fired from his previous job because of a drinking problem. Bill says he has stopped drinking. He says he needs this job to prove that he has changed and will not drink anymore.*

*MARK: Mark is not as well qualified for the job as Jack or Bill. But Mark is a very hard worker. He learns very quickly and is always dependable. He lost his job 3 months ago because the company he worked for went out of business. Now he really needs a job to support his wife and 3 children.*

## PROBLEM SOLVING

### EXAMPLE 2

The following chart may be used for considering the candidacies for the positions mentioned in the left-hand column in correlation with zodiac sign descriptions and team role requirements.

*Instruction: study the personality traits required for each working position mentioned in the chart and then study those referring to each of the zodiac signs. Discuss the correlative links and deliver your decision on which of the positions the people of different zodiac signs will be at their best in their performance. Give your arguments to substantiate your choices.*

*Note: the learners may be divided into three workgroups deciding upon Action, Thinking and People sections accordingly.*

|  |   |  |
|--|---|--|
| <p><b>ARIES (21 March – 19 April)</b></p>  <p>People falling under this sign</p> <p>are adventurous and generally brave. They can be a bit short-tempered sometimes. They are clever and confident. On some occasions, they are impatient. Their impulsiveness can be their potential enemy.</p>  | <p><b>TAURUS (20 April – 20 May)</b></p>  <p>People belonging to this sign are romantic, helpful and loyal. Yet they can be possessive about everything they have. For this reason, they might at times appear selfish. Taureans are good company and an excellent friend.</p>                       | <p><b>GEMINI (21 May – 21 June)</b></p>  <p>People belonging to this sign are intelligent and versatile. They are spontaneous in communication and love life! Yet at times they worry too much and become too stressed about little things. They tend to be picky and very opinionated.</p> |
| <p><b>CANCER (22 June – 23 July)</b></p>  <p>People of this sign are gentle and</p> <p>have a caring nature. They are generally not very impulsive. They are also very protective towards their loved ones. Cancers often have an imaginative and artistic side to their life.</p>               | <p><b>LEO (24 July – 23 August)</b></p>  <p>Leos are generous and open-minded. They are quite caring in nature but at times they may be egoistic and bossy. They can tend to easily lose their temper. Leos are real kings!</p>   | <p><b>VIRGO (24 August - 22 September)</b></p>  <p>People falling under this sign are very analytical. They tend to think too much about things and base their conclusions on a long thought process and deep analysis. They are intelligent, reliable and good decision-makers.</p>       |
| <p><b>LIBRA (23 September – 22 October)</b></p>  <p>People of this sign are friendly and romantic. They are balanced in nature and can keep calm in most situations. At times, they can be a bit reserved and indecisive. They know how to look at things from more than one point of view.</p> | <p><b>SCORPIO (23 Oct – 22 November)</b></p>  <p>Scorpios are passionate individuals with a magnetic personality. Due to their possessive nature, they become jealous quite easily. They are clever and courageous. They can be resentful, obsessive and sometimes vindictive – so be careful!</p> | <p><b>CAPRICORN (22 December - 20 January)</b></p>  <p>They are prudent and practical. They are also quite ambitious. Perseverance and tolerance are their greatest qualities but they can also be very stubborn. They are generally upfront in fighting whatever gets in their way.</p>  |

**SAGITTARIUS (23 November-20**



**December)**  
They are intel-

ligent and philosophical. They know how to lighten up any atmosphere. They are fun-loving, sociable and optimistic but sometimes their excessive optimism makes them behave carelessly. They are intelligent people with a good sense of humour.

**AQUARIUS (21 January – 19 February)**

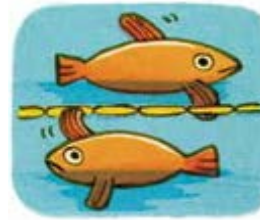


They have a great sense of humour, strong intelligence and are deep

thinking and intuitive. They make loyal and honest friends. They can be very independent. For this reason, they may at times appear indifferent and distant.



**PISCES (20 February – 20 March)**



They are sensitive, kind and

helpful. This makes them excellent friends. They tend to be a bit shy and opinions of others can easily influence them. They are not very determined or courageous. They are very idealistic and live in a world of their own!

# THE 9 BELBIN TEAM ROLES

|                 |                       |     |  | <i>Team Role Contribution</i>  | <i>Allowable Weakness</i>   |
|-----------------|-----------------------|-----|--|--|---|
| <b>Thinking</b> | Plant                 | PL  |  | <i>Creative, imaginative, free-thinking. Generates ideas &amp; solves hard problems.</i> | <i>Ignores incidentals. Too pre-occupied to fully communicate.</i>        |
|                 | Monitor Evaluator     | ME  |  | <i>Sober, strategic and discerning. Sees all options and judges accurately.</i>          | <i>Lacks drive and ability to inspire others. Can be overly critical.</i> |
|                 | Specialist            | SP  |  | <i>Single-minded, self-starting, dedicated. Provides rare knowledge and skills.</i>      | <i>Contributes only on a narrow front. Dwells on technicalities.</i>      |
| <b>Action</b>   | Shaper                | SH  |  | <i>Challenging, dynamic, thrives on pressure. Has drive to overcome obstacles.</i>       | <i>Prone to provocation. Offends people's feelings.</i>                   |
|                 | Implementer           | IMP |  | <i>Practical, reliable, efficient. Turns ideas into actions and organizes tasks.</i>     | <i>Somewhat inflexible. Slow to respond to new possibilities.</i>         |
|                 | Completer Finisher    | CF  |  | <i>Painstaking, conscientious, anxious. Finds errors. Polishes and perfects.</i>         | <i>Inclined to worry unduly. Reluctant to delegate.</i>                   |
| <b>People</b>   | Coordinator           | CO  |  | <i>Mature, confident, identifies talent. Clarifies goals. Delegates effectively.</i>     | <i>Can be seen as manipulative. Offloads own share of the work.</i>       |
|                 | Team Worker           | TW  |  | <i>Co-operative, perceptive and diplomatic. Listens and averts friction.</i>             | <i>Indecisive in crunch situations. Avoids confrontation.</i>             |
|                 | Resource Investigator | RI  |  | <i>Outgoing, enthusiastic, communicative. Explores opportunities, develops contacts</i>  | <i>Over-optimistic. Loses interest once initial enthusiasm expires.</i>   |



This type of a PBL-session can have alternative forms involving creative and competitive elements for which the EFL class is very well adaptable. It can be an alternatively set task in the form of an intellectual game, for example.

**PROBLEM SOLVING**  
**EXAMPLE 3**  
**INTELLECTUAL GAME**  
***TRAVELLING ON THE MOON***

*You are in a space crew originally scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship on the lighted surface of the moon. Mechanical difficulties however, have forced your ship to crash-land at a spot some 200 miles from the rendezvous point. The rough landing damaged much of the equipment aboard. Since survival depends on reaching the mother ship the most critical items available must be chosen for the 200 mile trip. Below are listed the 15 main items left intact after landing. Your task is to rank them in terms of their importance to your crew in its attempt to reach the mother ship. The item numbered number 1 is the most important, number 2 by the second most important, and so on through to 15, the least important.*

*Box of matches*

*Food concentrate*

*50 feet of nylon rope*

*Parachute silk*

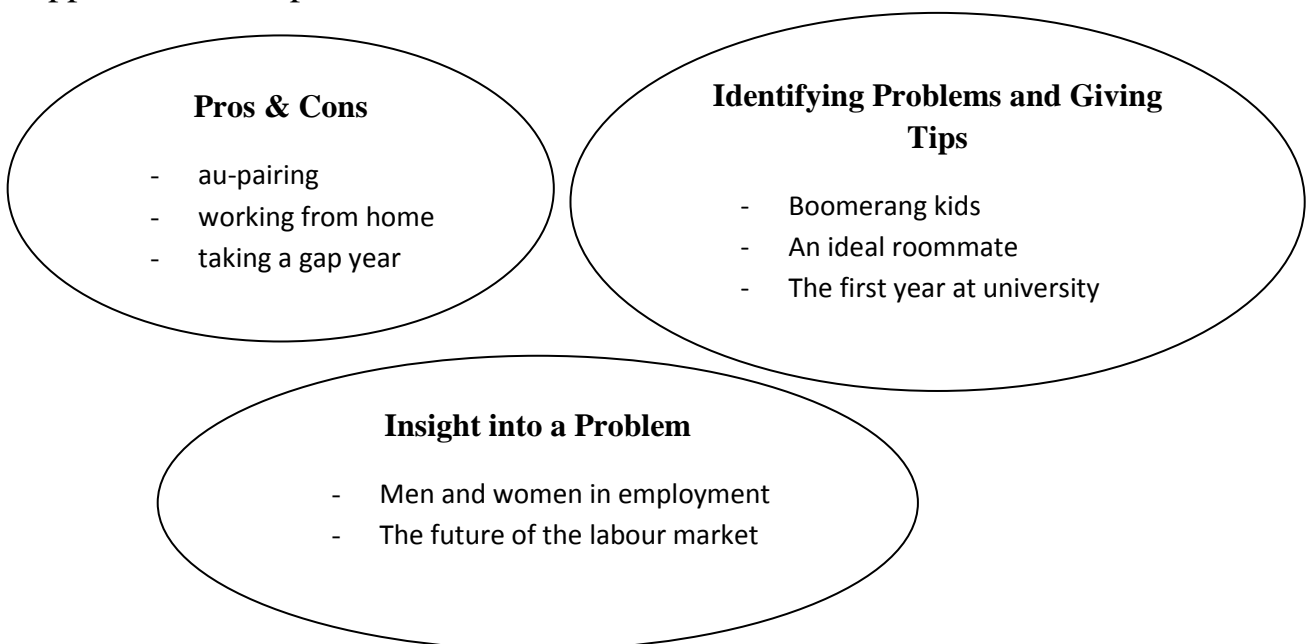
*Portable heating unit*

*Two 45 calibre pistols*  
*One case dehydrated milk*  
*Two 100 pound tanks of oxygen*  
*Stellar map (of the moon's constellation)*  
*Life-raft*  
*Magnetic compass*  
*5 gallons water*  
*Signal flares*  
*First aid kit containing injection needles*  
*Solar-powered FM receiver transmitter*

In order to make the discussion more consistent and challenging, in this particular example, the students should be expected to attach expertise from the relevant subject fields, like those of astronomy, physics and physiology.

### **SMALL TALK THEMATIC DISCUSSION**

Small talk thematic discussions are the most flexible as well as open-ended variety of a PBL session. Nevertheless, preliminary information search and vocabulary studies are most desirable. Below are the three basic options to be applied for PBL practices.



The aspect that matters in terms of idea generating and opinion exchange is topic specification. Whatever the topic addressed, the issues for discussion might relate to the individual experience, knowledge and mainly range of interest of the students. In short, the issues should be motivational. The questions must be intellectually challenging and exclude the necessity of expert knowledge. However, the students can receive a preparation task to collect statistic data on certain phenomena or information on a certain subject. The students may be encouraged to develop their own questions, mind maps or short lists of issues they can point out.

#### **EXAMPLE 4**

***Topic: Education.***

***Should girls have their own schools?***

*Some people say girls should have their own schools. Others say they ought to be educated with boys. What do you think? Consider the following opinions and formulate your own ones.*

*YES-opinions:*

*All-girls schools are a great idea. There's scientific proof that teachers pay more attention to boys than to girls. With no boys around, girls get the attention they deserve. And it's easier for them to participate in school activities. Plus, in single-sex schools girls are free from social pressures and can concentrate on learning.*

*NO-opinions:*

*This is a bad idea. It's true that girls aren't always treated fairly. And that has to change. But sexism is not going to go away just by having all girls schools. Girls should be exposed to the pressures they will face in the real world. That's the only way they'll learn to deal with challenges. If girls don't go to school with boys, they're not going to be prepared for real life when they graduate.*

## THEMATIC DISCUSSION INVOLVING EXPERTISE

For this type of PBL-session the preliminary insight into the problem, statistical review and some expertise attached from other fields of knowledge are essential. To ensure a sustainable talk in the PBL discussion the tutor is to provide the students with a provisional topic-related vocabulary list or material – short texts, essays or articles which might appear to come handy throughout the pre-discussion phase. However, it is the learners who should be given the prerogative of selecting the appropriate information and presenting it in the course of the discussion. The problem can be set in varied formats from statements to situations, from preambles to possible solutions with further reconsiderations.

### EXAMPLE 5

#### ***Topic: Work and Employment.***

- *In your country, do people usually have a “job for life” or do people change jobs quite frequently? What are the advantages and disadvantages of each type of work?*
- *Does your country provide financial benefits for unemployed people? What are the advantages and disadvantages of being on the dole?*
- *Who suffers more from losing a job: young, middle-aged or older people? Why?*
- *Working from home – pros and cons.*

### DISCUSSING A MORAL DILEMMA DERIVED FROM FICTION

Complying with the objectives of the ESL class, the tutor should make use of its prerogative of involving the language material in all its possible representations. A problem concerned does not necessarily have to be set in a strictly rational or logical frame, it might be presented implicitly in a metaphorical text, a quotation, an aphorism or even a picture. Again, unlike the subject matter in other domains, the possibility of introducing metaphorisation and symbolization seems to be something that makes PBL in the ESL class still more special. Herein we provide an example of such, a method referred to as Thinking Story. The students may be encouraged to formulate their own issues or discuss those provided by the tutor.



## THINKING STORY

*A language.*

*Love is a language. It consists of words and rules and idioms. Of chocolates, flowers and poems. Language is a set of conventions. And this is a pity. For I hate conventions. Therefore no chocolates or flowers or poems tonight. Nothing. Not a word. A cup of tea in silence.*

*Issues for discussion:*

*It is impossible to escape from conventions.*

*Every person has to play a number of roles according to certain conventions.*

*Flowers are conventional symbols.*

One of the stories containing a disputable moral dilemma is O. Henry's "After Twenty Years". The students may introduce their interpretation of the story in the pre-discussion phase and go on to decide upon the moral dilemma raised by the author.

## AFTER TWENTY YEARS

O. Henry

The policeman on the beat moved up the avenue impressively. The impressiveness was habitual and not for show, for spectators were few. The time was barely 10 o'clock at night, but chilly gusts of wind with a taste of rain in them had well nigh depeopled the streets.

Trying doors as he went, twirling his club with many intricate and artful movements, turning now and then to cast his watchful eye adown the pacific thoroughfare, the officer, with his stalwart form and slight swagger, made a fine picture of a guardian of the peace. The vicinity was one that kept early hours. Now and then you might see the lights of a cigar store or of an all-night lunch counter; but the majority of the doors belonged to business places that had long since been closed.

When about midway of a certain block the policeman suddenly slowed his walk. In the doorway of a darkened hardware store a man leaned, with an unlighted cigar in his mouth. As the policeman walked up to him the man spoke up quickly.

"It's all right, officer," he said, reassuringly. "I'm just waiting for a friend. It's an appointment made twenty years ago. Sounds a little funny to you, doesn't it? Well, I'll explain if you'd like to make certain it's all straight. About that long ago there used to be a restaurant where this store stands – 'Big Joe' Brady's restaurant."

“Until five years ago,” said the policeman. “It was torn down then.”

The man in the doorway struck a match and lit his cigar. The light showed a pale, square-jawed face with keen eyes, and a little white scar near his right eyebrow. His scarfpin was a large diamond, oddly set.

“Twenty years ago to-night,” said the man, “I dined here at ‘Big Joe’ Brady’s with Jimmy Wells, my best chum, and the finest chap in the world. He and I were raised here in New York, just like two brothers, together. I was eighteen and Jimmy was twenty. The next morning I was to start for the West to make my fortune. You couldn’t have dragged Jimmy out of New York; he thought it was the only place on earth. Well, we agreed that night that we would meet here again exactly twenty years from that date and time, no matter what our conditions might be or from what distance we might have to come. We figured that in twenty years each of us ought to have our destiny worked out and our fortunes made, whatever they were going to be.”

“It sounds pretty interesting,” said the policeman. “Rather a long time between meets, though, it seems to me. Haven’t you heard from your friend since you left?”

“Well, yes, for a time we corresponded,” said the other. “But after a year or two we lost track of each other. You see, the West is a pretty big proposition, and I kept hustling around over it pretty lively. But I know Jimmy will meet me here if he’s alive, for he always was the truest, stanchest old chap in the world. He’ll never forget. I came a thousand miles to stand in this door to-night, and it’s worth it if my old partner turns up.”

The waiting man pulled out a handsome watch, the lids of it set with small diamonds.

“Three minutes to ten,” he announced. “It was exactly ten o’clock when we parted here at the restaurant door.”

“Did pretty well out West, didn’t you?” asked the policeman.

“You bet! I hope Jimmy has done half as well. He was a kind of plodder, though, good fellow as he was. I’ve had to compete with some of the sharpest wits going to get my pile. A man gets in a groove in New York. It takes the West to put a razor-edge on him.”

The policeman twirled his club and took a step or two.

“I’ll be on my way. Hope your friend comes around all right. Going to call time on him sharp?”

“I should say not!” said the other. “I’ll give him half an hour at least. If Jimmy is alive on earth he’ll be here by that time. So long, officer.”

“Good-night, sir,” said the policeman, passing on along his beat, trying doors as he went.

There was now a fine, cold drizzle falling, and the wind had risen from its uncertain puffs into a steady blow. The few foot passengers astir in that quarter hurried dismally and silently along with coat collars turned high and pocketed hands. And in the door of the hardware store the man who had come a thousand miles to fill an appointment, uncertain almost to absurdity, with the friend of his youth, smoked his cigar and waited.

About twenty minutes he waited, and then a tall man in a long overcoat, with collar turned up to his ears, hurried across from the opposite side of the street. He went directly to the waiting man.

“Is that you, Bob?” he asked, doubtfully.

“Is that you, Jimmy Wells?” cried the man in the door.

“Bless my heart!” exclaimed the new arrival, grasping both the other’s hands with his own. “It’s Bob, sure as fate. I was certain I’d find you here if you were still in existence. Well, well, well! – twenty years is a long time. The old gone, Bob; I wish it had lasted, so we could have had another dinner there. How has the West treated you, old man?”

“Bully; it has given me everything I asked it for. You’ve changed lots, Jimmy. I never thought you were so tall by two or three inches.”

“Oh, I grew a bit after I was twenty.”

“Doing well in New York, Jimmy?”

“Moderately. I have a position in one of the city departments. Come on, Bob; we’ll go around to a place I know of, and have a good long talk about old times.”

The two men started up the street, arm in arm. The man from the West, his egotism enlarged by success, was beginning to outline the history of his career. The other, submerged in his overcoat, listened with interest.

At the corner stood a drug store, brilliant with electric lights. When they came into this glare each of them turned simultaneously to gaze upon the other’s face.

The man from the West stopped suddenly and released his arm.

“You’re not Jimmy Wells,” he snapped. “Twenty years is a long time, but not long enough to change a man’s nose from a Roman to a pug.”

“It sometimes changes a good man into a bad one, said the tall man. “You’ve been under arrest for ten minutes, ‘Silky’ Bob. Chicago thinks you may have dropped over our way and wires us she wants to have a chat with you. Going quietly, are you? That’s sensible. Now, before we go on to the station here’s a note I was asked to hand you. You may read it here at the window. It’s from Patrolman Wells.”

The man from the West unfolded the little piece of paper handed him. His hand was steady when he began to read, but it trembled a little by the time he had finished. The note was rather short.

*“Bob: I was at the appointed place on time. When you struck the match to light your cigar I saw it was the face of the man wanted in Chicago. Somehow I couldn’t do it myself, so I went around and got a plain clothes man to do the job. JIMMY.”*

PBL-sessions may acquire other forms as well depending on the subject area considered. The main objective to be borne in mind is sustainability and talkability of the issue.

*Наукове видання*

**Бардашевська Юлія Олегівна  
Будас Юлія Олексіївна  
Дмітренко Наталя Євгеніївна  
Доля Інна Василівна  
Зарічна Олена Василівна  
Клос Наталія Сергіївна  
Колядич Юлія Володимирівна  
Лиса Анна Миколаївна  
Мельник Людмила Вікторівна  
Петрова Анастасія Іванівна  
Подзигун Олена Анатоліївна  
Тарнауз Ольга Ігорівна  
Теклюк Ганна Петрівна  
Терещенко Ліля Яківна  
Яцишин Олег Михайлович**

**Problem-based learning in teaching English as a foreign language:  
theoretical and practical issues**

(Проблемно-орієнтоване навчання у викладанні англійської мови  
як іноземної: теоретичні і практичні питання)

Монографія

Підписано до друку 05.03.2017 р. Формат 42×29,7 1/4.

Папір офсетний. Друк різнографічний.

Ум. друк. арк. 9,47. Зам. № В2017-08

Наклад 90 прим.

Видавець і виготовлювач ФОП Барановська Т. П.

21021, м. Вінниця, вул. Порика, 7.

Свідоцтво суб'єкта видавничої справи  
серія ДК № 4377 від 31.07.2012 р.