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TERMEZ STATE UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH AND LITERATURE

GRADUATE QUALIFICATION WORK

on the theme

THE DEVELOPMENT OF DIALOGIC SPEECH IN UPPER CLASSES (ON THE MATERIALS OF 9TH CLASS CURRICULUM)

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INTRODUCTION

Independent Uzbekistan is developing by the model chosen by the nation, along the road of open and free market relations, and along the road of building a just society and a strong law - governed democratic state[1].

It`s necessary to carry political, economical, educational and other reforms, in order to achieve the above mentioned aim. Especially, training young specialists, educating them on leading branches of economy is the overall task of the government. Learning and teaching foreign languages play an important position in this discourse.

The President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov several times in his works has mentioned, that learning foreign languages as one of the directions of spiritual development of the society: "One more important task is – to assist the development of the language, culture, customs and traditions to the all nations and nationalities residing in Uzbekistan, further expansion   of possibility and conditions in this sphere".[2]

In other speech of I. Karimov we can find the following words: "In the process of higher school reformation, we must consolidate their contacts with higher educational institutions in other countries. It`s necessary to promote the encouragement of foreign teachers in Uzbekistan".

From this point of view a lot of decrees and laws were established in the aim of educational reformation. Especially, the last Decree of the President PQ-1875, issued on December 10, 2012 has played an important role for the teacher of foreign languages in Uzbekistan. Under this Decree new standards of continuous education, curriculum for foreign language teaching is being developed. The content of text-books and teaching materials is also changed. English is being taught from the first forms of the secondary schools.

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[1] Karimov I.A. Uzbekistan along the road of deepening economic reform – T.: Uzbekistan, 1995 - P.3

[2] Каримов И.А. Наша высшая цель –независимость и процветание Родины, свобода и благополучия народа. – Ташкент, 2000 – C.65.

Although these reforms are being taken during the last years, this was aimed from the first years of Independence of the country. In 1997, the President noted: "In the process of higher school reformation, we must consolidate their contacts with higher educational institutions in other countries. It`s necessary to promote the encouragement of foreign teachers".[3]

It would be expedient to organize the education of our graduate students in the educational centers of developed countries without interference of any ideology.

For a long time, there has been a lot of discussion about how languages are used and learnt. Until the middle of the twentieth century, many people believed that, in order to speak or write the best kind of English, you had to use complete sentences which were grammatically correct. People learning English wanted to learn to write and speak this 'Standard English'. They also wanted to sound like native speakers of English from the Home counties. Two things have happened to change these ideas.

Every year in many parts of the world a considerable number of persons find themselves called upon to teach English to those whose mother tongue is not English. Their pupils may be children or adults; and range from those who already have some knowledge of English either in its spoken or written form to those who know not a single word of the language.

The mother tongue of those who are about to engage in such teaching is usually English, but to some of them English is a foreign language in which they may or may not be proficient. But in either case they find themselves taking on a job which is unfamiliar to them. They have rarely been specially trained to teach English as a living language and as a means of immediate communication.

If their pupils already have some knowledge of English, the teacher more often than not has recourse to a reading book, and causes his pupils to read – with or without the process of translation. Or, if a command of the spoken language is the objective, they content themselves with carrying on «conversation» with their pupils. In the latter case such teachers find themselves at a loss. The various

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[3] Karimov I. A. Harmoniously developed generation is the basis of progress of Uzbekistan. T., 1997. p. 12

techniques of teaching through conversation are usually unknown to them and, like the veterans who came into this field before them, they pick up the devices of oral teaching by dint of the process of trial and error.

Our researching work is written to show that there are a lot of different ways of teaching speaking in academic lyceums. There are The Oral Direct Method, Communicative Approach, Penny Ur's Methods, Topic Approach and others.

At the moment new text-books, teaching materials have been created for the secondary school learners. And the 9th form schoolchildren should respond the requirements of A2level according to CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference).

We consider our task to show how these methods work, so there are examples, which are in the practical part of the work.

The work consist of 2 main chapters, introduction, conclusion parts respectively and the list of used literatures. The first chapter introduces the theoretical foundations of foreign language teaching.

The second chapter of the work introduces the teaching problems of teaching speaking in academic lyceums.

At the end of the work there given conclusion part, where general ideas are summarized.

The actuality of the work: During the preparation of this qualification work we looked through different scientific and practical works devoted to language teaching methods.

At present language teaching methods are fastly developing. New teaching methods, including interactive ways of teaching welcomed in language teaching. In English classes different types of interactive methods: video lesson, lesson-games, lesson –interview, lesson-play, lesson-essay, integrated lesson, lesson-musical and others are being used.

As an English teacher every graduator of the university has to study all these methods and be able to use them in his future career. Some of them are useful to teaching speaking skills in foreign language classes.

My graduate qualification work is also dedicated to study the methodological basis of speaking skills in English classes of academic lyceums. Of course, the term Speaking is a big notion. So in the given work we tried to study the Interactive Methods of foreign language teaching.

Our work is devoted to the method of teaching the speech. But for the beginning let's examine what is speech.

Language came into life as a means of communication. It exists and is alive only through speech. When we speak about teaching a foreign language, we first of all have in mind teaching it as a means of communication.

In teaching speech the teacher has to cope with two tasks. They are: to teach his pupils to understand the foreign language and to teach them to speak the language. So, speech is a bilateral process. It includes hearing, on the one hand, and speaking, on the other. When we say "hearing" we mean auding or listening and comprehension. Speaking exists in two forms: **dialogue** and monologue. So we decided to study the dialogues also, which are very helpful for developing speaking skills of lyceum students.

The aim of our work is:

1.   to observe the speech as a bilateral process;

2.   to give the basic notions of the speech;

3.   to make an examples of exercises in of speaking and hearing.

 Practical value of this paper is determined by the fact that the developed material and proper tasks and exercises make available the use of this work as a manual in teaching a foreign language at classroom or as a given homework, or as a useful material for elective additional courses of foreign language at academic lyceums.

The paper consists of introduction and two chapters followed by conclusion. The first chapter is about the most common difficulties in auding and speaking a foreign language. Also it consists of psychological and linguistic characteristics of the speech. Further we find differences between prepared and unprepared speech and in this chapter we learn to find mistakes of pupils and how to correct them.

In the second chapter are given the exercises, which help the teachers to obtain results in teaching speech. There also discussed some communicative approaches in teaching speaking.

The object of the work is teaching English speaking.

The subject of the work is researching the theme at the beginning stage.

The purpose of the researching is to study different methods of teaching English speaking at the beginning stage, teaching problems of dialogues in the secondary level of language teaching.

The tasks are:

– to study what is the speaking itself;

– to study psychological peculiarities of children and adults;

– to examine different techniques of teaching speaking;

– to reveal how to deal with mistakes in oral speech.

The novelty of the work: in this graduate qualification work for the first time we discussed the questions of teaching sentence structure in a certain level. We chose academic lyceum level as the university level of English teaching is studied more thoroughly.

The scientific significance of the work is that the given work analyses the problems of teaching the speaking. Dialogue is discussed as a main type of speaking. There also discussed the methodology of developing speaking skills, teaching the dialogic speech in primary classes.

The practical significance of the work is that the work can be used as the methodical aid to English teachers who teach EFL. It also contains good material for the students of colleges and lyceums, and could be as well appreciated by any person interested in the course of Methods of teaching English. It will also be helpful for school teachers and future specialists.

It is a well-known fact that when two persons, ignorant of each other's language, find themselves in daily contact, with the necessity of communication by speech, either will soon become able to use the language of the other with sufficient proficiency for the purpose in view. We consider that the theme of the

project is the one of the main themes of teaching English speaking because it is very important to teach oral English at the secondary level to continue studying without difficult problems.

CHAPTER I. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF TEACHING SPEAKING IN SECONDARY LEVEL

1.1. Difficulties in auding and speaking in the secondary level

Auding or listening and comprehension are difficult for learners because they should discriminate speech sounds quickly, retain them while hearing a word, a phrase, or a sentence and recognize this as a sense unit. Pupils can easily and naturally do this in their own language and they cannot do this in a foreign language when they start learning the language.

Pupils are very slow in grasping what they hear because they are conscious of the linguistic forms they perceive by the ear. This results in misunderstanding or a complete failure of understanding.

When auding a foreign language pupils should be very attentive and think hard. They should strain their memory and will power to keep the sequence of sounds they hear and to decode it. Not all the pupils can cope with the difficulties entailed. The teacher should help them by making this work easier and more interesting.

This is possible on condition that he will take into consideration the following three main factors which can ensure success in developing pupils' skills in auding: (1) linguistic material for auding;

(2) the content of the material suggested for listening and comprehension;

(3) conditions in which the material is presented.

1. Comprehension of the text by the ear can be ensured when the teacher uses the material which has already been assimilated by pupils. However, this does not completely eliminate the difficulties in auding. Pupils need practice in listening and comprehension in the target language to be able to overcome three kinds of difficulties: phonetic, lexical, and grammatical.[4]

Principles of learning and language learning

The Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget(13) and his colleagues have demonstrated that children in primary or elementary school are usually in the concrete operational stage of cognitive development. This means that they learn through hands-on experiences and through manipulation of objects in the environment.

Children in primary or elementary-school settings generally learn by doing. If this principle were extended to the English teaching setting, it would mean that children in language classes need to be active than passive; they need to be engaged in activities of which language is a part; they need to be working on meaningful tasks and use language o accomplish those tasks.

So when the teacher wants to teach children how to speak he should not only show them how to do it but give them tasks and practical exercises.

This principle, which comes from the work of the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (15), suggests that children need not only hands-on or direct experiences, but also experiences where they are interacting with and learning from others, both adults and other children.

In terms of language classes, an implication would be that children need to use the new language with each other and with the teacher.

Another implication would be that the teacher, as the one who knows more English that the children, needs to interact with the children in English, using the language that is related directly to activities in which children are engaged.

So when teacher wants his children to speak he should use not only method of asking questions, but such methods of group work or work in pairs to teach them how to speak to each other in informal situations.

Language acquisition occurs through learners figuring out how the language works, through learners making and testing out hypotheses about the language. Language acquisition involves the cognitive work of creative construction of the rules of the language (7).

So teacher should not be afraid of children's mistakes, when they speak and experiment with the new language, it is a natural and inevitable part of language learning.

Language acquisition occurs through social interaction, through having to use the language with others in authentic communication settings. Language develops as speakers try out the language they are figuring out in situations with others, and as others respond to their efforts. Interlocutors work together both to be understood and to understand each other.

So one of the methods of teaching speaking is to give children tasks to speak to each other more then to speak to teacher.

These principles suggest a communicative approach to language teaching, which focuses on involving pairs and small groups of learners in authentic communicative situations and in problem–solving and information-gap activities. They suggest an approach in which the teacher uses English both to introduce and oversee the activities and to talk with children as they work together. So these principles help teacher, who wants his children to speak English, to be focused on the communicative approach in teaching. (1)
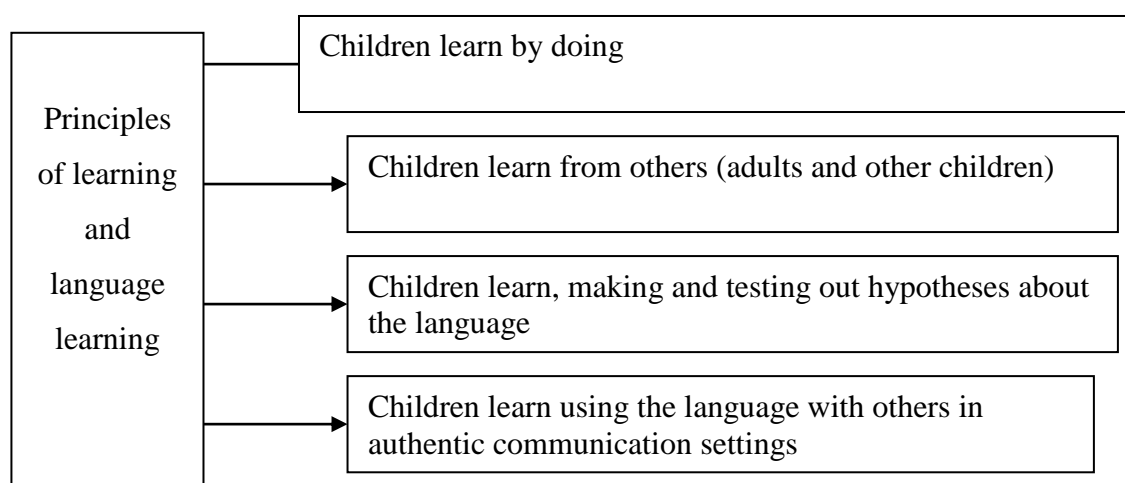
Pic. 1. Principles of learning and language learning

How a teacher can develop the Communicative Competence

Primary class teachers are only too aware of their responsibility in this area of foreign language acquisition and are anxious at all times that their pronunciation, intonation and rhythm are accurate, if only to ensure that the results of their teaching programs are validated and approved of by their secondary modern language specialist colleagues.

Speaking is demanding of teacher and pupil alike. For the child it means discriminating between different speech sounds and being able to produce them correctly, building up new pronunciation habits and overcoming the bias of the first language, feeling the different stress patterns in the new language, having the confidence to hear themselves express their personality in a «foreign» medium, being content to inhabit a new persona.

In their own language they can express emotions, communicate intentions and reactions, explore the language and have fun with it. If teachers succeed in creating the right ethos and atmosphere, this is what the child will reasonably expect to be able to do in the foreign language as well.

However, these expectations can be fulfilled (or thwarted) by the teacher. Constancy of practice, a non-judge mental response to «errors», and an acceptance of the child's use of the mother tongue will contribute to a more creative, less circumscribed use of the foreign language.

In the foreign language, as in the mother tongue, the child will speak spontaneously only when they perceive the need, what Margaret Donaldson calls the «intention to-say-so-and-so». Teachers can teach formulaic expressions and these will make up a substantial portion of the child's repertoire contributing to their growing sense of achievement. Indeed, their skillful use seems to contribute greatly to communicative success.

After all, nothing succeeds like success! These are the child's «data» which they use to analyze how language works. But how can we help the child go beyond these formulaic, short utterances? How can we scaffold the child's attempts to communicate verbally in the foreign language?

Implications for the teacher

Paradoxically children often assume that there is something unique, other, unconnected to anything else, about learning a foreign language. Teachers remind them of the basic and essential functions of language and that not all communication need be verbal. Non-verbal cues include:

– intonation,

– facial expressions,

– gesture,

– reaction to other's speech.

The sensitive teacher will alert the children to a common feature in speech: we identify a setting, we pause, and then we focus. The need to communicate is occasioned by children's excitement, by their determination to transmit a piece of information to someone for whom they feel affection. The major problem confronting teachers is that of identifying «needful» situations for their pupils.

There is a natural tension, of course, between the authentic one-word answer in response to questions such as what's your name? How are you? Do you like…? And the fuller utterances which teachers might wish to encourage. But these fuller utterances, often involving the use of finite sentences, can develop and simultaneously demonstrate the child's growing communicative competence.

Teachers all know that to use a language creatively they must be able to operate a system of underlying rules; otherwise they would remain at the level of the phrase book.

In order to make a foreign language really work for learners, teachers have to go beyond lists of vocabulary (nouns, adjectives, etc.) or lists of structures of functions.

Teachers have to teach the language as dynamic system, one that enables the learner to create language rather than reproduce it and provide a learning context which is congenial to risk-taking, uncertainly, problematic situations and a real sense of purpose.

To produce appropriate language effectively, it is necessary to have a certain level of competence in a number of aspects of language use. The Canadian researcher Canale identified four components of communicative competence (pic. 2):

1. Grammatical competence: knowledge of vocabulary, of sound and of grammar;

2. Sociolinguistic competence: knowledge of how to use the language appropriately in different types of context, for example, deciding whether the situation dictates a formal/casual response, complaining politely, refusing, etc.;

3. Discourse competence: knowing how to begin, develop and close a conversation, how to change the subject, how to take turns, how to intervene, etc.;

4. Strategic/pragmatic competence: knowing how to cope when communication breaks down, asking for clarification, making up words in the foreign language, avoidance tactics, etc.

Communicative competence

| Grammatical competence | Sociolinguistic competence | Discourse competence | Strategic/prag matic competence |
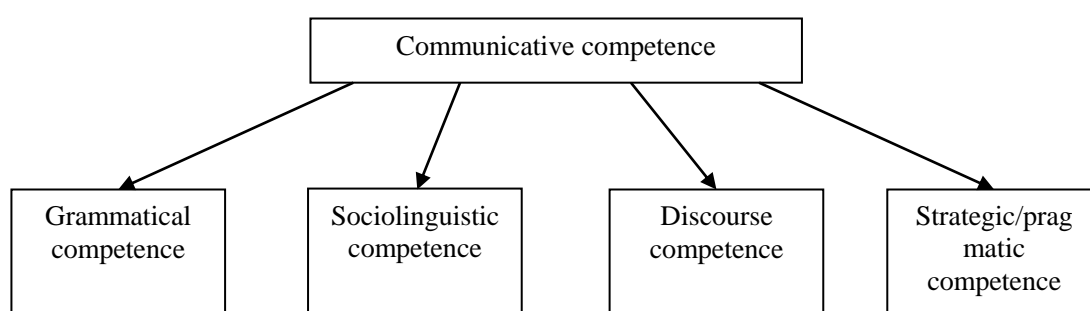
Pic. 2. Four components of communicative competence

Competence in these «higher» levels of language will be attained only if the child has opportunity to hear and use language in situations where these competences (pic. 4) are authentically required.

Just as with the mother tongue, a foreign language is acquired through a developmental process that focuses first on language use through meaningful communicative activities, combined with steps along the way that sometimes

involve focus on language form with conscious self-editing and refinement of the rules of the language.

What is needed is a consciousness-raising of the rules, a focus on the components of the utterance so that the child can more control of their speech. This is not to advocate a return to dry grammar/parsing lessons.

It is, rather, helping the child monitor the correctness and/or appropriateness of their utterances, helping them focus on accuracy as well as fluency, on social, discourse and pragmatic features of language use. But this seems far away perhaps from the initial stages of developing speaking in the foreign language. How do we start? By considering the functions of communication through a range of stress-free and fun activities and by moving on to structured opportunities for the child to explore and enjoy this new language.

There is infinite range of activities – the context, which the teacher, or the teacher and pupils jointly set up, will determine the activity – which will encourage learners to engage emotionally and physically in the language learning process and which will develop techniques to build up a powerful visual and auditory memory and will make them fell able to risk making mistakes.

Language is associated with sound, music, movement, colour, drama and thereby impregnated with meaning. There are memory games, songs, rhymes, poems, stories which they will hear and want to adapt, make their own. There will be opportunities for dramatization which will exploit the child's sense of theatre and appreciation of audience, their awareness of register.

In the context of foreign language learning the class teacher can do mach to promote the above, in simple ways which are consonant with the ways the child will be learning in other areas of the primary curriculum.

For example, if we consider length of utterance, the introduction of connectors (and, but, which) and modifiers (rather, enough) can be introduced at an early stage in the process during the daily routine slot where the children are talking about the weather. For example:

The weather is fine today.

The weather is fine, but it is rather cold.

Not only does the child have the satisfaction of hearing themselves say «more», but they can also be encouraged to reflect on the change in the intonation pattern occasioned by the introduction of the connectors and modifiers. A pattern can then be established in the child's mind. Equally, there is an expectation set up in their mind that they should be willing to expand on utterances, giving opinions, agreeing, disagreeing – all features of natural conversation in the mother tongue. (3)

Teachers need also to engage the child's activity in the foreign language within the parameters of their current competence but always with an eye to expecting more and celebrating more.

Where breakdowns in communication occur, as they will inevitably, then the sensitive teacher allows the child to revert to the mother tongue and will translate for the child, thereby setting up a paradigm of foreign language learning which is again consonant with the ways in which the primary class teacher operates in other areas of the curriculum – namely, providing «knowledge» on a need-to know basis, personalizing the input according to the interests, needs and learning styles of each child.

There is an example that is given in practical part, showing how an activity can (a) be connected to an area of the primary curriculum (Math's); (b) allow the children to move gradually from stress-free listening structured speaking to more open–ended speaking; and (c) encourage the children to develop learning strategies. It's named **Shapes.**

What a teacher should use in his work

At first a teacher should know what a child learn by. There are some points. Children learn by:

- Having more opportunities to be exposed to the second language

- Making associations between words, languages, or sentence patterns and putting things into clear, relatable contexts

- Using all their senses and getting fully involved; by observing and copying, doing things, watching and listening

- Exploring, experimenting, making mistakes and checking their understanding

- Repetition and feeling a sense of confidence when they have established routines

- Being motivated, particularly when their peers are also speaking/learning other languages

Children have three main and important sources of interest in the classroom. They are pictures, stories and games: the first being obviously mainly a visual stimulates the second both visual and aural; and the third using both visual and aural channels as well as activating language production and sometimes physical movement (pic. 3).

Three most important sources of interest for children	pictures
	stories
	games
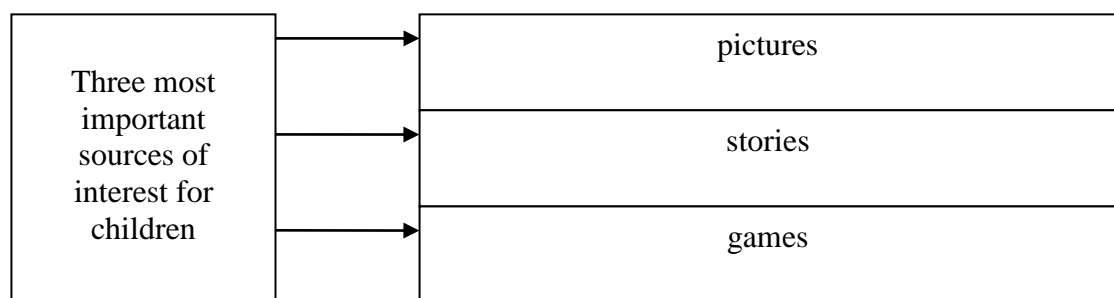
Pic. 3. Three very important sources of interest for children

There is an importance of these sources:

Pictures

Lack of aural stimulus is relatively easy to tolerate: even young learners will work for a while in silence without searching for something to listen to. This, however, is not true of the visual, which is a very dominant channel of input: so much so, that if young learners are not supplied with something to look at that is relevant to the learning task in hand they will find and probably be distracted by something that is not.

The most obvious type of visual material for children is the picture: and the more clearly visible, striking and colourful the better. On the whole, professionally

drawn pictures or photographs are used: those in the textbook, or coloured posters, or pictures cut from magazines. But there is also a place for the teacher's own quick sketches on the board (however unprofessional and untidy!); and of course for the children's own drawing.

Stories

Young children love having stories told to them (even adults continue to enjoy it!); and older ones begin to read for themselves. Moreover stories – in contrast to pictures or even games – are pure language: telling a story in the foreign language is one of the simplest and richest sources of foreign language input for younger learners.

The most effective combination in teaching is pictures and stories together: and the success of use of picture-books with young learners has been attested by many.

Games

Games are essentially recreational 'time out* activities whose main purpose is enjoyment; language study is serious goal-oriented work, whose main purpose is personal learning. Once you call a language-learning activity a 'game' you convey the message that it is just fun, not to be taken too seriously: a message I consider anti-educational and potentially demoralizing.

Very occasionally we do play real games in the classroom, (at the end of a course, for example, or as a break from concentrated work); but to call something a game when our goal is in fact serious learning may harm the learning – and/or, indeed, spoil the 'game'! – as well as being dishonest.

There are some more sources of interest for children: physical movement (dancing, gymnastics, aerobics); drama (mime, role play, putting on plays); projects (exploring a topic and making booklets or displays on it); doing decorative writing or other graphic design.

Two further dangers are: first, the tendency of some teachers to call activities 'games' for the sake of raising initial motivation, when they are not in fact games at all ('Let's play a game: I'll give you a word, you tell me how it is spelt!');

second, the danger that the obvious activity and enjoyment caused by a game may obscure the fact that its contribution to learning is minimal.

However, another definition of 'games' ignores the implication of non-serious recreation and concentrates rather on their quality as organized action that is rule-governed, involves striving towards a clear goal through performance of a challenging task, and provides participants and/or onlookers with a feeling of pleasurable tension.

Children in general learn well when they are active; and when action is channeled into an enjoyable game they are often willing to invest considerable time and effort in playing it. If we design our games in such a way that they are productive of language learning they become an excellent, even essential, part of a programme of children's learning activities.

So as you can see the most important thing in teaching children is to include game-like activities, especially while teaching speaking. There are some games in the practical part of the work (20).

What a teacher should account in his work

Personalization

Instead of talking about a fictional picture in a course book, children are creating their own meanings. We all like to talk about ourselves and our lives. This makes the lesson transcend the level of 'practice phase' and move into the realms of 'real communication.'

The children will relate to the teenage problem, as it's likely to be one that they or their friends have had. It allows them to deal with personal issues in a safe context, as they're talking about someone else.

Creating the need to communicate

The activities should involve an element of information gap and demand that the children interact in order to complete the tasks. In the first lesson, which is describing in the practical part, children have to communicate because they can't see each other's drawing, the only way to get the information is to speak. The ordering exercise in the second lesson also helps them to focus. If the children are

engaged, they are striving or 'pushing' to communicate. Any potential frustration when they find the 'gaps' in their language skills is offset by the intrinsically interesting and engaging nature of the tasks.

Quality of teacher feedback

As always, it's essential to give feedback on content as well as language. Otherwise, the message we're giving to our children is that only the language element is important.

What will you do about correction of the 'form'? It's unlikely that the children will get everything right first time. The teacher tries to select one element to correct immediately, for example pronunciation of 'schwa', and then decide to review at another time.

It's important for elementary children to go beyond simple repetition and manipulation of form. They sometimes need to get away from mere 'language practice' and to strive to communicate meaningfully about topics which really concern them. This will inevitably mean mistakes, and sometimes frustration. Both these are part of language learning and shouldn't be avoided. If as teachers we give good quality feedback on content as well as language, we will encourage the children to strive to create their own meanings through English (5).

What the practical activities are

- Create an 'English Corner' by providing materials in English at class such as comics and books, cable TV and Internet (with parental guidance!)

- Play language-based games in English such as Scrabble and bingo, I-spy, 20 questions, Memory, Simon says etc.

- Use sticky labels or 'post-it' notes to label objects at class in English. For example, using a picture or a poster you can label table, chairs, refrigerator, etc.

- Collect music in English, get the lyrics from the Internet and sing along!

- Do craft activities in English. Make puppets and invent a little show in English. Make posters (about their favourite star, sport, etc.); make picture dictionaries with drawings and cut-outs.

- Take an 'English adventure outing'. Take children to a park vertually. Using English only they have to say what they see such as, «The children are riding their bikes», «The man is selling fruit», «There are some boats on the lake» and so on. Other locations where you can do this are: the supermarket, an office, a shopping centre.

- Make reading a habit

- Read to children in English. A short story or a few pages of a book daily creates a life-long habit.

- You do not have to buy the books, you can join a library or download text from the Internet.

- If you are concerned with your own pronunciation, there are plenty of materials on the Internet that have the text read to the viewer. Also, there are books that come with cassettes or CDs, so that children can read and listen at the same time. You could do this together.

1.2. How to motivate young learners

Young children are often eager, almost too eager. The problem arises when they are eager to do things other than what you're trying to teach them. Here are six tips to keep them interested in class and motivated to do what you want them to do (pic. 4):

Tip 1: Keep yourself motivated.

Think back to when you were a child. If your teacher was not enthusiastic about what he or she had scheduled for class that day, how did you feel about it? It's the same with young children today. If you, the teacher and often a role model for younger children, think this is a neat activity, then they will too!

Tip 2: Encourage.

Young kids thrive on praise and positive attention from the adults in their lives. If you want them to like you and be motivated in your class, you often just need to give them a lot of positive attention.

Tip 3: Play games

Children learn through play. Oftentimes they don't even realize they are learning if they are enjoying the game. Just think children could sit there and fill out worksheet after worksheet or they could play an English game and learn the same concepts.

When you play games, you can use points and competition as a motivator, but not for kids under six who may find the competition too stressful.

For them, just playing the game is motivating enough. You can also sometimes award extra credit, but use it sparingly so that it remains «extra» and a special reward. Also if you use it too much, children can have so much extra credit that it sways the actual grades too much.

Tip 4: Get their hands dirty

Literally and figuratively children like to work with their hands and whatever you can do to get the items they are learning about in their hands is useful and fun for them.

This can be anything from having a sensory table filled with sand and beach items when you want to teach them summer words to having them each bring in a piece of fruit when you are teaching fruit words. Anytime you can get young children up and doing instead of listening (often passively) you are getting their hands dirty in the learning process.
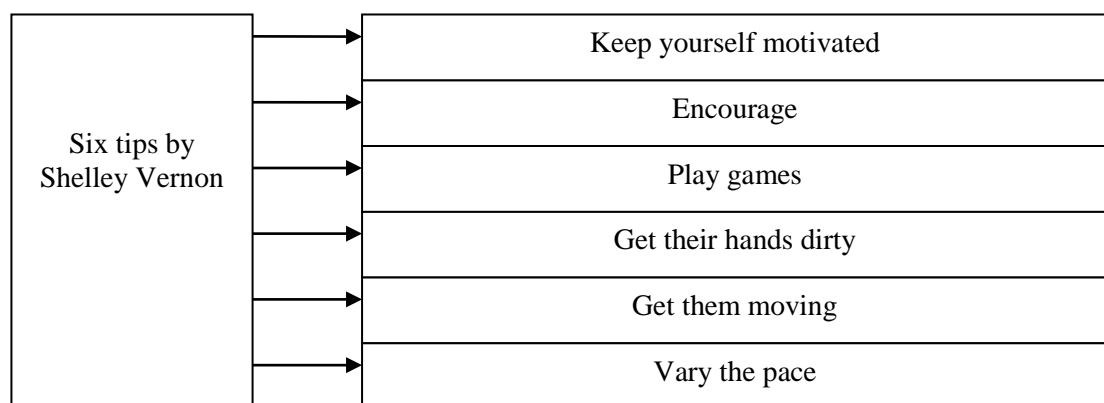
Tip 5: Get them moving.

Movement is a vital component to motivating children. The best way to prevent children from zoning out is to get them up out of their seats at least once each class period. Even if you just require them to come up to you instead of you going to them for help, the movement can help get them out of the trance that they sometimes get from sitting in one spot too long.

Grouping the children for study projects and activities helps as well. If you can, let them move the desks around or sit on the floor to change things up as well. Many games involve movement without the children needing to leave their seats, such as miming, moving certain body parts and passing things around as part of a game or race.

Therefore even teachers with large classes and no space to move can use this technique, albeit to a more limited degree.

Tip 6: Vary the pace

Alternate calm games with lively ones to keep the children alert and motivated, but without letting the class get out of hand. Good discipline is essential to effective learning (18).

Six tips by Shelley Vernon	Keep yourself motivated
	Encourage
	Play games
	Get their hands dirty
	Get them moving
	Vary the pace

Pic. 4. Six tips to keep children interested in class and motivated to do the tasks.

There are some more advices how not to get disheartened when you have to teach beginners

1. Simplify your language

Don't be too fast. Be very slow so that they feel good about listening to you. Sometimes, you will to 'act' to make them understand. Don't feel shy to act. Use simple words.

2. Observe successful teachers

Some teachers are astounding in their approach and presentation. There is nothing wrong if you sit in their classes and observe how they handle the session. Let not your ego prevent you from learning good methodologies which can mould you as a teacher. Don't let the ego tell you that you know 'everything'.

All the teachers must realize that the rapport that you build with your students is the first step towards successful teaching. If there is an emotional gap between you and your pupils, the learning process will lack depth. Plan for your 'first day' class creatively. As you know, the first impression is always the best impression.

3. Use of dictionary

If a language teaching session is to be effective, the learners must be encouraged to use dictionaries. As children search for words, they learn a lot of words. Language sessions must be full of activities. They must be student centered. Many a time the teacher plays passive role. If your session is dominated by your voice, then reconsider the strategy. English classes must be boisterous but under the control of the teacher.

4. Say 'no' to traditional question papers

Don't be a victim of traditional question papers that are full of 'fill in' exercises. Question papers must be appealing to the students. Don't just focus on grammar. Add passages that will require the use of dictionary (19).

Beginners' question papers must have crosswords, scrambled words, pictures (family tree, emotions), and dictionary pages for exploration. Add anything that will arouse curiosity in the learners (Pic.5).
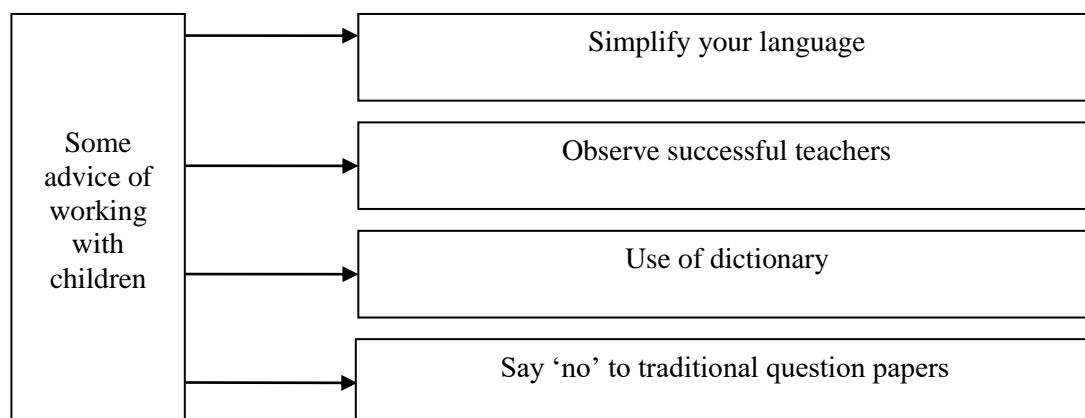
Pic. 5. Working with children

Teaching children versus teaching adults

The first key thing that all children's teachers should remember is that the teaching of children and the teaching of adults, both in technique and attitude, are entirely different propositions.

First of all, since all teachers are adults themselves, it is in the world of the adult they tend to teach while it is in the world of the child that the youngsters are learning.

Moreover, the last time the teachers were in classrooms as children themselves was in college. And this is important to remember, because it is the feature of teachers to teach as they have been taught. Since young children are so different from teenagers and adults in developmental terms, to take the same approach to the teaching of such dissimilar learning groups would be and is a huge mistake.

Even teachers who are experienced and have strong theoretical background can forget or be blinded to some of the most basic tenets of the classroom when teaching children, because the ideal learning environment for the child is not what it is for the adult. Veteran teachers might have a tendency to elevate a method or

lesson plan to primacy, but in doing so have a hard time actually communicating with young chargers.

So as we can see, that when we want to teach children to speak English we should think at first about their interests, their inner world, which is too different from inner world of adults.

Also as we know that children love everything new, colourful, bright, they are fond of different games, toys and etc. we should use such things in our teaching methods to motivate children, make the lessons for them more real. If it is interesting for a child he will take part in a lesson and will speak.

Differences between children and adults in language learning

This is a commonly held view, based on many people's experience seeing (or being) children transplanted to a foreign environment and picking up the local language with apparent ease. The obvious conclusion from this experience would seem to be that children are intrinsically better learners; but this has not been confirmed by research.

On the contrary: given the same amount of exposure to a foreign language, there is some evidence that the older the child the more effectively he or she learns; probably teenagers are overall the best learners. (The only apparent exception to this is pronunciation, which is learned more easily by younger children.)

The reason for children's apparently speedy learning when immersed in the foreign environment may be the sheer amount of time they are usually exposed to the language, the number of 'teachers' surrounding them, and the dependence on (foreign-language-speaking) people around to supply their needs ('survival' motive).

The truth of the assumption that young children learn better is even more dubious if applied to formal classroom learning: here there is only one teacher to a number of children, exposure time is very limited, and the 'survival' motive does not usually apply.

Moreover, young children have not as yet developed the cognitive skills and self-discipline that enable them to make the most of limited teacher-mediated

information; they rely more on intuitive acquisition, which in its turn relies on a larger volume of comprehensible input than there is time for in lessons.

Some people have argued for the existence of a 'critical period' in language learning: if you get too old and pass this period you will have significantly more difficulty learning; thus early learning in schools would seem essential. But this theory is not conclusively supported by research evidence: there may not be a critical period at all; or there may be several.

The research-supported hypothesis discussed above – that children may actually become more effective language learners as they get older, particularly in formal teacher-mediated learning situations – means that the investment of lesson time at an early age may not be cost-effective.

In other words, if you have a limited number of hours to give to foreign language teaching in school, it will probably be more rewarding in terms of sheer amount of learning to invest these in the older classes.

It is also true that an early start to language learning is likely to lead to better long-term results if early learning is maintained and reinforced as the child gets older.

In an immersion situation, where people are acquiring language intuitively for daily survival, this may to some extent be true. In the context of formal courses, however, differences become apparent.

Adults' capacity for understanding and logical thought is greater, and they are likely to have developed a number of learning skills and strategies which children do not yet have.

Moreover, adult classes tend on the whole to be more disciplined and cooperative – as anyone who has moved from teaching children to teaching adults, or vice versa, will have found.

This may be partly because people learn as they get older to be patient and put up with temporary frustrations in the hope of long-term rewards, to cooperate with others for joint profit, and various other benefits of self-restraint and disciplined cooperation.

Another reason is that most adults are learning voluntarily, have chosen the course themselves, often have a clear purpose in learning (work, travel, etc.) and are therefore likely to feel more committed and motivated; whereas most children have little choice in where: how or even whether they are taught.

Teachers commonly notice that they cannot get children to concentrate on certain learning activities as long as they can get adults to do so.

However, the problem is not the concentration span itself – children will spend hours absorbed in activities that really interest them – but rather the ability of the individual to persevere with something of no immediate intrinsic interest to them. Here older learners do exhibit noticeable superiority, because they tend to be more self-disciplined. One implication for teaching is the need to devote a… of thought to the (intrinsic) interest value of learning activities for younger learners.

In a sense, this is true: you can raise children's motivation and enthusiasm (by selecting interesting activities, for example) more easily than that of older, self-reliant and sometimes cynical learners.

On the other hand, you can ask it more easily: monotonous, apparently pointless activities quickly bore and demotivate young learners; older ones are more tolerant of them. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that younger learners' motivation is more likely to vary and is more susceptible to immediate surrounding influences, including the teacher; that of older learners tends to be more stable.

Even in an adult class, the teacher's status as an authority is usually maintained This, however, is based more on the teacher's being 'an authority on…' (the language and how to learn it) than on their being a legally appointed superior: a distinction expressed in the French terms **enseignant** and **professeur** respectively.

In any case, there is a certain deference on the part of the learners: the teacher is expected to give instructions, the learners are expected to respect and obey them. However, there is also the important factor of accountability: in return

for conceding authority to the teacher in the classroom, adult learners demand ultimate returns in terms of their own benefit in learning outcomes.

The moment one person is placed in the position of having the right to criticize the performance of another, the relationship becomes asymmetrical, dominance being attributed to the assessor.

Even if someone else actually checks a final exam and passes or fails course participants, the teacher will be seen as assessor in the daily classroom process; and this contributes to their role as authority, already discussed above. In this aspect, there is little difference between young and adult classes.

This relationship can occur in adult classrooms just as it can in others; it is a function of the methodology the teacher has chosen to employ rather than of the age of the learner [21.P. 44].

Because of the less formal authority of the teacher with most adult classes (as described in the paragraph 'Authority – subjects to authority' above), adults are perhaps in a better position to assert their right to question, criticize and generally participate actively; on the other hand, they do tend to be more disciplined and conform more to teacher demands than younger learners.

The two factors probably offset one another, and it is difficult to draw any firm conclusions about the 'typical' adult class in this respect.

As a generalization, adults take responsibility in society: for their own actions and for their consequences. In the classroom also, adults take more responsibility for the learning process, and rely less on the teacher's initiative in making activities attractive or providing incentives.

They are also usually more motivated in the first place (partly because most of them are learning voluntarily, while most children are given no choice!), and this motivation tends to be relatively stable: it does not, for example, rise fall so much in immediate response to more interesting or more boring teaching.

Thus, although the raising and maintaining of learner motivation is an essential and basic component of teaching activity with all age groups, it usually

demands perhaps less investment of effort and time on the part of teachers working with adults.

As with 'transmitter – receivers' this is a relationship that depends more on the teacher's chosen methodology than on the age of the learners, and can be true for any class.

This relationship entails a view of the teacher as an accepting, supportive professional, whose function is to supply the expressed needs of the learner rather than to impose a predetermined programme. It involves a perceptible shift of responsibility and initiative in the classroom process from the teacher and the learners themselves.

It is a typically adult relationship, and is unlikely to occur in classes of children; even in adult classes it is rare to find it consistently used: perhaps only where the methodology known as Community Language Learning is used. But occasional exchanges and some general 'fee' of the counsellor-client relationship may enrich the interaction in many otherwise conventional adult classes.

This is an essentially business relationship: the teacher has a commodity – knowledge of the language – which the learner is willing to pay money to acquire. The implication is a relative lowering of the prestige of the teacher, and greater rights of the learner to demand appropriate results (value for money), and even to dismiss the teacher if the results are not forthcoming. This relationship may underlie quite a high proportion of adult learning situations, and the juxtaposition of the traditional authoritative role of the teacher with their role as employee or seller may be an uneasy one.

Here the implication is that the teacher is a mere source of knowledge to be tapped by learners, and is virtually passive in classroom interaction: it is the learner who tells the teacher what to do.

Total and consistent implementation such a teaching-learning relationship is difficult to envisage, but many adult J classes may implement it partially, particularly where the students are experienced learners who know what they want

and how to get it, and/or where the teacher knows the language but has no knowledge or experience of how to teach it.

1.3. What to do with the mistakes

For children and adults, who learn English from the very beginning, making mistakes is part of the natural process of learning.

The first step towards deciding how to respond to mistakes is identifying them. Even for the most attentive listener, this is not always as easy as it sounds, sometimes because of the lack of a clear criterion of correctness, but sometimes also because a correct form may be incorrect in context.

Options for responding to mistakes include (21; 7):

• do nothing;

• store it away for later;

• correct it now.

Repeating, encouraging, praising and building confidence are what is needed to help a child to overcome mistakes. Avoid overtly correcting your child or you might discourage them. Tim and Marks offer to do these steps:

• Not interrupting but waiting for the end of what the speaker is saying if it's something short, or a suitable pause if it's longer.

• Interpreting the intention and the nature of the incorrectness. Asking for clarification may be the only way of finding out in some cases; in other cases the intention will become clear from the broader context.

• Indicating that there's a mistake. Teachers often have non-verbal signals for this. Sometimes it's important to acknowledge the general correctness, or factual validity, of what the learner has said before focusing on the mistake, so as to avoid giving the message that everything the speaker said was wrong.

• Indicating where the mistake is, if it can be localized. Some teachers count off the words of an utterance on their fingers, and stop at the one where the mistake is. Others repeat the utterance up to the mistake, perhaps including the mistake in a questioning tone of voice.

- Giving a model of the correct version.

- Telling the learner what to do, e.g. Change the tense, Make it less formal.

- Asking questions to check understanding of a structure or lead the speaker to use the correct one.

- Appealing to another learner, or to the whole class, for a correction. Sometimes it happens anyway.

- Giving an explanation of what's wrong and why.

Other techniques that you can use are:

- Don't correct, 'model' the correct form of the language. So if your child says «The boy wented home,» you can say, «Yes. The boy went home. What did he do then?»

- Encourage children to correct themselves, this will build confidence and deepen the learning process. Say «Almost right, try again…» or show the child where the mistake is but do not give them the answer.

- Some correction is okay but be careful not to over-correct. A page full of crossing out and corrections can be very demotivating, as is always being told, «Wrong! Do it again!»

- Particularly in speech it is much better to let the child develop their ideas and fluency than to keep interrupting with corrections. The ideas are more important than the grammar.

- Keep their age and level of English in mind. Give lots of praise and encouragement for every effort – they can't know everything.

It is very important in speaking language. If a teacher interrupts a child regularly, because he makes mistakes, the child can stop speaking and can be afraid to speak at all. And an adult will feel ill at ease and humiliating, when a teacher always correct his mistakes, and interrupt him.

The aim of this chapter was to show the different attitudes to learning English from a child's and an adult's sides. In the next chapter there will be describing some methods of teaching English speaking to beginners.

1.4. Methods of teaching speaking in secondary level

The Direct Method

One of the important methods of teaching speaking is the Direct Method. To use this method, teacher should think of what the stages of learning are.

There are three stages of learning:

1. Receiving knowledge.

2. Fixing it in the memory by repetition.

3. Using the knowledge by real practice.

Thus, when the teacher says «This is a red book,» «This is my table,» the pupil is receiving knowledge. When the pupil on many occasions answers the questions: «What's this?» «What colour is it?' «Whose table is this?» he is fixing the knowledge in his memory.

But when in the ordinary course of duty he is told to «Bring me the red book on my table,» and brings it, he is using the knowledge.

Now the giving and fixing of knowledge is the work of the teacher in the ordinary course of the lessons. The using of the knowledge as a rule takes place not in the course of the lessons but in the ordinary course of the day's work.

So the teacher's first and chief business is to give knowledge and fix it in the pupil's memory. He therefore

(a) Makes statements (e.g. gives knowledge).

(b) Asks questions (e.g. fixes knowledge by practice).

A learner obviously cannot give what he has not previously received. If you point to an object and say «What's that?» the learner who has not previously been told what the object is will be unable to answer..

These may be questions beginning with what, who, where, which, how many, or questions beginning with is this, are you, do you, have you, etc.

Sooner or later however you must come to use the equally natural indirect questioning. For instance instead of saying to someone, «What is that?» we often say, «Tell me what that is?» or I want to know what that is.» Or instead of saying «Is this the right way?» we often say, «Tell me whether this is the right way» or

«Can you tell me whether this is the right way?» or «I want to know whether this is the right way»

Again we rarely use such forms as «Say to him, 'What is that?'» or Say this to him, 'Where are you going?'» We prefer the shorter and more natural forms: «Ask him what that is» or «Ask him where he is going.»

So quite early in the course of lessons the teacher should sometimes replace direct by indirect questions. The following are samples of direct questions and some of the indirect questions corresponding to them.

Direct Questions Indirect Questions

What's this? Tell me

Who's that? Please (Just, Now) tell me

Which one's that? I want to know

What's it like? I want you to tell me

What are you doing? Can you tell me

Where's he going? Do you think you can tell me

How many are there? where he's going.

Is this a stone? how many there are.

Are they ready? what this is

Is he here?

Can you do it?

Does he often come here?

Did you see him?

Another very good way to use indirect questions is for the teacher to tell one of the pupils to ask questions of other pupils. This makes a useful and lively form of drill-work. For instance:

Teacher (to X). X, ask Y what this is.

X (to Y).   Y, what is this?

Y (to X).   It's a stone (button, etc.).

Teacher (to X). X, ask Y where his belt is.

X (to Y).   Y, where's your belt?

Y (to X).   It's here.

Teacher (to X). X, ask Y how many trees he can see?

X (to Y).   Y, how many trees can you see?

Y   (to X).   I can see three.

I can't see any.

The above answers may be repeated to the teacher by X;

X (to Teacher). Y says «This is a stone» (etc.), or Y says that this is a stone (etc.).

Similar to this teaching device is the one in which the teacher tells one of his pupils to tell another of the pupils something:

Teacher (to X). X, tell Y what this is.

X (to Y).   Y, this is a piece of wood.

Teacher (to X). X, tell Y where I am.

X (to Y).   Y, the teacher is there (pointing).

Teacher (to X). X, tell Y what Z is doing.

X (to Y).   Y, Z is sitting down.

Or the device can be used for commands at secondhand:

Teacher (to X). X, tell Y to come to me.

X (to Y).   Y, go to the teacher.

Teacher (to X)   X, ask Y to give you a match.

X (to Y).   Y, give me a match please. Thank you.

Teacher (to X).   X, ask Y what he is doing.

X (to Y).   Y, what are you doing?

Y (to X).   I'm standing up.

While the devices explained above may be used at a very early stage, the teacher should of course use only words and forms that are familiar to his pupils. He should obviously not say to X «Ask Y to give you a match» before the lesson on giving things has been learnt. If the teacher says to X «Ask Y how many trees he can see» before the lessons that introduce how many or can or see, Y will not understand what the teacher is saying to him, far less be able to carry out the

command. In other terms, each use of indirect questioning, telling or commanding must correspond to the actual lesson that is being given.

There are more approaches, e.g. the topic approach, which can be useful for teaching speaking (17).

The Topic Approach

The topic approach begins with a subject that is of relevance and/ or interest to the learners and then designs activities for learner that will involve them in investigating that topic and using language as an integral or central part of that investigation. Advocates of the topic approach suggest that learner will be more likely to be motivated to use the new language if their attention is focused on a topic or subject that they have an interest in or care about. Language objectives are thus integrated with content study (14).

Penny Ur's activities

Penny Ur (11) offers a variety of types of oral activities, including communication games, but also including a wider variety of group activities. These she classifies into three main types: brainstorming activities, organizing activities, and compound activities.

There are several subtypes under each category. We offer some examples of each in the accompanying list.

Brainstorming activities

– Guessing games: guess the object/ profession/ country; (clues: first sound or letter; a piece of mime; strange picture; a puzzle clue).

– Finding connections: between incongruous prompts (verbal or pictorial); combining elements into story; finding things in common.

– Ideas from a central theme: listing objects with the same qualities; listing different uses of the same object; associations; what will you need; characteristics (e.g. of a good teacher, or a car).

– Implications and interpretations: doodles; pictures; sounds; faces; foreseeing results; explanations for strange situations.

Organizing activities

– Comparisons: odd man out; categorizing.

– Detecting differences: picture differences; alibi.

– Putting in order: picture sequence; sentence sequence.

– Priorities: rating; survival games; features and functions.

– Choosing candidates: grant-winners; heirs; prisoners; victims; teachers.

– Layout problems: animals in a zoo; dinner placings; marital pairings.

– Combining versions: combining two or more similar texts into one which will make sense.

Compound activities

– Composing letters

– Debates

– Publicity campaigns

— Surveys

— Planning projects.

The most useful and important for elementary students are Organizing activities and Brainstorming activities.

Summary of the chapter

The given chapter deals with theoretical aspects of teaching speaking. In this chapter we tried to generalize all theoretical materials of auding and speaking principles, motivating young learners and methods of teaching speaking in secondary schools.

CHAPTER II. TEACHING SPEAKING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

2.1. Dialogue as a basis of speaking

Dialogue (sometimes spelled **dialog** in American English) is a literary and theatrical form consisting of a written or spoken conversational exchange between two or more people. Its chief historical origins as narrative, philosophical or didactic device are to be found in classical Greek and Indian literature, in particular in the ancient art of rhetoric. [5, P.67].

While the dialogue was less important in the nineteenth century than it had been in the eighteenth, it was not extinct. The British author W.H. Mallock employed it successfully in his work "The New Republic," which was explicitly based on Plato's "Republic" and on the writings of Thomas Love Peacock. But the notion of dialogue reemerged in the cultural mainstream in the work of cultural critics such as Mikhail Bakhtin and Paulo Freire, theologians such as Martin Buber, as an existential palliative to counter atomization and social alienation in mass industrial society.

Dialogue as a genre in the Middle East and Asia dates back to the year 1433 in Japan, Sumerian disputations preserved in copies from the late third millennium BC[2] and to Rigvedic dialogue hymns and to the *Mahabharata*.

Literary historians commonly suppose that in the West Plato (c. 437 BC – c. 347 BC) introduced the systematic use of dialogue as an independent literary form: they point to his earliest experiment with the genre in the *Laches*.

The Platonic dialogue, however, had its foundations in the *mime*, which the Sicilian poets Sophron and Epicharmus had cultivated half a century earlier. These works, admired and imitated by Plato, have not survived but scholars imagine them as little plays, usually presented with only two performers. The *Mimes* of Herodas give us some idea of their scope.

Plato further simplified the form and reduced it to pure argumentative conversation, while leaving intact the amusing element

of character-drawing. He must have begun this about the year 405 BC, and by 400 he had perfected the dialogue, especially in the cycle directly inspired by the death of Socrates, and is considered a master of the genre. All his philosophical writings, except the *Apology*, use this form.

Following Plato, the dialogue became a major literary genre in antiquity, and several important work both in Latin and in Greek were written. Soon after Plato, Xenophon wrote his own *Symposium*; also, Aristotle is said to have written several philosophical dialogues in Plato's style (none of which have survived).

Dialogue is formed by the two words 'dia' and 'logos', which can be literally interpreted as 'to speak across', 'to converse',[3] or more appropriately the 'two way flow/exchange' of meaning, which is the tone suggested by Bohm, and many modern philosophical (and management) writers.

Dilalogue is studied in the methodological references and text-books by different authors.

As Uzbek scholar Jamol Jalolov writes, there are three kinds of speaking in the English language:

1. Monologue,

2.Dialogue and,

3. Polylogue.

All of those three types of speech have their own features. Monologue is speech example of one person, dialogues is of two person, whereas polylogue is considered the speech of many people.

In English classes speaking is divided into the following types:

1) to speak on the topic which the teacher gave,

2) to speak on the basis of read text,

3) to speak on the basis of chosen text or speech example,

4) to speak while discussing the read text,

5) to speak while asking a review or interview from a foreigner, 6) to speak while helping the foreigner and other exercises.

For example, if te teacher says *This is a black pencil*, the pupil can change and reproduce as *This is a white pencil*. While changing the position of words and phrases can also change. For example, *I live in Moscow. Sasha lives in Moscow*. "I" changed with "Sasha".

In an expanded speech, the example of speech, sentence or structure can be changed.

*For example:*I have a book.

I have an English book.

I have an interesting Endish book.

I have an interesting English book at home.

Teaching dialogues in English classes.

The text-books of lyceums by M. Gadoeva contains some dialogues. At present lyceums use more books and text-books, where can find few dialogues. But they have different activities and drills to develop speaking skills.

As we know dialogic speech is a simple type of speaking, acted by 2 speakers.

Dialogic speech has its specific features and difficulties. The teacher should take it into consideration. Its specific features are as follows:

1. Dialogue is a necessity of quick respond (reaction).

2. Two speakers attend in dialogic act.

3. Dialogue contains not only questions and answers.

4. Each speaker mentions his aim.

5. The participants of the dialogic act don't know the content of dialogue beforehand.

6. In case, the participants of dialogic speech know the situations, conditions and peculiarities of each other, the dialogue will continue.

7. One of the participants should demonstrate leadership qualities.

8. In order to make the dialogue interesting, it should be based on some topic.

9. Dialogue happens in situations. The speaking conditions of the speaker should be taken into consideration.

10. Replicas, sudden sentences, support, catch-word and other means will be helpful for the continuation of the dialogue.

In linguistic literatures replica and catch words are mentioned as a means of dialogue. It can be a word, word-combination, phrase or whole sentence.

For example: *Don't, can't, won't, shan't.*

3. Replics is used. For example: Why not? Hey? Aren't you? Haven't you?

4. Interrogative sentences are not formed according to rules. For example: Instead of *Are you going to the cinema? - Are you?*

Instead of *Don't you prepare the homework? -* Don't you?

Instead of *When did you go to the cinema? -* When?

They are aim and mean in teaching dialogic speech.

M. Y. Demyanenko proposes to beging teaching to dialogues from elementary question tasks.

G. V. Rogova proposes to encourage and stimulating "response-inducement-response".

G. V. Rogova divides dialogue teaching process into three stages:

1. Receptive stage.

2. Reproductive stage.

3. Constructive stage.

We offer the following three stages to teach dialogic speech:

1-preparartion stage. Choosing a topic for dialogue, and its necessary materials, examples of dialogues, choosing necessary phrases, to make the sentences and use them.

2-stage. To make up dialogues on the basis of given samples.

In this stage the students participate in making dialogues. In this stage, they read samples of dialogues, and try to use the dialogues independently, not using samples.

3-stage. This stage is stage making dialogues independently, the stage of developing dialogues.

While teaching monologue and dialogues 2 types of exercises are used.

1. Prepararation exercises types;
2. Speech exercises types.

While making the dialogues the means, basis, speech situations are widely used. The teacher should demonstrate samples of dialogues in order to dialogic speech.

2.2. The Communicative Approach in teaching a dialogic speech

A fun way of exploring the concepts of colour, shape and size in a foreign language is illustrated in the following graded series of activities around theme of «shapes».

1. In groups the children are given a variety of mathematical shapes of different colour, both large and small. These can be cut out paper shapes. The first activity is simply to ask the children to sort the pieces of paper into sets. Interestingly some children will not only sort them into sets (the same colour, the same shape or the same size) but will simultaneously sort them into sub-sets – colour, shape and size.

2. They are then asked on what criteria they sorted the pieces of paper and they are required only to say согласно size, colour, shape.

3. The teacher then asks each group to bring a variety of shape, colours and size, for example, bring me please two red big circles, three small green triangles and one big yellow square.

At this point normally the children (or adults) start to remonstrate that (a) the teacher is talking too fast or (b) there is too much to remember and this provides the teacher with the opportunity to talk about various strategies they might adopt to overcome these perceived difficulties.

These might include repeating «silently» in their heads what the teacher is saying, whilst simultaneously looking for the required shapes, and so on. It might include each child in the group assuming responsibility for a particular shape or colour or size. When the strategies have been discussed in each group and responsibilities allocated, the game is played again – this time without a hitch and accompanied by lots of laughter.

4. The children are asked to pick out a given shape, for example, a big green triangle. Thereafter they have to form a line of 10–15 shapes changing one element each time, for example a big green circle or a small green triangle. When they have completed the task they say I change size or I change colour or I change form.

5. Now they are asked to make a line of 10–15 shapes changing two elements each time. On this occasion they would say, for example, I change colour and size or I change form of colour and an end or I change size and colour.

This provides quite a demanding task for some children and for some adults – not linguistically, but conceptually, and it is revealing that the foreign language here is servicing development in mathematical concepts and not being used solely as an end in itself! There is much more intensity of motivation in having to access the foreign language in order to come to terms with something here and now. They are acquiring new subject-matter through the medium of the foreign language.

6. The children then make a picture using some of the shapes they have in front of them – this might be a clown, a house, a street with vehicles – anything! Once the pictures are complete, the children move around the classroom looking at and admiring their classmates' compositions, commenting favorably on what they see – it is stipulation of the activity that all comments should be positive and favorable (it is nice / pretty / amusing).

7. Finally each group has to present its picture and be prepared to answer any questions which teacher or other pupils might ask. The degree of fluency, accuracy and range will vary greatly, but it provides the children with the opportunity to recycle and revisit many of the language areas previously presented and practiced, for example, name, age, likes and dislikes, colours, habitat, and so on. At this point there is frequently a breakdown in the children's ability to talk: they want to say much more than they have the resource for and this is one of many object-lessons in language acquisition – it is a normal stage in linguistic development and one that we as teachers should neither shirk from acknowledging nor discussing with them.

Because motivation is high, because they are engages there is a greater likelihood that they will incorporate some of the coping language which they will undoubtedly have been taught. How do you say…?

Finally, in this section on developing the skills of speaking, it would be unwise not to mention the child's love of language and sounds and the role we have as teachers in encouraging this playing with language (3).

Three example lessons

The first lesson: <u>Talking about my room</u> (Using here is / there are / is there…? / are there…?)

Pre-teach or revise items of furniture and right, left, top, bottom and if a teacher hasn't already taught these, «there is» and «there are».

The children should sit in pairs back to back. If this isn't possible the teacher can use large card or their books to 'hide' the individual child's work.

Each child draws their ideal room or favorite room in their house on the top half of a large sheet of paper. They should not show anyone.

On the bottom half of the paper, each child draws an empty 'box'

Children take it in turns to describe their room/ draw their partner's room on the paper.

The teacher then comments on content and does a small amount of correction.

The second lesson: <u>Parents</u> (Using adjectives which describe character / comparatives). Pre-teach or revise 10 character adjectives e.g. kind, fair, intelligent, honest etc.   Write the list on the board.

Ask the children to decide which 8 qualities are important in a parent (or teacher).

Each child writes their own individual list of 7 in order of importance.

Children then share their lists in pairs and try to agree on one list.

Children can then work in groups of four together and see how similar or different their lists are.

Get group representatives to give feedback to the class.

The teacher can then comment on content and give a small amount of correction if necessary.

The third lesson: <u>Teenage advice</u> (Using: should)

Find or write a simple story about a teenager with a 'problem'. The story should be believable and should include a number of decisions. Leave it open-ended.

Cut the story into four or five separate paragraphs so that at the end of each section there is a decision to be made.

Children then work in groups of four, with a chairperson.

Give out the first paragraph. Children read and decide for themselves what they think s/he should do.

Groups then compare ideas.

Get some brief open class feedback from around the class, but don't correct errors.

Do the same with each paragraph, with feedback after each section. Monitor throughout.

Final feedback on what s/he should do at end of story from group representatives (19).

The Direct Method: How to teach the names of subjects

Among the first lessons to be given to beginners are those that teach the names of common objects. Many and repeated opportunities must be given for

(a) seeing the objects and hearing their names,

(b) seeing the objects and saying their names,

(c) pointing to the objects on hearing their names,

(d) answering such questions as What's this? What's that? What are these? etc.

That is to say, the pupils must so associate the objects with their names that when they hear the name they think of the object and when they see the object they think of its name. All lessons that teach the names of objects come under the heading of «Lessons based on the question what?»

The usual procedure is as follows.

I The teacher first selects a number of objects, in batches of say from 10 to 20.

If he chooses too many at a time, the pupils are likely not to remember them all; too many words at a time results in «mental indigestion».

If he chooses too few at a time, the lesson is likely to be monotonous.

The objects should be chosen wisely. They should be in the first instance the commonest and most general objects – the things we talk about very often and not the things we talk about rarely.

Teach for instance, tree before shrub, head before eyebrow, stick before twig, etc.

The objects may be:

(a) those that are usually to be found in the place where the lesson is given, e. g. door, window, knife, match, book; or parts of the body and articles of clothing.

(b) those collected specially for the purposes of the lesson, e. g. a stick, a stone, a nail, a piece of wire, a piece of string, etc.

(c) those represented by pictures, such as those printed on picture cards or wall charts, or by rough drawings on the blackboard.

The teacher shows or points to each object in turn and names it. He says the name clearly (but naturally) three or four times.

He should say, for instance pencil as we usually say the word, not pen-sill; or garden (rhyming with pardon) and not gar-den.

It is usually considered better and more practical to put a (an) or the before the name. Thus, not simply table or chair, but a table, a chair or the table, the chair.

But a, an, the (and other similar words) should be pronounced naturally as in ordinary speech, and not as ay, Ann, or thee.

2. The teacher shows or points to the same object saying this time

This is a book (pencil, button, etc.).

This is an envelope (umbrella, etc.).

That's the door (window, etc.).

It is usual to say This is a for small objects close to the teacher, and That's a for larger objects a short distance away from him.

While a (or an) can be put before the objects, it is usual to speak **the** door, **the** window, **the** table, **the** floor, etc. meaning **the one** table, window, floor, etc., which belongs to the room. Much must be left to the judgment of the teacher, who will in each case use what seems to him the most natural form.

Some teachers prefer to use from the very start This is a book, This is an envelope, That's the – table, etc., instead of merely book, a book, table, the table, etc.

Such words as this and that should always be accompanied by a suitable gesture, thus:

This (tapping or holding up the object) is a,

That (vigorously pointing to the object) is the

So far the pupils have been listening and looking; they have been receiving words and sentences and not giving them.

Some teachers at this point would begin making the pupils say the words and sentences or answer the question What's this? But it is generally considered wiser to give the pupils more chances of hearing and recognizing words before they are called upon to speak. Other teachers even go so far as to spend several lessons on. listening practice before allowing the pupils to say anything. Their point is that the more the pupils have heard the words and sentences repeated the more easily and correctly they will speak when the time comes. And indeed if pupils are forced to say words before they have properly «digested» them, they will generally say them with great difficulty and not at all in the English way.

He will then proceed to the questions for yes or no answers. In all examples of questions and answers the words printed in italics are to be emphasized or stressed.

Is this a book? Yes, it is.

Is this a pencil? No, it isn't

Is this a pencil? Yes, it is.

Pupils generally find it amusing when they hear the teacher (when pointing to, a table) ask himself: Is that a button? and before long will themselves call out: No, it isn't.

Then he can continue by asking himself «alternative questions» and answering them.

Is this a book or a pencil? It's, a book.

Is this a pencil or a button? It's a button.

Is that the window or the door? It's the door.

Finally he should ask and answer a «series» of three questions for each object always in the same order and in the following way:

1. Is this a book? Yes, it is.

2. Is this a pencil? No, it' isn't

3. What is it? It's a book.

1. Is that the door? Yes, it is.

2. Is that the window? No, it isn't

3. What is it? It's the door.

etc.

Such «series» of questions and answers should be executed in regular drill-like manner so that the «pattern» of the sentences stands out in a distinct rhythm.

As we shall see later, this «series drill» is of great importance, and the teacher would do well to practise the system until he can execute it (or cause it to be executed) without the slightest hitch of hesitation. It is comparable to the commands and movements of military drill in which the succession of movements is carried out in perfect order and with machine-like accuracy.

Note that:

Question One is to obtain yes as the first word in the answer.

Question Two is to obtain no as the first word in the answer.

Question Three is to obtain the main answer.

Note which words in the questions and answers are stressed or put into prominence. The success of the drill depends largely on this.

Note also that the rise or fall of the voice must be natural:

Is this a book?   (Voice rises on book.)

Yes, it is.   (Voice drops on is.)

Is this a pencil?   (Voice rises on pencil.)

No, it isn't   (Voice drops on isn't)

What is it?   (Voice drops on is.)

It's a book.   (Voice drops on book.)

Such «series» and indeed all drill-like question-and-answer work should be used as indicated and not varied by the substitution of Indirect for Direct questions (see pp. 8–10). Indirect questions may be introduced later, when the pupils have practised the Direct form until they are thoroughly familiar with it.

4. When the pupils have had sufficient opportunity to hear the words and sentences (and to grasp their meaning) they are called upon to say them.

In the first instance they may repeat them after the teacher

Teacher   Pupils

a book   a book

This is a book.   This is a book.

That's the table.   That's the table.

Next they must answer the questions:

Teacher	Pupils
Is this a book?	Yes, it is.
Is this a pencil?	Yes, it is.
Is this a button?	Yes, it is.
Is that the table?	Yes, it is.
etc.	etc.
Is this a pencil?	No, it isn't,
Is this a button?	No, it Isn't.
Is this a book?	No, it isn't.
etc.	etc.
What's this?	It's a book.
What's this?	It's a pencil.
What's this?	It's a button.
etc.	etc.
Is this a book or a pencil?	It's a book.
Is this a pencil or a button?	It's a pencil.
Is this a button or a book?	It's a button.
etc.	etc.
1. Is this a book?	Yes, it is.
2. Is this a pencil?	No, it isn't
3. What's this?	It's a book.

When the pupils are proficient in answering such questions in more or less drill-like form, the question may be asked in irregular order:

Pupils

Teacher

What's Ms? It's a stone.

Is that the table or the floor? It's the table.

Is that the window? No, it isn't.

Is this a match? No, it isn't.

What's that? It's the wall.

4. At a certain moment (this depending on the aptitude and proficiency of the pupils) various pupils in turn will be called upon to play the part of teacher, and will carry on the work of naming and questioning – the objects and types of questions being of course those with which they are familiar.

At the end of the lesson the list of suitable words is given.

2.3. The Topic Approach in teaching the dialogic speech

In thinking about animals the following content might be identified:

- Kinds of animals;

- Physical characteristics of animals.

Beginning with this content, it would then be possible to identify specific language-learning goals, which would be that children would be able to:

- Identify a variety of animals by name (This is/That is a ___.)

- Describe animals according to their size (It's big, small, etc.), colour (It's brown, white, etc.)

The learners could use what they already knew as they worked with the subject matter of animals in English as they increased their English abilities. The activity, which is described below, is appropriate because it involves children actively, because allows children and teacher work together and learn from each other, and because paired and group work provide for the social interaction and the experimentation with language that are central parts of language development.

Pairs of children receive cards with pictures of animals on them, but not al the pairs receive the same animals. One at a time, the teacher holds up a card and names an animal, saying for example: «Here is a picture of a horse. Who else has a picture of a horse?» all of the pairs who have a horse give the cards to the teacher, and teacher and children can count the number of horse cards that were distributed around the room.

This activity may be repeated several times as a way of introducing the names of different animals. The cards could also be used for paired games such as Concentration or Memory, where children take pairs of cards, turn them upside down and mix them up, and then take turns trying to match the pairs by turning over two cards at a time. To make language essential to the game, a rule is that when you find a pair you have to identify the animal. Additionally, animal bingo games could be constructed to identify particular animals within the context of participating in a game that is fun.

The activity just described is tied both to the topic of animals and to the language goals set out previously. The focus of this activity has been listening and speaking – that is, children's understanding and production of spoken English. (14).

Language learning games

• **Bingo** – Use numbers, letters of the alphabet, or word families: furniture, fruits, sports, jobs, colours, actions

• **Memory** – Put 10 everyday objects on a tray. Say what they are in English, cover them. Can your child remember what's there and tell you in English? You can also use photos from magazines or newspapers of different word families.

• **Alphabet Game** – Say a letter of the alphabet. Can your child find an animal, something to eat, etc. beginning with that letter? Or ask your child to write five words beginning with one letter.

• **Spy** – Say that you are thinking of something beginning with a letter. Your child has to guess what it is. Example. «I spy with my little eye, something beginning with W.» «Is it water?» «No.» «Is it Window?» «Yes!»

• **Twenty Questions** – Think of an object or animal. Your child has to ask questions to find out what it is. Example: «Is it big?» «No.» «Is it very small?» «No.» etc…

• **Definition Game** – Give your child a definition, they have to guess what you're defining. Example: «It is very big and it has a long nose.» «Is it an elephant?» «Yes!»

• **Treasure Hunt** – Your child has to find the things, or follow the clues you've written in English (21).

Summar of the chapter

Teaching to speaking academic lyceums is based on teaching methodology. In the given chapter we have discussed the dialogues as a basis of speaking. Because, by teaching the dialogue the teacher motivates his students to begin

speaking spontaneously. Teaching dialogic speech is based on Communicative Approach. That's why, we discussed Communicative Approach as a methodological basis of not only teaching to dialogic speech, but teaching to speaking in general.

Besides topic approach is also proposed as an effective way of teaching to speaking. Teaching to speaking in academic lyceums don`t differ from ones in secondary schools. It depends on the language learners level.

CONCLUSION

To sum up our work we just want to say that it is very important to teach English speaking to children from the very beginning of their learning. As we have said children are transplanted to a foreign environment and pick up the local language with apparent ease. Adults are also can be taught in spite of their age.

In our work there were described psychological peculiarities of children and adults, examined different techniques and methods of teaching speaking, revealed how to deal with mistakes in oral speech.

There is also a big sum of different activities, which are very useful for every English teacher, who works with elementary students, children and adults.

There were used materials from different English books for teachers, materials from Internet. They are theoretical and practical, such as descriptions of different games, lessons, activities.

There is a good help for teacher in putting marks to speakers, giving the appraisal to learners while their speech. We have known about adult's attitude to teachers, their motivation sphere, and how children can be motivated to learn and to speak.

Dialogic speech is a part of speaking is an object of language teaching methodology. Above mentioned that, dialogue as an important type of speaking it has it`s methodological basis. Different kinds of opinions are given on the methods of teaching the dialogue.

We have viewed such techniques as The Direct Method, which is based on questioning; The Communicative Approach, which is based on group work and work in pairs; The Topic Approach, which is based on giving topics to learners to make them speak; Penny Ur's oral activities, which include brainstorming activities, organizing activities, and compound activities.

After such researching work we have been convinced of actuality of this theme because when a teacher comes to the class of beginners he does not know what to start with, how to work with those who know nothing about English. And a

lot of researchers and pedagogies found and write different techniques for us, young specialists, to help us in working with beginners. Speaking is important and difficult skill, which should be learned how to teach it to learners at the elementary stage of English teaching.

Teaching to speaking academic lyceums is based on teaching methodology. In the second chapter we have discussed the dialogues as a basis of speaking. Because, by teaching the dialogue the teacher motivates his students to begin speaking spontaneously. Teaching dialogic speech is based on Communicative Approach.

That's why, we discussed Communicative Approach as a methodological basis of not only teaching to dialogic speech, but teaching to speaking in general.

Besides topic approach is also proposed as an effective way of teaching to speaking. Teaching to speaking in academic lyceums don`t differ from ones in secondary schools. It depends on the language learners level.

Having analyzed all methods and approached dedicated to teaching speaking we offer the following three stages to teach dialogic speech:

1-preparartion stage. Choosing a topic for dialogue, and its necessary materials, examples of dialogues, choosing necessary phrases, to make the sentences and use them.

2-stage. To make up dialogues on the basis of given samples.

In this stage the students participate in making dialogues. In this stage, they read samples of dialogues, and try to use the dialogues independently, not using samples.

3-stage. This stage is stage making dialogues independently, the stage of developing dialogues.

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