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**« WRITING AND LISTENING ACTIVITIES IN
TEACHING ENGLISH »**

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Nowadays, the English language is taught as a compulsory subject in all institutions in Uzbekistan. Teaching and learning English have some specific peculiarities and is required a special teaching program and methodology. Present

research work is devoted to the problems of the Role of Writing and Listening Activities in Teaching English.

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INTRODUCTION

Actuality of the theme. When the Republic of Uzbekistan became Independent, there have been many changes in various spheres of country life, as well as, in educational system. Great attention is being paid to younger generation. There were many reforms in education and other fields of social life.

Main principles of those reforms are based the policy of our president Islam Karimov. Year by year our government under the leadership of our president is working out the new development strategies of our country. The works and speeches of our president are main sources for our further development. For instance our president Islam Karimov made speech in the Senate and Legislative Chamber of the Oliy Majlis of the Republic of Uzbekistan assembled for a joint session on January 27 in Tashkent¹. At the joint session President of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov delivered a speech entitled “Modernization of the country and fostering a solid civil society is our key priority”.

The President underlined, that parliamentary elections in Uzbekistan held on 27 December 2009 have demonstrated the high socio-political culture of the population, growing level of its political and civil self-consciousness, its broad support of our progressive advancement along the way of deepening reforming and modernizing the country.

The elections showed to what extent those decisions made on time were right and efficient, in particular, adoption of the Constitutional Law “On strengthening the role of political parties in the renewal and further democratization of state

¹ Karimov I. Jahon moliyaviy –iqtisodiy inqirozi, O‘zbekiston sharoitida uni bartaraf etishning yo‘llari va choralari. – T.: O‘zbekiston, 2009.- 56 b

governance and modernization of the country”, as well as implemented measures to ensure so that the political parties, as they participate and prove in the elections their competence, become in practice the decisive force of deep transformations taking place in Uzbekistan².

Our president is always mentioning that without foreign languages no organization, no person can develop fast. During the visit to Samarkand region our president insisted all teachers and professor teacher know foreign languages and computer technologies.

Nowadays the English language is taught as a compulsory subject in all institutions in Uzbekistan. Teaching and learning English has some specific peculiarities and is required a special teaching program and methodology. Studying of scientific-methodological sources, analyzing of current curriculums and text-books show that the English language plays a great role for students in being a high qualified specialist. But at present the level of teaching and learning the English language doesn't correspond to modern requirements. It is important to notice that the cause of such negative result-English teachers don't have enough professional skills and modern requirements aren't taken into account in current curriculums, text-books and methodological appliances, modern pedagogical technologies aren't used in teaching foreign languages as well .

Present research work is devoted to the problems of the Role of Writing and Listening Activities in Teaching English.

Theoretical and practical value of the work. The materials of the qualification work may be used in Foreign Language Teaching in secondary schools, academic lyceums, professional colleges and higher education.

The basic purpose of qualification paper is to learn and analysis the role and Place of teaching Writing and Listening in foreign language activities.

² Karimov I. “Mamlakatimizni modernizatsiya qilish yo’lini izchil davom – taraqqiyotimizning muhim omilidir”, “Ishonch” gazetasi, 2010 yil 8 dekabar’

The novelty of our work is to determine methodological issues of General Problems of Foreign Language Teaching, the methods and principles teaching Writing and Listening in foreign language Teaching

The practical value of the work is the fact that the results of the research can be used in the courses of lectures and seminars of English Language Methodology and analysis can be useful for practical courses of English Language Teaching.

The theoretical and methodological problems of Foreign Language Teaching, as well as teaching the ways and types of writing and Listening activities are the **object for our research**.

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.

Writing as a skill is very important in teaching and learning a foreign language. It helps pupils to assimilate letters and sounds of the English language, its vocabulary and grammar, and to develop habits and skills in pronunciation; speaking, and reading. The practical value of writing is great because it can fix patterns of all kinds (graphemes, words, phrases and sentences) in pupils' memory, thus producing a powerful effect on their mind.

That is why the school syllabus reads: "Writing is a mighty means of teaching a foreign language." Writing includes penmanship, spelling, and composition.

The work consists of introduction, two parts, a conclusion and bibliography. In Introduction we have investigated the scientific actuality of the dissertation, subject and object of the theme, aims and tasks of the work, theoretical and practical

significance of the dissertation, as well as a methodological foundation and level of learning of the problem.

The first chapter of the qualification work is dedicated to such vital problems as: The Theoretical Characteristics of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, The Peculiarities of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, The Content of Teaching English and so on.

The second chapter is determined The Content of Teaching Listening in English, The Role and Place of Listening in Teaching English, Psychological Characteristics of Listening Activity

In the Third Part is investigated The Linguistic Characteristics of Writing in English, Reading as an Aim and a Means of Teaching and Learning a Foreign Language, Linguistic Characteristics of Writing Speech.

In the conclusion we have pointed the main results of the qualification work and analyzed them.

All used literature is given in the bibliography.

PART I. THE THEORETICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE.

I.1. The Peculiarities of Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

The content of foreign language teaching or what to teach is one of the main problems the Methods deals with. In this chapter *an* attempt is made to touch on the chief components which, we think, should constitute the content of foreign language teaching in schools; a more detailed consideration will be given in appropriate chapters dealing with teaching various aspects of the language and language skills.

The first component of "what to teach" is habits and skills which pupils should acquire while learning a foreign language. According to the aims of learning this subject they are: hearing (listening comprehension), speaking, reading, and writing. The level of habits and skills is determined by the syllabus for each form. However, quantitative and qualitative characteristics of skills, or the so-called terminal behaviour, is not defined yet for different types of schools and stages of instruction. This is one of the problems for methodologists to investigate and solve. Nevertheless, some attempts have been made in this respect. Thus in school syllabi we can find some directions as to the level of skills that should be reached in each particular form and their development from form to form. For example, the requirements for hearing and reading skills differ in the 9th and 10th forms. In the 9th form pupils should be able to understand oral language on the basis of the material previously learned and within the topics covered, while in the 10th form the material for hearing should include 1—2 unfamiliar words for pupils to guess their meaning, and to understand a text received by ear, based on the Material learned and on a topic close

to those pupils have worked at. This is a new "qualitative step" for pupils in understanding oral language in the 9th form pupils should read with the speed of 1 000 signs per academic hour, in the 10th form the speed of reading is 1 300.

The second component of "what to teach" is language (textual) material, arranged in topics and serving as starting points for the development in oral language and written language, which allows the teacher to reach the practical, educational, and cultural aims set by the syllabus. For example, in the junior stage (the 5th and 6th forms) pupils should speak and read about school, home, town and countryside, nature, physical training and sports. In the senior stage the textual material should cover the following topics: the life of the youth Uzbekistan and abroad; sport in the Uzbekistan and abroad: industry, agriculture, and science in the Uzbekistan and abroad history and geography of the country whose language pupil, study; art and literature in the Uzbekistan and abroad. Topic for speaking and reading are developed from form to form i. e., the pupil's ability to read and speak on a certain (1) language skills: hearing, speaking, reading, and writing as his vocabulary and grammar art topic is widened enriched.

The third component of the content of foreign language teaching is linguistic material, phonology, grammar, and vocabulary carefully selected for the purpose. The selection of linguistic material, the compiling of the so-called minima for instance, minimum vocabulary and minimum grammar has always been one of the most important and difficult problems to be solved and, although a great deal of work has been done in this respect, we are still on the way to its solution

A limited body of linguistic material is required by pupils who have about 600 class hours at their disposal spread over six years (extensive course), and at the same time it must large enough to serve as a sound basis for developing pupils language skills. To sum up what has been said above, the content of foreign language teaching involves:

- (1) Topics
- (2) language (textual) material;
- (3) linguistic material; vocabulary, grammar, phonological minima.

In conclusion it should be said that the content of teaching in our schools is laid down in the syllabus and realized in teaching materials and in the teacher's own speech.

I.2. The Content of Teaching English

By teaching materials we mean the materials which the teacher can use to help pupils learn a foreign language through visual or audio perception. They must be capable of contributing to the achievement of the practical, cultural, and educational aims of learning a foreign language. Since pupils learn a foreign language for several years, it is necessary for the teacher to have a wide variety of materials which make it possible to progress with an increasing sophistication to match the pupils' continually growing command of the foreign language. Good teaching materials will help greatly to reinforce the pupils' initial desire to learn the language and to sustain their enthusiasm throughout the course. The following teaching materials are in use nowadays: teacher's books, pupil's books, visual materials, audio materials, and audio-visual materials.

A teacher's book must be comprehensive enough to be a help to the teacher. This book should provide all the recorded material; summaries of the aims and new teaching points of each lesson; a summary of all audio and visual materials required suggestions for the conduct of the lesson and examples of how the teaching points can be developed.

Pupil's books must include textbooks, manuals, supplementary readers, dictionaries, programmed materials.

Textbooks. The textbook is one of the most important sources for obtaining knowledge. It contains the material which pupils work both during class-periods under the teacher's supervision and at home independently. The textbook also determines the ways and the techniques pupils should use in learning the material to be able to apply it when hearing speaking, reading, and writing.

The modern textbooks for teaching a foreign language should meet the following requirements:

1. The textbooks should provide pupils with the knowledge of the language sufficient for developing language skills, they must include the fundamentals of the target language.
2. They should ensure pupils' activity in speaking, reading, and writing, they must correspond to the aims of foreign language teaching in school.
3. The textbooks must extend pupils' educational horizon, the material of the textbooks should be of educational value.
4. The textbooks must arouse pupils' interest and excite their curiosity.
5. They should have illustrations to help pupils in comprehension and in speaking.
6. The textbooks must reflect the life and culture of the people whose language pupils study.

Each textbook consists of lessons or units, the amount of the material being determined by the stage of instruction, and the material itself. The lessons may be of different structure. In all cases, however, they should assist pupils in making progress in speaking, reading and writing.

The structure of the textbook for beginners should reflect the approach in developing pupils' language skills. If there is an oral introductory course, the textbook should include a lot of pictures for the development of hearing and speaking skills. Thus the textbook begins with "picture lessons". If pupils are to be taught all language skills simultaneously, the textbook should include lessons which contain the material for the development of speaking, reading, and writing from the very beginning. The textbook should have a table of contents in which the material is given according to the school terms. At the end of the book there should be two word-lists: English-Uzbek and Uzbek-English, which include the words of the previous year and the new words with their index of the lesson where they first occur.

Every textbook for learning a foreign language should contain exercises and texts. Exercises of the textbook may be subdivided: (1) according to the activity they

require on "the part of the learners (drill and speech); (2) according to the place they are performed at (class exercises and home exercises); (3) according to the form (whether they are oral or written).

Exercises for developing pronunciation should help pupils to acquire correct pronunciation habits. Special exercises should be provided for the purpose, among them those designed for developing pupils' skills in discriminating sounds, stress, or melody. It is necessary that records and tape-recordings should be applied, and they should form an inseparable part of the textbook.

Exercises for assimilating vocabulary should help pupils to acquire habits and skills in using the words when speaking and writing, and recognizing them when hearing and reading. Most of the exercises should be communicative by nature:

- they should remind us of natural conversation: questions, statements, exclamatory sentences, etc.;
- they should be somehow logically connected with pupils' activity;
- they should reflect pupils' environment;
- they should stimulate pupils to use the given words, The textbooks should provide the revision of words in texts, drill and speech exercises.

Grammar exercises should develop pupils' habits and skills in using the grammar items to be learnt in speaking, reading, and writing. The teaching of grammar may largely be carried on through sentence patterns, phrase patterns, words as a pattern, and the ample use of these patterns in various oral and written exercises. Grammar, therefore, must be divided into small fragments, each taught in response to an immediate need "... It is not the grammar of English that is so difficult: it is English usage. " Therefore grammar exercises must be suggested in connection with situations, and remind us of the real usage of grammar forms and structures in the act of communication.

Exercises for developing oral language should constitute 40—50% of the exercises of the textbook. The other 50% will be those designed for assimilating vocabulary, grammar, the technique of reading, etc.

In all stages of teaching exercises for developing oral language should prepare pupils to carry on a conversation within the material assimilated. This is possible provided pupils are taught to use the words and the sentence patterns they learn in various combinations depending on the situations offered, on the necessity to express their own thoughts and not to learn (to memorize) the texts arranged in topics, which is often the case in school teaching practice.

Exercises designed for developing oral language should prepare pupils:

- to use a foreign language at the lessons for classroom needs;
- to talk about the subjects within pupils' interests, and about the objects surrounding them;
- to discuss what they have read and heard.

The textbook should provide pupils with exercises for developing both forms of speech — dialogue and monologue. As far as dialogue is concerned pupils should have exercises which require: (1) learning a pattern dialogue; the pattern dialogues should be short enough for pupils to memorize them as a pattern, and they must be different in structure: question — response; question — question; statement — question; statement — statement; (2) substitutions within the pattern dialogue; (3) making up dialogues of their own (various situational pictures may be helpful).

As to monologue pupils should have exercises which help them: (1) to make statements, different in structure (statement level); (2) to express their thoughts or to speak about an object, a subject, using different sentence patterns, combining them in a logical sequence (utterance level); (3) to speak on the object, subject, film, filmstrip, story read or heard, situations offered (discourse level). The textbook should include exercises which prepare pupils for reciting the texts, making oral reproductions, etc.

Exercises for developing reading should help pupils to acquire all the skills necessary to read and understand a text. Therefore, there should be graphemic-phonemic, structural information, and semantic-communicative exercises, the amount of each group being different depending on the stage of teaching. Exercises for writing should develop pupils' skills in penmanship, spelling, and composition.

Texts in the textbook should vary both in form and in content. Pupils need topical and descriptive texts, stories and poems, short dialogues, and jokes. Texts should deal with the life of our people and the people whose language the pupils study. It should be noted that a great deal of work has been done in the field of the textbooks. As a result new textbooks have appeared in English, German, and French. There is no doubt that these books are better than those formerly used.

Programmed learning creates a new individualized relationship between the learner and his task. He learns for himself and the programme teaches him. Programming is concerned with effective teaching since it is aimed, as carefully as possible, at a particular group of pupils and leads them through a number of steps towards mastering a carefully thought-out and circumscribed teaching point.¹ Programming allows the teacher to improve the effectiveness of teaching by constructing materials which will guide the pupil through a series of steps towards the mastery of a learning problem. These steps should be of appropriate size and require the pupil's active cooperation; he may be asked to answer a question, to fill in a blank, to read, etc. It is very important to grade progress of steps throughout the programme so carefully that each pupil get every step right.

Programmed foreign language instruction properly utilized is a useful medium which allows the teacher to individualize his pupils' work at the foreign language and create favourable conditions for language learning. There are a lot of things in the classroom such as pens and pencils of different sizes and colours, books, desks and many other articles which the teacher can use in presenting English names for them and in stimulating pupils' activities to utilize the words denoting objects they can see, touch, point to, give, take, etc. Toys and puppets may be widely used in teaching children of primary schools, which is the case in the specialized schools.

Young children like to sing and play various games, that is why songs and games should constitute an important part of teaching materials. Folksongs and popular current songs develop a feeling for the distinctive culture being studied. They furnish a frame work for pronunciation practice. Games give an opportunity for spontaneous self-expression in the foreign language and can be used as a device

for re taxation. Practical and educational functions of teaching materials are as follows: Teaching, materials used in various combinations allow the teacher to develop his pupils' oral-aural skills. Recorded materials can provide the teacher and the pupil with an authentic model, tireless and consistent repetition and many different voices.

These materials are valuable for presentation, exercises, revision, testing, etc. To provide maximum help to the teacher, the materials must be practical in use, economic of cost and time, easy to store, and immediately accessible. Appropriateness. To fulfil the role of motivating the learner and sustaining his enthusiasm, teaching materials must be appropriate to the age, interests, and abilities of pupils. They must also be appropriate to the functions which are required of them, whether the teacher needs them for presentation, exercises, testing, etc.

In conclusion it may be said, according to A. Spicer, "The purpose of teaching materials is not to usurp the role of the teacher, nor even to make his work easier. Their main purpose is to make, it possible for the teacher to teach more effectively, more interestingly, and more economically. It is equally important that the materials should help the pupil to learn more easily and more rapidly."

It is well known that in our country much attention given to foreign language learning. Educational researchers, methodologists and teachers are striving to improve teaching methods in this field. For this purpose new teaching materials have been produced.

As a result the teacher has Teacher's Book, Pupil's Book, visual, audio-visual, audio, and other materials at his disposal, for teaching English two sets of teaching materials are suggested which cover six years (5—10 forms) of the essential course in ten-year schools. Teaching materials by both groups of authors include: teacher's books, pupil's books, sets of wall-charts-or albums, filmstrips (or slides), sound film loops, long-playing records and supplementary readers. Although both sets of teaching materials are based on scientific principles as to the selection of linguistic material, topics to be covered and terminal behaviour at the end of the course, however, they differ in many respects.

The second group of authors follow the oral approach in teaching linguistic material, pupils can use the material in auding and speaking before they can read and write it. One more difference is in the use of the mother tongue in teaching English. They both admit the use of the mother tongue for presenting linguistic material whenever it is necessary to ensure comprehension of what pupils learn. As to translation exercises for developing pupils' language skills, they are used in pupil's books by the first group of authors, and are not utilized by the second.

In learning grammar material pupils pass through the following stages: (1) they assimilate a structural group; (2) they learn how to use the new words in the grammar structures; (3) they utilize the structures in a logical sequence in speech; (4) they speak within the situations offered, using the linguistic material covered.

Gradually the difference in these two sets of teaching materials becomes less striking since they both should meet the school syllabus requirements. Both sets of teaching materials are now in use in schools. Thus teachers of English have received new teaching materials and, therefore, they can teach more effectively than they could before. However, we could expect better results in language teaching, if teachers were more fully informed about teaching aids and teaching materials and the methods they should apply, if they were more selective in the choice of methods and techniques.

One more problem should be touched upon in connection with teaching aids and teaching materials. That is the problem of implementing them into school life. Indeed it is not sufficient to have new textbooks, teacher's guides, and other teaching materials which meet modern requirements. It is necessary that the teacher can digest all this and use the new teaching materials. The problem, as practice proves, is much more difficult than one might imagine. Its solution depends on many factors, and among them:

1. Thorough comprehension of the methodological credo of the authors by the teacher. To understand a system of teaching reflected in textbooks or other teaching materials the teacher should read about the system and, what is more desirable, listen to the authors when they give an interpretation of their system. The

stranger the system of teaching is, the more interpretation it requires. Complete assimilation is attained, however, when the teacher uses the system for a number of years and strictly follows the recommendations given by the authors. If the teacher does not use a new textbook in the way he ought to, the textbook, as a rule, does not work.

2. The teacher's ability to free himself of the methods and techniques he has become used to and acquire new ones. For example, for many years teachers have presented new words as isolated units, writing them down on the blackboard so that pupils can see the words, read and put them down in their vocabulary notes. They got used to the system. Then they had to give up this system to adopt the new one, the oral approach or the oral presentation of words, as is recommended in both series of English textbooks. Some teachers could easily accept the new approach. Some coped with it. And finally, there are teachers who cannot give up presenting new words the way they did before. They go on with the old approach to vocabulary instruction. For many years teachers have widely used translation as a type of exercise for consolidating linguistic material and in reading texts. They got accustomed to translation and liked it. And now they had to restrict the usage of translation and use instead various exercises within the English language utilizing audio-visual aids and materials as both sets of teaching materials require.

3. The teacher's qualification, his desire to be on top of his job, to seek new methods and techniques in language teaching and not only to accept those recommended. Such teachers always read journals and books on methods, they attend lectures and seminars for foreign language teachers.

Consequently, to solve the problem it is necessary:

- (a) to help teachers in comprehending the modern trends in foreign language teaching in general, and in assimilating the methodological credo of the authors of the textbooks they use, in particular;
- (b) to help teachers in accepting new approaches to foreign language teaching through exchange of experience in order to show them how to apply new methods and techniques of teaching and what results can be achieved;

(c) to improve teachers' training in teachers' colleges and at refresher courses. The sooner teachers of foreign language acquire skills in handling teaching aids and in utilizing new teaching materials, the better results in language learning may be expected.

To know a language means to master its structure and words. Thus, vocabulary is one of the aspects of the language to be taught in school. The problem is what words and idioms pupils should retain. It is evident that the number of words should be limited because pupils have only 2—4 periods a week; the size of the group is not small enough to provide each pupil with practice in speaking; schools are not yet equipped with special laboratories for individual language learning. The number of words pupils should acquire in school depends wholly on the syllabus requirements. The latter are determined by the conditions and method used. For example, experiments have proved that the use of programmed instruction for vocabulary learning allows us to increase the number of words to be learned since pupils are able to assimilate them while working independently with the programme.

The vocabulary, therefore, must be carefully selected in accordance with the principles of selecting linguistic material, the conditions of teaching and learning a foreign language in school. Scientific principles of selecting vocabulary have been worked out. The words selected should be: (1) frequently used in the language (the frequency of the word may be determined mathematically by means of statistic data); (2) easily combined (*nice room, nice girl, nice weather*); (3) unlimited from the point of view of style (*oral, written*); (4) included in the topics the syllabus sets; (5) valuable from the point of view of word-building (*use, used, useful, useless, usefully, user, usage*).

The first principle, word frequency, is an example of a purely linguistic approach to word selection. It is claimed to be the soundest criterion because it is completely objective. It is derived by counting the number of occurrences of words appearing in representative printed material comprising novels, essays, plays, poems, newspapers, textbooks, and magazines.

Modern tendency is to apply this principle depending on the language activities to be developed. For developing reading skills pupils need "reading vocabulary" (M. West), thus various printed texts are analysed from the point of view of word frequency. For developing speaking skills pupils need "speaking vocabulary". In this case the material for analysis is the spoken language recorded. The occurrences of words are counted in it and the words more frequently used in speaking are selected.

The other principles are of didactic value, they serve teaching aims. The words selected may be grouped under the following two classes (M. West): Today we are greatly enlightened on the question of word values as the outcome of studies conducted by Thorndike and Horn in the USA, H. Palmer in Japan, M. West in India, E. Richards and C. K. Ogden in England.

The selection of the vocabulary although important is not the teacher's chief concern. It is only the "what" of teaching and is usually prescribed for him by textbooks and study-guides he uses. The teacher's concern is "how" to get his pupils to assimilate the vocabulary prescribed. This is a difficult problem and it is still in the process of being solved.

It is generally known that school leavers' vocabulary is poor. They have trouble with hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. One of the reasons is poor teaching of vocabulary.

The teacher should bear in mind that a word is considered to be learned when: (1) it is spontaneously recognized while auding and reading; (2) it is correctly used in speech, the right word in the right place.

Learning the words of a foreign language is not an easy business since every word has its form, meaning, and usage and each of these aspects of the word may have its difficulties. Indeed, some words are difficult in form (*daughter, busy, bury, woman, women*) and easy in usage; other words are easy in form (*enter, get, happen*) and difficult in usage. Consequently, words may be classified according to the difficulties pupils find in assimilation. In methodology some attempts have been made to approach the problem.

The analysis of the words within the foreign language allows us to distinguish the following groups of words: concrete, abstract, and structural.

Words denoting concrete things (*book, street, sky*), actions (*walk, dance, read*), and qualities (*long, big, good*) are easier to learn than words denoting abstract notions (*world, home, believe, promise, honest*). Structural words are the most difficult for Uzbek speaking pupils.

In teaching pupils a foreign language the teacher should bear this in mind when preparing for the vocabulary work during the lesson.

Psychological and linguistic factors which determine the process of teaching vocabulary.

Words are elements of the language used in the act of communication. They are single units, and as such cannot provide the act of communication by themselves; they can provide it only when they are combined in a certain way. Sometimes separate words may be used in the act of communication, however, for example:

— You have relatives, haven't you?

— Yes, a grandmother.

The word *grandmother* is used instead of the sentence pattern *Yes, I have a grandmother*,

Charles Fries says: "It is not the meaning of the words themselves but an intricate system of formal features which makes possible the grasp of what we generally call 'meaning'. *Train, boy, house, take* — conveys no meaning. The boy takes a train to his house' is full of meaning." He concludes, The meaning is not in the words themselves but in the words as a pattern".

A word may be both a whole which consists of elements (speech sounds) and at the same time an element which is included in a whole (a sentence). In teaching words attention should be given both to a word as an element (in sentences) and a word as a whole (isolated unit) with the purpose of its analysis.

In teaching pupils vocabulary both the ear and the organs of speech should take an active part in the assimilation of -words. Pupils should have ample practice in hearing words and pronouncing them not only as isolated units but in various-

sentences in which they occur. Rule 3 for the teacher: While introducing a word pronounce it yourself in a context, ask pupils to pronounce it both individually and in unison in a context, too.

Any word in the language has very complicated linguistic relations with other words in pronunciation, meaning, spelling, and usage. Rule 4 for the teacher: In teaching words it is necessary to establish a memory bond between a new word and those already covered. For instance: *see — sea; too — two; one — won* (in pronunciation); *answer — reply; answer — ask; small — little* (in meaning); *bought — brought; caught — taught; night — right* (in spelling).

The process of learning a word means to the pupil: (1) identification of concepts, learning what the word means; (2) pupil's activity for the purpose of retaining the word; (3) pupil's activity in using this word in the process of communication in different situations.

Accordingly, the teacher's role in this process is:

- (1) to furnish explanation, to present the word, to get his pupils to identify the concept correctly;
- (2) to get them to recall or recognize the word by means of different exercises;
- (3) to stimulate pupils to use the words in speech.

The true art of teaching is not the application of the best system, but the ability to stimulate pupils to worth while activity. (Morris, *The Teaching of English as a Second Language*).

Hence there are two stages in teaching vocabulary: presentation or explanation, retention or consolidation which are based on certain psycholinguistic factors.

Presentation of new words. Since every word has its form, meaning, and usage to present a word means to introduce to pupils its forms (phonetic, graphic, structural and grammatical), and to explain its meaning, and usage. The techniques of teaching pupils the pronunciation and spelling of a word are as follows: (1) pure or conscious imitation; (2) analogy; (3) transcription; (4) rules of reading.

Since a word consists of sounds if heard or spoken and letters if read or written the teacher shows the pupils how to pronounce, to read, and write it.

However the approach may vary depending on the task set (the latter depends on the age of pupils, their progress in the language, the type of words, etc.). For example, if the teacher wants his pupils to learn the word orally first, he instructs them to recognize it when hearing and to articulate the word as an isolated element (*a book*) and in a sentence pattern or sentence patterns alongside with other words. (*This is a book. Give me the book. Take the book. Put the book on the table, etc.*)

As far as the form is concerned the pupils have but two difficulties to overcome: to learn how to pronounce the word both separately and in speech; and to recognize it in sentence patterns pronounced by the teacher, by his classmates, or by a speaker in case the tape recorder is used.

If the teacher wants his pupils to learn the word during the same lesson not only for hearing and speaking but for reading and writing as well, he shows them how to write and read it after they perform oral exercises and can recognize and pronounce the word. The teacher writes down the word on the blackboard (let it be *spoon*) and invites some pupils to read it (they already know all the letters and the rule of reading). The pupils read the word and put it down in their notebooks. In this case the pupils have two more difficulties to overcome: to learn how to write and how to read the word; the latter is connected with their ability to associate letters with sounds in a proper way.

Later when pupils have learned the English alphabet and acquired some skills in spelling and reading they may be told to copy the new words into their exercise-books and read and write them independently; this work being done mainly as homework. The teacher then has his pupils perform various oral exercises during the lesson, he makes every pupil pronounce the new words in sentence patterns and use them in speech. Since this is the most difficult part of work in vocabulary assimilation it can and must be done during the lesson and under the teacher's supervision.

There are two methods of conveying the meaning of words: direct method and translation. The direct method of presenting the words of a foreign language brings the learner into direct contact with them, the mother tongue does not come in

between, it establishes links between a foreign word and the thing or the concept directly. The direct method of conveying the meaning of foreign words is usually used when the words denote things, objects, their qualities, sometimes gestures and movements, which can be shown to and seen by pupils, for example: *a book, a table, red, big, take, stand up*, etc. The teacher should connect the English word he presents with the object, the notion : it denotes directly, without the use of pupils' mother tongue.

There are various techniques for the use of the direct method. It is possible to group them into (1) visual and (2) verbal. The first group involves the use of visual aids to convey the meaning of unfamiliar words. These may be: objects, or pictures showing objects or situations; besides, the teacher may use movements and gestures. E. g., the teacher uses objects. He takes a pencil and looking at it says: *a pencil. This is a pencil. What is this? It is a pencil. Is it a pencil? Yes, it is. Is it a pen?* (The word is familiar to the pupils.) *No, it is not. Is it a pen or a pencil? It is a pencil.* The pupils do not only grasp the meaning of the word *pencil*, but they observe the use of the word in familiar sentence patterns.

One more example. The teacher uses pictures for presenting the words *small* and *big*. He says: *In this picture you can see two balls.* (The balls should differ only in size.) *This is a small ball, and that is a big ball. This ball is small, and that ball is big. Now, Sasha, come up to the picture and point to the small ball (the big ball).*

Then the teacher shows another picture with two houses in it — a small house and a big house, and he asks another pupil to point to the small house, to the big house, and so on. The teacher may use gestures, for example, for conveying the meaning of *stand up*, *sit down*. He says: *Lena, stand up.* He shows with his hands what she must do. Lena stands up. *Now, sit down.* Again with the movement of his hands he shows the girl what she has to do. The other pupils listen to the teacher and watch what Lena is doing. Then many pupils are invited to perform the actions.

The second group of techniques involves the utilization of verbal means for conveying the meaning of unfamiliar words. These may be: context, synonyms,

antonyms, definitions, word-building elements, etc. The context may serve as a key to convey the meaning of a new word.

Teacher: It was hot. We had no thing to drink. We were *thirsty*. Do people need water or bread when they are thirsty?

P u p i l: They need water.

Teacher: What do people need when they are thirsty?

P u p i l: They need water (or something to drink). Teacher: It was hot. We had nothing to drink. We were thirsty. Were we thirsty?

P u p i l: Yes, you were. Teacher: Were we thirsty or hungry? (The pupils are familiar with the word *hungry*.)

P u p i l: You were thirsty.

T e a c h e r: Why were we thirsty?

Pupil: You were thirsty because it was hot.

Teacher: Are you thirsty, Pete?

Pete: No, I am not.

Teacher: Who is thirsty?

Ann: I am.

Teacher: What did she say, Mike?

Mike: She said she was thirsty.

There is no need to turn to the mother tongue as pupils can grasp the meaning of the word *thirsty* from the context. Besides, while presenting the new word a conversation takes place between the teacher and the class, so they have practice in listening comprehension and speaking.

The teacher may use a definition.

Teacher: The new word is *blind*. A blind person is one who cannot see. Can a blind person see?

P u p i l: No, he can't.

Teacher: What can't a blind person do — see or hear?

P u p i l: He can't see. Teacher: He can't see because he is **blind**. Why can't he see?

P u p i l: Because he is blind.

Thus, through a definition pupils get acquainted with the word *blind* and have an opportunity to observe its usage: *a blind person, be blind*. The mother tongue has not been used.

There are three problems the teacher is to deal with in vocabulary retention:

- (1) the number of exercises to be used;
- (2) the type of exercises to be used;
- (3) the sequence or the order of complexity in which the selected exercises should be done.

In solving these problems the teacher should take into consideration:

— The aim of teaching a word. Do pupils need it for speaking or only for reading? If it is a word designed for speaking then it should go through most of the exercises mentioned above. If it is a word designed for reading only then it is not necessary to use exercises for developing pupils' skills in using the words in oral language.

— The nature of the word. There are English words which are difficult for Russian-speaking students. To master these words pupils should do a great number of exercises which require the use of the words in speaking.

At both stages of teaching vocabulary the teacher should constantly use all kinds of vocabulary testing to see how his pupils assimilate the form, the meaning, and the usage of the words. For testing the retention of the written form dictations may be suggested. For testing the meaning special tests may be recommended such as writing synonyms, antonyms, derivatives, identification, and some others. For testing the usage of the words the teacher may administer such tests as composing sentences using the words given, composing a story on a picture or a set of pictures, and some others. The teacher should bear in mind that most of the exercises offered for the stages of presentation and retention may be fruitfully utilized for vocabulary testing.

The first impact of any language comes from the spoken word. The basis of all languages is sound. Words are merely combinations of sounds. It is in these

sound sequences that the ideas are contained. Listening is the first experience; the attempt to understand accompanies it. The acquisition of good pronunciation depends to a great extent on the learner's ability of listening with care and discrimination. One of the tasks of language teaching consists in devising ways to help the learner the unfamiliar sounds. The hearing of a given word calls forth the acoustic image of that word from which a meaning is obtained. Therefore teaching pronunciation is of great importance in the developing of pupils' hearing and speaking habits and skills.

Teaching pronunciation is of no less importance in the developing of reading and writing habits and skills, since writing (or what is written) is a graphic representation of sound sequences. In reading the visual images become acoustic images. These are combined with kinesthetic images, resulting in inner speech. Wrong pronunciation often leads to misunderstanding. For example, when a speaker or a reader replaces one phoneme with another he unintentionally uses quite a different word, in this way altering the sense of what he wanted to say. For example, *white* instead of *wide*; *it* instead of *eat*; *pot* instead of *port*, etc.

Every teacher must understand how important the teaching of correct pronunciation is.

Long sounds are fully long only when final — *far, sea, saw, two, fur*; when a voiced consonant follows and the syllable is final in a sentence — *feed, spoon, bird, farm, pause*, and when they are said by themselves. In other cases the traditionally long vowels are pronounced short. D. Jones says that the length of vowels is determined in most cases by the phonetic context, and in few cases differences of length without accompanying differences of quality distinguish one word from another. Hence in teaching English vowels the quality of sounds should be emphasized and not their duration.

There are double vowels and diphthongs in English. Some of these diphthongs are strange to Uzbek speaking pupils because they do not appear in their native language. Pupils are tempted to substitute for them English monophthongs or sounds from their own language. English consonants also present some trouble to

Uzbek pupils, first because there are sounds which are quite strange to pupils, then because their pronunciation changes depending on the position in the words. In final position voiceless consonants have strong articulation (*white*), voiced consonants — weak articulation (*wide*). Therefore in teaching pupils how to pronounce consonants in final position the teacher should emphasize the strength of articulation and tensivity of voiceless consonants and weakness of voiced consonants. For example, in *Did you...?* the second d differs from the first [d] in the weakness of articulation. The sound is hardly pronounced and heard. Consonants may vary in length. In this connection D. Jones writes that when final they may be observed to be longer after short vowels than they are after long vowels.

The pronunciation of words is not only a matter of sounds, but also of stress or accent. Some words have the heavier stress on the first part of the word: *sorry, evening, morning, answer*, and other words have the heavier stress on the second part: *begin, mistake, about, reduce, result, occur, effect*. Stress is very important to the assimilation of English pronunciation. Foreigners often find it difficult to understand an Englishman's speech and ask him to speak more slowly, because in quick speech the accented syllables are so strong that they almost drown the others. The pronunciation of sentence patterns includes also variations of musical tones: rise and fall. English tone patterns differ from those of Uzbek, that is why pupils find it difficult to use adequate tone patterns in conversation or while reading aloud. Sometimes Uzbek people speaking English use wrong intonation because of the interference of the mother tongue. That often leads to misunderstanding and impoliteness. For example, ^l*Wili you 'wait for me ^xhere?* (Подождите меня здесь.) is not only a wrong tone-pattern, but is impolite in its form.

In teaching English pronunciation the teacher should bear in mind that the difficulties he will meet with — and they occur throughout the course — are sounds, stress, and musical tones strange to Uzbek speaking pupils. He should know what they are and how to teach pupils to overcome these difficulties.

Pupils should study English literary pronunciation which constitutes received pronunciation. This is the language of radio, TV, theatres, universities and schools.

In our schools we teach pupils literary pronunciation which is characterized by: (a) clear stress in all the rhythmic groups, (b) clear pronunciation of the sounds, for example, *give me* and not *give* admitted by colloquial English; (c) typical abbreviations in auxiliary words: *it's*, *won't*, *doesn't*, *can't*, *shouldn't*, etc.

Proceeding from the aims and objectives the foreign language syllabus sets out, pupils must assimilate:

1. The sounds of the English language, its vowels and consonants. They should be able to articulate these sounds both separately and in different phonetic contexts.
2. Some peculiarities of the English language in comparison with those of the Russian language, such as: English vowels differ in quality and in length, whereas in the Russian language the length of vowels is of no importance; there are no palatal consonants, and if some consonants may be pronounced slightly palatalized, this does not change the meaning of the word. For instance, we may pronounce the word *like* with dark [ɫ] and light, slightly palatalized, the meaning of the word remains the same. In the Uzbek language there are palatalized and non palatalized consonants and palatalization changes the meaning of the word.
3. Stress in a word and in a sentence, and melody (fall and rise). Pupils must be able to divide a sentence into groups and intone it properly.

I don't know what his native language is. Do you speak English?

Only when pronunciation is correct, when all main phonic rules are strictly followed, can one understand what one hears and clearly express one's thoughts in English. The teacher, therefore, faces the following problems in teaching pupils English pronunciation:

- (1) the problem of discrimination, hearing the differences between phonemes which are not distinguished or used in the Uzbek language and between falling, rising, and level tones;
- (2) the problem of articulation, learning to make the motor movements adequate to proper production of English sounds;
- (3) the problem of intonation, learning to make right stresses, pauses and use appropriate patterns;

(4) the problem of integration, learning to assemble the phonemes of a connected discourse (talk) with the proper allophonic variations (members of a phoneme).

(5) the problem of automaticity, making correct production so habitual that it does not need to be attended to in the process of speaking.

Consequently, discrimination, articulation, intonation, integration, automaticity are the items that should constitute the content of the teaching of pronunciation, pupils should be taught to discriminate or to distinguish English sounds from Uzbek sounds, long sounds from short ones; falling tone from rising tone; to articulate English sounds correctly, to use appropriate tone patterns; to integrate or to combine sounds into a whole and, finally, they should be taught to use all these while hearing and speaking the English language. Of course absolute correctness is impossible. We cannot expect more than approximate correctness, the correctness that ensures communication between people speaking the same language.

In teaching pronunciation there are at least two methodological problems the teacher faces: (1) to determine the cases where conscious manipulation of the speech organs is required, and the cases where simple imitation can or must be used; (2) to decide on types of exercises and the techniques of using them.

Teaching English pronunciation in schools should be based on methodological principles described. This means to instruct pupils in a way that would lead them to conscious assimilation of the phonic aspect of a foreign language. The teacher instructs his pupils to pronounce sounds, words, word combinations, phrases and sentences in the English language. Pupils must become conscious of the differences between English sounds and those of the native language. This is possible provided the foreign sound is contrasted with the native phoneme which is substituted for it.

Each sound is also contrasted with the foreign phonemes which come close to it and with which it is often confused. The contrast is brought out through such minimal pairs as: *it* — *eat*; *spot* — *sport*; *wide* — *white*, *cut* — *cart*, *full* — *foot*, *boat* — *bought*. The experience of the sound contrast is reinforced audio-visually:

1. By showing the objects which the contrasting words represent. For example, *ship*—*sheep*. The teacher makes quick simple drawings of a ship and a sheep on the blackboard or shows pictures of these objects.
2. By showing actions. For example, *He is riding*. — *He is writing*. Situational pictures may be helpful if the teacher cannot make a sketch on the blackboard.

A person learning a foreign language unconsciously continues to use his muscles in the old ways and substitutes the phonemes and the intonation of his native tongue. In learning pronunciation great use should also be made of imitation. Pupils learn to pronounce a new language by imitating the pronunciation of the teacher. Since young people's ability to imitate is rather good it should be used in teaching pronunciation as well. Indeed, there are sounds in the English language which are difficult to explain, for example, vowels. The teacher is often at a loss how to show his pupils the pronunciation of this or that vowel, because he cannot show them the position of the organs of speech while producing the sound.

The description of a vowel requires the use of such words as the back (the front) of the tongue, the soft (hard) palate and others which, in their turn, present a lot of trouble to pupils to understand. It is easier for them to pronounce a sound, a word, or a sentence in imitation of the teacher than to assimilate "what is what" in the mouth and apply the "knowledge" to producing sounds or sound sequences.

As to intonation it should be taught mainly through imitation, though some explanations and gestures in particular are helpful. For example, the teacher can show the rise of the voice by moving his hand up and the fall by moving it down. He can also use the following symbols: ' for stress, I for pause, ∩ for falling tone, ^ for rising tone, and teach pupils how to use them while listening to a text and reading it. Consequently, teaching pronunciation in school must be carried out through conscious approach to the problem and imitation of the teacher and speakers when tape-recordings and records are used. Neither the first nor the second should be underestimated.

Since imitation can and must take place in foreign language teaching, the teacher's pronunciation should set the standard for the class, and the use of native

speakers whose voices are recorded on records or tapes is quite indispensable. Teaching a foreign language in schools begins with teaching pupils to hear and to speak it, that is, with the oral introductory course or the oral approach. Since the aural-oral and the oral approach should be used, the unit of teaching is the sentence. We speak with sentences. Therefore pupils hear a long chain of sounds or a sound sequence from the very beginning. The teacher's task is to determine which sounds the pupils will find hard to pronounce, which sounds they can assimilate through imitation, and which sounds require explanations of the position of the organs of speech while producing them.

The following procedure in teaching pronunciation should be observed: Pupils hear a sentence, then they hear a word or words in which a new sound or new sounds occur and, finally, they hear a sound and the teacher's explanation of how to produce it. Pupils are invited to find the correct position of the tip of the tongue for pronouncing [n]. After they have found the position of the tongue for [n] they pronounce it as a single unit or as an isolated element. Then they pronounce the sound in the word *name* and in the sentence.

Pupils pronounce first in unison, then individually, then in unison again until the teacher sees that they can pronounce the sound, the word with the sound, and the whole sentence correctly. When asking individuals to pronounce a sound, a word, and a sentence the teacher first tells bright, then average, and finally slow pupils to pronounce what is required for the latter to have an opportunity to listen to the sound, the word, and the sentence pronounced again and again. The secret of success is neither in theory (explanation) nor in practice alone, but in practice informed by theory. Exercises used for developing pronunciation skills may be of two groups: recognition exercises and reproduction exercises.

Recognition exercises are designed for developing pupils' ability to discriminate sounds and sound sequences. Indeed the assimilation all correct English pronunciation by Uzbek speaking pupil. In auding the reference is solely to language perception. The ability to aud is developed if the teacher uses the aural-oral method and the oral approach method in teaching the language. In our schools we

use both the aural-oral method when the oral introductory course is conducted and pupils are taught only hearing and speaking, and the oral approach and oral presentation mainly in the eight-year school when pupils get acquainted with linguistic material first by ear. Pupils should have ample practice in listening to be able to acquire the phonic aspect of the language. It can be done:

(a) by listening to the teacher pronouncing a sound, a sound combination and sensible sound sequences, words, phrases, and sentences with comprehension of what they hear (visual perception of the teacher when he produces English sounds and sound sequences facilitates auding);

(b) by listening to the speaker from a tape-recording or a record without seeing the speaker. This exercise is more difficult for pupils as their auding is not reinforced by visual perception.

The following techniques may be recommended to check pupils' ability to discriminate sounds, stress and melody. The teacher pronounces a number of English words and asks his pupils to recognize the new sound. For example, the new sound is [as]. The teacher pronounces the words: *a desk, a nest, a pen, a pan, a bed, bad*. When a pupil hears the new sound he raises his hand and in this way the teacher sees whether the pupil can recognize the new sound among other sounds already learned or not. If most of the pupils raise their hands, the teacher can offer exercises for the pupils to perform. If pupils are familiar with the meaning of both words the teacher can ask them which one is a verb.

The teacher pronounces the sentence *They left for Kiev yesterday* and asks his pupils to say which words are stressed. If they say *left, Kiev, yesterday* (or the second, the fourth and the fifth) they hear the stressed words.

Reproduction exercises are designed for developing pupils' pronunciation habits, their ability to articulate English sounds correctly and to combine sounds into words, phrases and sentences easily enough to be able to speak English and to read aloud in this language. A few minutes at each lesson must be devoted to drilling the sounds which are most difficult for Uzbek speaking pupils. In studying English pupils usually make mistakes in pronunciation, often repeating the same mistakes

again and again. The teacher should bear this in mind and either began the lesson with pronunciation drill or use pupils' errors as the point of departure for the drill. For example, pupils have made mistakes in inter dental sounds while reading aloud. After the text has been read the teacher asks them to pronounce both individually and in unison the following words: *this, that, with, without, other, another, thing, think, thin, thick, thought*.

Of course the teacher takes those words pupils are familiar with. More often than not the teacher should begin a lesson with pronunciation drill. This does not mean, however, that its place should be strictly fixed. The teacher may turn to pronunciation drill whenever he wants to draw his pupils' attention to the phonic aspect of the material they deal with and in this way teach pupils correct English pronunciation.

The material used for pronunciation drill should be connected with the lesson pupils study. These may be sounds, words, word combinations, phrases, sentences, rhymes, poems, and dialogues. The material for a particular lesson depends on the stage of teaching, pupils' progress in the language, their age, the objectives of the lesson, and other factors. For example, pupils mispronounce words with [ou]. The teacher selects words with the sound and includes them in pronunciation drill: *no, go, home, atone, don't. Don't go home alone*.

The teacher includes all the words ending in [in] his pupils need at the lesson and works at them most thoroughly while conducting pronunciation drill.

The same should be done with the regular verbs in the Past Indefinite when pupils study this tense. The words are arranged into three groups in accordance with the sound each one ends in:

| [t] | [d] | [id] |
|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| wash — washed | open — opened | want — wanted |
| thank — thanked | close — closed | skate — skated |
| work — worked | live — lived | recite — recited |
| stop — stopped | 'smile — smiled | rest — rested |

Pupils need the irregular verbs for speaking and reading aloud. The teacher arranges the verbs according to the sound which all of them have in the Past Indefinite.

buy — bought, think — thought, bring — brought, teach — taught

sit — sat, sing — sang, begin — began, run — ran

International words, proper names, geographical names, etc., can also be used for pronunciation drill. Though, these words are not difficult for pupils' comprehension, they require special attention on the part of the learners since phonetically they differ widely from the corresponding words of the mother tongue of the pupils, for example, *culture, cosmic, cosmos, style, type, machine, pint, nerve*; *William Shakespeare, George Gordon Byron, Edinburgh, the Atlantic Ocean, the English Channel, Australia, Asia*.

The material pupils get for reproduction can be presented in two possible ways:

- (1) through auditory perception only;
- (2) through auditory perception reinforced by visual perception of a sound, a word, a phrase, a sentence, and a text.

It is impossible to underestimate the role that can be played by sound film loops, records, tape playback devices in teaching pronunciation. Each of these aids:

- (1) allows speech to be reproduced with correct pronunciation and intonation in particular;
- (2) permits the same text to be repeated several times for pupils to have an opportunity to listen to it again and again;
- (3) makes it possible for the teacher to develop his pupils' abilities to understand English spoken at various speeds;
- (4) helps the teacher in developing his pupils' ability to speak;
- (5) gives pupils an opportunity to listen to texts read by native speakers.

When working with these aids in the classroom the teacher must be well prepared for the work. He must listen to the material himself several times in order to know the text from all points of view and, first of all, from the point of view of its

phonic aspect. He studies the text and marks the difficulties for pupils' listening comprehension, namely, sounds, sound combinations, stress, or melody. Then he writes out the difficult points from the text to draw pupils' attention to them and, in this way, to help pupils to overcome the difficulties they may have in auditing the text.

Pronunciation is a skill that should be developed and perfected throughout the whole course of learning the language, that is why we insist that the teacher should use pronunciation drill during the lesson, irrespective of the stage of instruction.

No matter how pronunciation is taught pupils will make mistakes in pronunciation of sounds, stress, and tones in the target language. The problem arises as to who should correct the mistakes and how they should be corrected. In the junior stage it is the teacher who corrects pupils' mistakes in pronunciation because pupils' ability to hear is not developed yet besides they need good examples to follow which can be given either by the teacher or by the speaker. Moreover, the teacher can explain the mistake to the pupil and show him what should be done to avoid it. The ability to hear the difference in pronunciation of people should be developed from the very first steps. At the intermediate and senior stage pronunciation errors must be corrected both by the teacher and by the pupils themselves, though it becomes possible provided that sound producing aids are widely used since listening to tape-recordings and records develops the pupil's ability to hear erroneous pronunciation when comparing the pattern pronunciation of the speaker with that of his own.

As to how mistakes must be corrected the following may be suggested:

(1) the teacher explains to the pupil his mistake and asks him to pronounce the sound, the word, or the sentence again, paying attention to the proper position of the organs of speech for producing the sound, for example, [ɔ] (he should bite the tongue between the teeth and blow air out at the same time), or the word 'development' with the stress on the second syllable, or the sentence with the rising tone;

- (2) the teacher corrects the mistake by pronouncing the sound, the word, the phrase, or the sentence in which the mistake has been made and the pupil imitates the teacher's pronunciation;
- (3) the teacher asks the pupil to listen to the tape-recording or the record again and pronounce the word or the sentence in the way the speaker does it; thus through comparison the pupil should find the mistake and correct it.

There are, of course, some other techniques of correcting pupils' phonetic mistakes. Those mentioned above, however, can ensure the development of self-control in the pupil which is indispensable to language learning.

Constant attention to pupils' pronunciation on the part of the teacher, whatever the stage of teaching is, results, as a rule, in good pronunciation habits and skills of pupils.

Young teachers are inclined to expect immediate results and soon they stop teaching pupils correct pronunciation as a hopeless task. No doubt they forget their own imperfections and do not know that pronunciation can be taught only by a long, patient, and persistent effort throughout the whole course of study.

PART II. THE CONTENT OF TEACHING LISTENING IN ENGLISH

II.1. The Role and Place of Listening in Teaching English

Auditing 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 auditing 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 auditing: (1) linguistic material for auditing; (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 auditing. Pupils need practice in listening and comprehension in the target language to be able to overcome three kinds of difficulties: phonetic, lexical, and grammatical.

Phonetic difficulties appear because the phonic system of English and Russian differ greatly. The hearer often interprets the sounds of a foreign language as if they were

of his own language which usually results in misunderstanding. The following opposites present much trouble to beginners in learning English

They can hardly differentiate the following words by ear: *worked* — *walked*; *first* — *fast* — *forced*; *lion* — *line*; *tired* — *tide*; *bought* — *boat* — *board*.

The difference in intonation often prevents pupils from comprehending a communication. For example, *Good morning* (when meeting); *Good morning* (at parting).

The teacher, therefore, should develop his pupils' ear for English sounds and intonation.

Lexical difficulties are closely connected with the phonetic ones. Pupils often misunderstand words because they hear them wrong. For example: *The horse is slipping. The horse is sleeping. They worked till night. They walked till night.*

The opposites are often misunderstood, for the learners often take one word for another. For example: *east* — *west*, *take* — *put*; *ask* — *answer*. The most difficult words for auding are the verbs with postpositions, such as: *put on*, *put off*, *put down*, *take off*, *see off*, *go in for*, etc.

Grammatical difficulties are mostly connected with the analytic structure of the English language, and with the extensive use of infinitive and participle constructions. Besides, English is rich in grammatical homonyms, for example: *to work* — *work*; *to answer* — *answer*; *-ed* as the suffix of the Past Indefinite and the Past Participle.

This is difficult for pupils when they aud.

2. The content of the material also influences comprehension. The following factors should be taken into consideration when selecting the material for auding:

The topic of communication: whether it is within the ability of the pupils to understand, and what difficulties pupils will come across (proper names, geographical names, terminology, etc).

The type of communication: whether it is a description or a narration. Description as a type of communication is less emotional and interesting, that is why it is difficult

for the teacher to arouse pupils' interest in auding such a text. Narration is more interesting for auding. Consequently, this type of communication should be used for listening comprehension.

The context and pupils' readiness (intellectual and situa-tional) to understand it.

The way the narrative progresses: whether the passage is taken from the beginning of a story, the nucleus of the story, the progress of the action or, finally, the end of the story. The title of the story may be helpful in comprehending the main idea of the text. The simpler th[^] narrative progresses, the better it is for developing pupils' skills in auding.

The form of communication: whether the text is a dialogue or a monologue. Monologic speech is easier for the learners, therefore, it is preferable for developing pupils' ability to aud.

3. Conditions of presenting the material are of great importance for teaching auding, namely:

The speed of the speech the pupil is auding. The hearer cannot change the speed of the speaker.

There are different points of view on the problem of the speed of speech in teaching auding a foreign language.¹ The most convincing is the approach suggested by N. V. Elukhina. She believes that in teaching auding the tempo should be slower than the normal speed of authentic speech. However this slowness is not gained at the expense of the time required for producing words (that might result in violating the intonation pattern of an utterance), but of the time required for pauses which are so necessary for a pupil to grasp the information of each portion between the pauses. Gradually the teacher shortens the pauses and the tempo of speech becomes normal or approximately normal, which is about 150 words per minute. According to the investigation carried out by L. Tzesarsky the average speed for teaching auding should be 120 words per minute; the slow speed — 90 words per minute.

The number of times of presenting the material for auding: whether the pupils should listen to the text once, twice, three times or more. Pupils should be taught to listen to the text once and this must become a habit. However they sometimes can grasp only

50% of the information and even less, so a second presentation may be helpful. In case the pupils cannot grasp most of the information,, practice proves that manifold repetitions when hearing do not help much. It is necessary to help pupils in comprehension by using a "feed back" established through a dialogue between the teacher and the class ¹ which takes as much time as it- is required for the repetitive presentation of the material.

The presence or the absence of the speaker. The most favourable condition is when pupils can see the speaker as is the case when the teacher speaks to them in a foreign language. The most unfavourable condition for auding is listening and comprehending a dialogue, when pupils cannot see the speakers and do not take part in the conversation.

Visual "props" which may be of two kinds, objects and motions. Pupils find it difficult to aud without visual props. The eye should help the ear to grasp a text when dealing with beginners.

The voice of the speaker also influences pupils' comprehension. Pupils who get used to the teacher's voice can easily understand him, but they cannot understand other people speaking the same language.

Consequently, in teaching listening comprehension the' teacher should bear in mind all the difficulties pupils encounter when auding in a foreign language.

Speaking a foreign language is the most difficult part in language learning because pupils need ample practice in speaking to be able to say a few words of their own in connection with a situation. This work is time-consuming and pupils rarely feel any real necessity to make themselves understood during the whole period of learning a new language in school.

The stimuli the teacher can use are often feeble and artificial. The pupil repeats the sentence he hears, he completes sentences that are in the book, he constructs sentences on the pattern of a given one. These mechanical drill exercises are, of course, necessary; however, when they go on year after year without any other real language practice they are deadening. There must be occasions when the pupils feel the necessity to inform someone of something, to explain something, and to prove

something to someone. This is a psychological factor which must be taken into account when teaching pupils to speak a foreign language.

Another factor of no less importance is a psycho-linguistic one; the pupil needs words, phrases, sentence patterns, and grammatical forms and structures stored up in his memory ready to be used for expressing any thought he wants to. In teaching speaking, therefore, the teacher should stimulate his pupils' speech by supplying them with the subject and by teaching them the words and grammar they need to speak about the suggested topic or situation. The teacher should lead his pupils to unprepared speaking through prepared speaking.

SPEECH AND ORAL EXERCISES

We must distinguish speech and oral exercises for they are often mixed up by the teacher.

Speech is a process of communication by means of language. For example, (1) a pupil tells the class a story about something which once happened to him; (2) the teacher asks questions on the story read by the pupils at home and starts a discussion; (3) pupils speak on the pictures suggested by the teacher, each tries to say what others have not mentioned; (4) pupils listen to the story and get some new information from the text; (5) they see a sound film and learn about something new from it, etc.

Oral exercises are used for the pupils to assimilate phonetics, grammar, and vocabulary. They are mostly drill exercises and the teacher turns to them whenever he works at enriching pupils' knowledge in vocabulary and grammar, at improving pupils' pronunciation, etc. For example, reciting a rhyme or a poem is considered to be an excellent oral exercise for drilling pronunciation and for developing speech habits. Making up sentences following the model is an excellent oral exercise for fixing a sentence pattern and words which fit the pattern in the pupils' mind. Making statements with the words or phrases the teacher gives is another valuable oral exercise which allows the teacher to retain them in his pupils' memory through manifold repetitions.

Oral exercises are quite indispensable to developing speech..1 However, they only prepare pupils for speaking and cannot be considered to be "speech" as some teachers are apt to think and who are often satisfied with oral exercises which pupils perform following the model; they seldom use stimuli for developing pupils' auding and speaking in the target language.

In order to get a better understanding of what speech is we are to consider the psychological and linguistic characteristics of speech.

PSYCHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SPEECH

The development of speaking follows the same pattern both in the mother tongue and in a foreign language from reception to reproduction as psychologists say, and from hearing to speaking if we express it in terms of methodology.

Since "language is not a substance, it is a process." (N. Brooks) and "language doesn't exist. It happens." (P. Stre-vens), we should know under what conditions "it happens". What are the psychological characteristics of oral language? They are as follows:

1. Speech must be motivated, i. e., the speaker expresses a desire to inform the hearer of-something interesting, important, or to get information from him. Suppose one of the pupils is talking to a friend of hers. Why is she talking? Because she wants to either tell her friend about something interesting, or get information from her about something important. This is the case -of inner motivation. But very often oral speech is motivated outwardly. For instance, the pupil's answers at an examination.

Rule for the teacher: In teaching a foreign language it is necessary to think over the motives which make pupils speak. They should have a necessity to speal and not only a desire to receive a good mark. Ensun conditions in which a pupil will have a desire to say something in the foreign language, to express his thoughts, his feelings, and not to reproduce someone else's as is often the case when he learns the text by heart. Remember that oral speech in the classroom should be always stimulated. Try to use those stimuli which can arouse a pupil's wish to respond in his own way.

2. Speech is always addressed to an interlocuter.

Rule for the teacher: Organize the teaching process in a way which allows your pupils to speak to someone, to their classmates in particular, i. e., when speaking a pupil should address the class, and not the teacher or the ceiling as is often the case. When he retells a text which is no longer new to the class, nobody listens to him as the classmates are already familiar with it. This point, as one can see, is closely connected with the previous one. The speaker will hold his audience when he says something new, something individual (personal). Try to supply pupils with assignments which require individual approach on their part.

3. Speech is always emotionally coloured for a speaker expresses his thoughts, his feelings; his attitude to what he says.

Rule for the teacher: Teach pupils how to use international means to express their attitude, their feelings about what they say. That can be done by giving such tasks as: *reason why you like the story; prove something; give your opinion on the episode, or on the problem concerned, etc.*

4. Speech is always situational for it takes place in a certain situation.

Rule for the teacher: While teaching speaking real and close-to-real situations should be created to stimulate pupils' speech. Think of the situations you can use in class to make pupils' speech situational. Remember the better you know the class the easier it is for you to create situations for pupils to speak about.

These are the four psychological factors which are to be taken into account when teaching speech.

Oral language as compared to written language is more flexible. It is relatively free and is characterized by some peculiarities in vocabulary and grammar. Taking into consideration, however, the conditions in which the foreign language is taught in schools, we cannot teach pupils colloquial English. We teach them standard English as spoken on the radio, TV, etc. Oral language taught in schools is close to written language standards and especially its monologic form. "It must be emphasized that a pupil should use short sentences in monologue, sentence patterns which are characteristic of oral language. We need not teach pupils to use long sentences while describing a picture. For example: *The boy has a long blue pencil in*

his left hand. The child may use four sentences instead of one: *The boy has a pencil. It's in his left hand. The pencil is long. It is blue.*

Pupils should be acquainted with some peculiarities of the spoken language, otherwise they will not understand it when hearing and their own speech will be artificial. This mainly concerns dialogues. Linguistic peculiarities of dialogue are as follows:

1. The use of incomplete sentences (ellipses) in responses:

— How many books have you?

— One.

— Do you go to school on Sunday?

— No, I don't.

— Who has done it?

— Nick has.

It does not mean, of course, we should not teach pupils complete forms of response. But their use should be justified.

— Have you seen the film?

— Yes, I have seen this film, and I am sorry I've wasted two hours.

— Did you like the book?

— Yes, I liked it very much.

2. The use of contracted forms: *doesn't, won't, can't, isn't*, etc.

3. The use of some abbreviations: *lab* (laboratory), *mike* (microphone), *maths* (mathematics), *p. m.* (post meridiem), and others.

4. The use of conversational tags. These are the words a speaker uses when he wishes to speak without saying anything. Here is both a definition of conversational tags and an example of their usage in conversation (they are in italics). "*Well*, they are those things, *you know*, which don't actually mean very much, *of course*, yet they are *in fact* necessary in English conversation as behaviour."¹

Besides, to carry on a conversation pupils need words, phrases to start a conversation, to join it, to confirm, to comment, etc. For example, *well, look here, I say ..., I'd like*

to tell you (for starting a talk); *you see, you mean, do you mean to say that ...*, and *what about* (for joining a conversation); *I believe so, I hope, yes, right, quite right, to be sure* (for confirming what one. says); *I think, as far as I know, as far as I can see, the fact is, to tell the truth, I mean to say* (for commenting), etc.

There is a great variety of dialogue structures. Here are the principal four:

;

1. Question — response.

— Hello. What's your name?

— Ann. What's yours?

— My name is William.

2. Question — question.

— Will you help me, sonny?

— What shall I do, mother?

— Will you polish the floor today?

— Is it my turn?

— Yes, it is. Your brother did it last time.

— Oh, all right, then.

3. Statement — statement.

— I'd like to know when he is going to come and see us.

— That's difficult to say. He is always promising but never comes.

— It's because he is very busy.

— That's right. He works hard.

4. Statement — question.

— I'm going to the theatre tonight.

— Where did you get tickets?

— My friend got them somewhere.

— How did he do it?

— I don't know.

In school teaching only one structure of dialogue is usually used, i.e., question — response. More than that, pupils' dialogues are artificial and they lack, as a rule, all the peculiarities mentioned above.

In teaching dialogue in schools it is necessary to take into account these peculiarities and give pupils pattern dialogues to show what real dialogues look like.

HOW TO TEACH ORAL LANGUAGE

In teaching oral language the teacher has to cope with two tasks. They are: to teach his pupils to understand the foreign language spoken and to teach them to speak the language.

Techniques the Teacher Uses to Develop Hearing

To fulfil the task the teacher must train his pupils in listening comprehension beginning with the first lesson and throughout the whole period of instruction. These are the techniques the teacher uses for the purpose:

1. The teacher uses the foreign language:

- (a) when giving the class instructions;
- (b) when presenting new language material (words, sentence patterns);
- (c) when checking pupils' comprehension;
- (d) when consolidating the material presented;
- (e) when checking pupils' assimilation of the language material covered.

These are the cases when the target language is used as a means of communication and a means of teaching. There

is a great deal of auditing in all the points of the lesson. This raises the problem of the teacher's speech during the lesson. It should be correct, sufficiently loud, clear, and expressive. But many of the teachers are too talkative. We can hear them speaking most of the time. Moreover, some teachers speak a great deal in Russian.

Conducting a lesson in a foreign language gives the teacher an opportunity to develop pupils' abilities in hearing; to train them in listening to him attentively during the lesson; to demonstrate the language as a means of communication; to provide favourable conditions for the assimilation of the language; to perfect his

own speaking skills; to keep his own speech under control, i. e., to keep himself from undue talkativeness.

2. The teacher uses drill and speech exercises for developing listening comprehension.

We can group drill exercises into exercises designed for overcoming linguistic difficulties, and exercises which can eliminate psychological difficulties.

The first group of drill exercises includes:

(a) phonetic exercises which will help the teacher to develop his pupils' ear for English sounds:

— Listen to the following words and raise your hands when you hear the words with [ae]. (The teacher says: *desk, pen, ten, bag*, etc.)

— Listen to the following pairs of words and say in what sound they differ: *pen — pin; bed — bad; eyes — ice; white — wide*.

(b) lexical exercises which will help the teacher to develop pupils' skills in recognizing words:

— Listen to the words and recognize the word *boy* among other words: *a baby, a toy, a boat, a boy, a girl*.

— Listen to the following words and raise your hands when you hear the words referring to plants: *street, tree, grass, class, flower, tower*.

— Listen to the following sentences and say whether the word *country* has the same meaning in both sentences:

I usually spent my holidays in the country. The Soviet Union is a large country. (c) grammar exercises which help the teacher to develop pupils' skills in recognizing grammar forms and structures:

— Listen to the following words and raise your hands, when you hear words in plural: *desk, tables, book, box, pens, books, boxes*, etc.

— Listen to the following sentences and say in which one the word *help* is used as a noun.

He can help you. I need his help.

The second group of drill exercises includes:

(a) exercises which help the teacher to develop his pupils' auditory memory:

— Listen to the following words and try to memorize them. (The teacher pronounces a number of words pointing to the object each denotes: *a carrot, a potato, a cucumber, a tomato*. Afterwards pupils are told to point to the object the teacher names.)

— Listen to the phrases and repeat them. The teacher says: *on the table, in the box, near the blackboard*.

— Listen to the sentences and repeat them. (The teacher says: *I like tea. Ann doesn't like tea. She likes milk.*)

— Listen to the sentences and repeat them in the same sequence. (The teacher says: *In the evening we have-tea. I like it very much*. The teacher may increase the.; number of sentences for pupils to memorize.)

(b) exercises which are designed for developing pupils' attention:

— Listen to the following text: *I have a sister. Her-name is Ann. Mike has no sister. He has a brother*.

Now say what is the name of Mike's sister.

— Listen to the text. (The text follows.) Now say: which sentence was omitted (added) when you listened to it a second time.

(c) exercises which develop pupils' visual imagination:

— Listen to the following definition and give it a name: *We write with it on the blackboard. We take it when it rains*.

— Listen and say which season it is: *It is cold. It often snows. Children can skate and ski*.

(d) exercises which help the teacher to develop his pupils' logical thinking:

— Listen to the sentences and say whether they are logically arranged: *Her name is Mary. This is a girl*.

Drill exercises are quite indispensable to developing pupils' skills in listening comprehension.

Speech exercises are designed for developing pupils' skills in listening. Several groups of exercises may be suggested:

1. Exercises which teach pupils to understand texts different in content, form, and type. Pupils are asked to listen to a description or a narration; the text may be a dialogue, it may deal with the life of people whose language the pupils study, or with the pupils' environment.

— Listen to the story. Your task is to define its main idea. You should choose one among those suggested by the teacher.

— Listen to the story. Your task is to grasp as much information as you can. While listening try to put down key words and sentences; they will help you to convey the context- of the story.

2. Exercises which develop pupils' skills to understand a text under different conditions. Sound producing aids should be extensively used for developing pupils' listening, as pupils are supposed to understand not only their teacher's speech, but other people speaking the target language, including native speakers. Besides, sound producing aids allow the teacher to supply pupils with recorded speech different in speed and voice.

Before pupils are invited to listen to the text the teacher should ensure that all the words and grammar are familiar to the pupils otherwise language difficulties will prevent them from understanding the story. Thus, if there are some unfamiliar words, the teacher introduces them beforehand; he either puts them down on the blackboard with the mother tongue equivalents in the sequence they appear in the text, or he asks pupils to pronounce the words written on the blackboard if he plans a talk on the text afterwards, and pupils are to use these words in their speech.

Then the teacher should direct his pupils' attention to what they are going to listen to. This is of great importance for experiments prove that if your aim is that your pupils should keep on talking on the text they have heard it stimulates their thinking and facilitates their comprehension of the text.

The following tasks may be suggested to draw pupils attention to what they are auding:

- Listen and try to grasp the main idea of the story. You will be asked questions later on.
- Listen and try to grasp the details. You will have to name them.
- Listen and make a plan of the story.
- Listen to the story and try to finish it (think of the end of the story).
- Listen to the story. You will ask questions on it afterwards.
- Listen to the text. You will retell it afterwards.
- Listen to the story. We shall have a discussion on it. Etc.

When pupils are ready to listen, the text can be read to them. If it is the teacher who reads or tells the story, he can help pupils to comprehend the text with gestures. If the text is recorded, a picture or pictures can facilitate comprehension. The pupils listen to the text once as is usually the case in real communication. Then the teacher checks their comprehension. If they have not understood it, they are told to listen to the text again. The teacher can use a dialogue to help pupils to understand the text after they have listened to the story for the first time, i. e., he may ask questions, make statements on the text for pupils to agree or reject them.

Checking pupils' comprehension may be done in many ways depending on the stage of instruction, pupils' progress in the language, and other factors. In any case, however, it is necessary to proceed in order of complexity from mere recognition to reproduction. The procedure may be:

general questions) „. , , , . , . .. , special questions The teacher checks his pupils com-wrong statements j pretension only.

pupils* questions on the text

making a plan

telling the text according to the plan (it may be done in a chain-like way)

reciting the text

giving the gist of the text

written reproduction of the text

discussing the text

The teacher checks pupils' comprehension¹ and develops their speaking skills on the basis of the text heard.

Skills in hearing must be built up gradually. The teacher begins with a story containing 3—4 sentences. He uses pictures, gestures to help pupils to understand it. Gradually he can take longer sections and faster speeds with less visual help and in more difficult language. The teacher must bear in mind that careful grading in all these ways is of the utmost importance. Texts, stories to be read or recorded should be interesting and fairly easy.

Techniques the Teacher Uses for Teaching Speaking

There are two forms of speaking: monologue and dialogue. Since each form has its peculiarities we should speak of teaching monologue and teaching dialogue separately.

In teaching monologue we can easily distinguish three stages according to the levels which constitute the ability to speak: (1) the statement level; (2) the utterance level; (3) the discourse level.

1. No speech is possible until pupils learn how to make up sentences in the foreign language and how to make statements. To develop pupils' skills in making statements the following procedure may be suggested:

Pupils are given sentence patterns to assimilate in connection with situations.

The sentence pattern is filled with different words. Thus pupils can express various thoughts. For example:

/ can see a ...

P u p i l_a: I can see a blackboard-

P u p i l₂: I can see a picture. P u p i l₃: I can see a map, etc.

/ am fond of ...

P u p i l_x: I am fond of music.

P u p i l₂: I am fond of classical music.

P u p i l_s: I am fond of pop music, etc.

We are proud of ...

P u p i l_i: We are proud of our country. P u p i l₂: We are proud of our sportsmen. P u p i l₈: We are proud of our school, etc.

Pupils are invited to perform various drill exercises **with!** the sentence patterns given:

— substitution: / *have a book (a pen);*

— extention: / *have an interesting book,*

I have an interesting book at home;

— transformation: *He has a book,*

He has no book;

— completion: // / *have time* ∩ *It ...* .

Pattern practice, of course, makes no pretence of being; communication. However, pattern practice for communication is what playing scales and arpeggios is to a musician. Each pattern will have to be repeated many times with a great, variety of changes in its contents until the pattern becomes a habit.

Pupils make statements of their own in connection with the situations suggested by the teacher.

Give it a name.

Teacher: We write with it. Pupil: It is a pencil (pen).

Make statements on the picture. Teacher (silently points to the picture of a cat) P u p i l_x: This is a cat. P u p i l₂: This is a black cat.

Say the opposite.

Teacher: I live in Gorky Street. - Pupil: I do not live in Gorky Street.

Teacher (pointing to the boy): He likes to play hockey. Pupil: I don't like to play hockey.

When pupils are able to make statements in the foreign language within grammar and vocabulary they have assimilated their speech may be more complicated. They

should learn to combine statements of various sentence patterns in a logical sequence.

2. Pupils are taught how to use different sentence patterns in an utterance about an object, a subject offered. First they are to follow a model, then they do it without any help.

Teacher: Say a few words about it. (He points to an object.) Pupil: This is a pencil. The pencil is green. It is on the table. I like the pencil.

Or Teacher points to a boy. Pupil: This is a boy. His name is Sasha. He lives in Gagarin Street.

Get information and sum up what you have learnt from your classmates.

Teacher: She cut her finger. Pupil: Who cut her finger? Class: Ann.

— When did she cut it?

— Yesterday.

— What did she cut it with?

— With a knife.

— Why did she cut her finger?

— Because the knife was sharp.

Pupil: Yesterday Ann cut her finger. She cut it with a knife. The knife was sharp.

This exercise is useful both for developing dialogic and monologic speech.

Therefore the pupil's utterance involves 2—4 sentences which logically follow one another. At this stage pupils learn to express their thoughts, their attitude to what they say using various sentence patterns. Thus they learn how to put several sentences together in one utterance about a subject, an object, etc.

3. After pupils have learned how to say a few sentences in connection with a situation they are prepared for speaking at discourse level. Free speech is possible provided pupils have acquired habits and skills in making statements and in combining them in a logical sequence. At this level pupils are asked to speak on a picture, a set of pictures, a film-strip, a film, comment on a text they have read or heard, make up a story of their own; of course, this being done within the language

material (grammar and vocabulary) pupils have, assimilated. To help pupils to speak the teacher supplies them with "what to speak about". The devices used for the purpose are: visual aids which can stimulate the pupil's speaking through visual perception of the subject to be spoken about,, including a text read; audio aids which can stimulate the; pupil's speaking through auditory perception of a stimulus; audio-visual aids when pupils can see and hear what to speak, about.

The three stages in developing pupils' speaking should, take place throughout the whole course of instruction, i. e., in junior, intermediate, and senior forms. The amount of exercises at each level, however, must be different. In junior forms statement level is of greater importance as a teaching point.'

Rule for the teacher: In teaching monologue instruct pupils how to make statements first, then how to combine various sentences in one utterance and, finally, how to speak on a suggested topic.

We have already spoken about the linguistic characters tics of dialogue. Some more should be said about it; structure.

A dialogue consists of a series of lead-response units. The significant feature of a lead-response unit is that the response part may, and usually does, serve in its own turn as a fresh inducement leading to further verbal exchanges, i. e., lead

——* response ---> inducement----* response.

response unit is a unit of speech between two pauses. It consist of more than one sentence. But the most characters tic feature of a dialogue is that the lead-response units a closely connected and dependent on each other. The lead relatively free, while the response depends on the first ant does not exist without it.

— Where is the book?

— There, on the shelf.

In teaching dialogue we should use pattern dialogues as they, involve all features which characterize this form of speech.

There are three stages in learning a dialogue: (1) receptive; (2) reproductive; (3) constructive (creative).

1. Pupils "receive" the dialogue by ear first. They listen to the dialogue recorded or reproduced by the teacher. The teacher helps pupils in comprehension of the dialogue using a picture or pictures to illustrate its contents. They listen to the dialogue a second time and then read it silently for better understanding, paying attention to the intonation. They may listen to the dialogue and read it again, if necessary.

2. Pupils enact the pattern dialogue. We may distinguish three kinds of reproduction:

Immediate. Pupils reproduce the dialogue in imitation of the speaker or the teacher while listening to it or just after they have heard it. The teacher checks the pupils' pronunciation, and intonation in particular. The pupils are asked to learn the dialogue by heart for homework.

Delayed. After pupils have learned the dialogue at home, they enact the pattern dialogue in persons. Before calling on pupils it is recommended that they should listen to the pattern dialogue recorded again to remind them of how it "sounds".

Modified. Pupils enact the dialogue with some modifications in its contents. They change some elements in it. The more elements (main words and phrases) they change in the pattern the better they assimilate the structure of the dialogue:

- Will you help me, sonny?
- What shall I do, Mother?
- Will you ^vbring me a pail of water?
- Certainly I will.

The use of pictures may be helpful. Besides pupils use , their own experience while selecting the words for substitutions.

The work should not be done mechanically. Pupils should speak on the situation. As a result of this work pupils master the structure of the pattern dialogue (not only the contents), i. e., they can use it as a model for making up dialogues of their own, that is why pattern dialogues should be carefully selected.

The first two stages aim at storing up patterns in pupils' memory for expressing themselves in different situations, of course within the topics and linguistic material the syllabus sets for each form.

3. Pupils make-up dialogues of their own. They are given a picture or a verbal situation to talk about. This is possible provided pupils have a stock of patterns, a certain number of phrases for starting a conversation, joining in, etc. They should use those lead-response units they have learned in connection with the situation suggested for a conversation.

At the third stage the choice of stimuli is of great importance, as very often pupils cannot think what to say, though they know how to say this or that. Therefore audio-visual aids should be extensively utilized.

Rule for the teacher: In teaching dialogue use patterns; make sure that your pupils go through the three stages from receptive through reproductive to creative.

- supply them with the subject to talk about.

In teaching speaking the problem is what form of speech to begin with, and what should be the relationship between monologue and dialogue. This problem may be solved in different ways. Some methodologists give preference to dialogic speech in teaching beginners, and they suggest that pupils learn first how to ask and answer questions which is mostly characteristic of a dialogue, and how to make up a short dialogue following a model. Others prefer monologic speech as a starting point. Pupils are taught how to make statements; how to combine several sentences into one utterance in connection with an object or a situation offered.

These approaches to the problem are reflected in school textbooks now in use. A. D. Starkov and R. R. Dixon in their textbooks prefer to begin with dialogic speech. They start by teaching pupils how to ask various types of questions. For example: The book is on the desk. The book isn't under the desk. Is the book on the desk? Yes, it is. (No, it isn't.) Is the book on the desk or under it? It's on the desk. Where's the book? It's on the desk. (Fifth Form English. Teacher's Book.)

S. K- FoSomkina and E. I. Kaar give preference to developing pupils' monologic speech. For example:

I see a pen.

I see a desk.

Pete sees a desk and a pen.

As to the relationship between monologue and dialogue, it should vary from stage to stage in teaching speaking in schools. In the junior stage (5—6 forms) dialogic speech, the one which allows the teacher to introduce new material and consolidate it in conversation, must prevail. In the intermediate stage (7—8 forms) dialogue and monologue must be on an equal footing.

In the senior stage (9—10 forms) monologic speech must prevail since pupils either take part in discussion and, therefore, express their thoughts in connection with a problem or retell a text read or heard. To sum it up both forms of speech (monologue and dialogue) should be developed side by side with preference for the one which is more important for pupils' progress in learning a foreign language at a certain stage.

Pupils' speech in both forms may be of two kinds: prepared and unprepared. It is considered prepared when the pupil has been given time enough to think over its content and form. He can speak on the subject following the plan made either independently at home or in class under the teacher's supervision. His speech will be more or less correct and sufficiently fluent since plenty of preliminary exercises had been done before.

In schools, however, pupils often have to speak on a topic when they are not yet prepared for it. As a result only bright pupils can cope with the task. In such a case the teacher trying to find a way out gives his pupils a text which covers the topic. Pupils learn and recite it in class. They reproduce the text either in the very form it was given or slightly transform it. Reciting, though useful and necessary in language learning, has but little to do with speech since speaking is a creative activity and is closely connected with thinking, while reciting has to do only with memory. Of course pupils should memorize words, word combinations, phrases, sentence patterns, and texts to "accumulate" the material and still it is only a prerequisite. The

main objective of the learner is to be able to use the linguistic material to express his thoughts. This is ensured by the pupil's ability to arrange and rearrange in his own way the material stored up in his memory. Consequently, while assigning homework it is necessary to distinguish between reciting and speaking so that the pupil should know what he is expected to do while preparing for the lesson — to reproduce the text or to compile a text of his own. "His answer should be evaluated differently depending on the task set. If the pupil is to recite a text, the teacher evaluates the quality of reproduction, i. e., exactness, intonation and fluency. If the pupil is to speak on a subject, the teacher evaluates not only the correctness of his speech but his skills in arranging and rearranging the material learnt, i. e., his ability to make various transformations within the material he uses while speaking. The teacher should encourage each pupil to speak on the subject in his own way and thus develop pupils' initiative and thinking.

The pupil's speech is considered unprepared when, without any previous preparation, he can do the following:

— Speak on a subject suggested by the teacher. For example, winter holidays are over and pupils come back to school. They are invited to tell the teacher and the class how each of them spent his holidays. Pupils in turn tell the class where they were, what they did, whether they had a good time, and so on.

— Speak on the text read. For example, pupils have read two or three chapters of "William".¹ The teacher asks a pupil
-to give its short summary or to tell the class the contents of the chapters as if the other pupils have not read them.,

— Speak on the text heard. For example, pupils listened to the text "Great Britain" (there is a map of Great Britain on the wall). The teacher asks them (in turn) to come up to the map and speak on Great Britain. While speaking pupils can use the information they have just received or appeal to their knowledge about the country.

— Discuss a problem or problems touched upon in the text read or heard. For example, pupils read about education in Great Britain. After the teacher makes

sure that his pupil: understand the text and have a certain idea of the system i education in Great Britain, he arranges a discussion on tl problem. He asks his pupils to compare the system of educa-

tion in Great Britain and in our country. The teacher stimulates pupils' speech either by questions or through wrong statements.

— Have an interview with "a foreigner". For example, pupils are studying the topic "London". The teacher may arrange an interview. One of the pupils is "a Londoner". The classmates ask him various questions and express their opinions on the subjects under discussion.

— Help a "foreigner", for example, to find the way to the main street or square of the town; or instruct him as to the places of interest in the town. This may be done directly or with the help of "an interpreter".

There are, of course, other techniques for stimulating pupils' unprepared speech. The teacher chooses the techniques most suitable for his pupils since he knows their aptitudes, their progress in the language, the time he has at his disposal for developing speaking skills, the concrete material at which pupils are working.

In conclusion it should be said that prepared and unprepared speech must be developed simultaneously from the very beginning. The relationship between prepared and unprepared speech should vary depending on the stage of learning the language. In the junior stage prepared speech takes the lead, while in the senior stage unprepared speech should prevail. —

II.2. Psychological Characteristics of Listening Activity

Pupils' speech habits may be evaluated in two ways:

(1) constantly, during every lesson when pupils perform various exercises in hearing and speaking and the teacher has an opportunity to watch every youngster working (in a group of 20 pupils the teacher can pay attention to everyone);

(2) regularly, after finishing a lesson (a unit of the textbook), a topic studied. The teacher may conduct a quiz. He may ask pupils to retell the text heard, to speak on a picture, to talk on a situation, in other words, to perform all oral activities possible in this particular form, with this group of pupils, within the language material and the topic covered.

The former may or may not result in assigning pupils marks for their speech activities. The latter results in evaluating speech activities of those pupils who are called on to speak.

It is natural while learning a foreign language that pupils make mistakes. They make mistakes in auditing when they misunderstand something in a text. They make mistakes in speaking when pupils mispronounce a word, violate the order of words in a sentence, misuse a preposition, an article, use wrong intonation, etc. The teacher's main aim is to prevent pupils' errors. There is a good rule: "Correct mistakes before they occur." In other words, careful teaching results in correct English, i. e., pupils make very few mistakes. However, they make them, and the problem is how to correct pupils' errors.

If a pupil misunderstands something when auditing the teacher should do his best to ensure comprehension. He suggests that the pupil should either listen to the sentence again; if he does not understand it properly the teacher or the classmates help him to paraphrase the sentence or translate it, or see it written. The latter often helps if pupils do not get used to hearing, if they are eye-learners. As far as speaking is concerned it is the teacher who corrects pupils' mistakes. It is a bad habit of some teachers to ask pupils to notice mistakes when their classmate is called in front of the class to speak.

This is due to the following reasons. Firstly, pupils' attention is drawn, not to *what* the classmate says, but to *how* he says it, i. e., not to the content, but to the form. If we admit that the form may not always be correct, then why should we concentrate pupils' attention on the form? Moreover, when pupils' attention is centered on errors, they often do not grasp what the classmate says, and that is why they cannot ask questions or continue the story he has told them.

Secondly, the pupil, who speaks thinks more about *how* to say something instead of *what* to say. No speaking is possible when the speaker has to concentrate on the form. He makes more errors under this condition. More than that, he often refuses to speak when he sees the classmates raise their hands after he has uttered his first sentence. This does not encourage the learner to speak.

Accordingly when a pupil is called to the front of the class to speak, the class is invited to follow what he says so that they may be able to ask questions or to go on with the story when he stops.

There is a great variety of techniques at the teacher's disposal. He selects the one that is most suitable for the occasion.

1. If a pupil makes a mistake in something which is familiar to him, it is preferable to correct it at once. But in order not to confuse the pupil and stop his narration the teacher helps the child with the correct version.

Pupil: My mother get up at 7 o'clock. Teacher: I see, your mother gets up earlier than you. Pupil: Yes, my mother gets up at 7.

2. If a pupil makes a mistake in something which he has not learned yet the teacher corrects his mistakes after he has finished speaking.

Pupil: She first visited us in 1960.

She is a good friend of ours since.

The teacher gives the correct sentence: *She has been a good friend of ours since.*

If many pupils make the same mistakes, for instance, in prepositions (*go in* instead of *go to*), articles (*the Moscow* instead of *Moscow*, or *Volga* instead of *the Volga*), in tense forms (the Present Continuous instead of the Present Indefinite) the teacher makes note of them and gets the pupils to perform drill exercises after answering questions.

The teacher should not emphasize incorrect forms in any way or they will be memorized along with the correct ones, for instance: *Books is. Do you say "books is"? You shouldn't say "books is". What should you say?*

PART III. THE LINGUISTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF WRITING IN ENGLISH

III.1. Writing as an Aim and Means of Teaching and Learning a Foreign Language

Writing as a skill is very important in teaching and learning a foreign language. It helps pupils to assimilate letters and sounds of the English language, its vocabulary and grammar, and to develop habits and skills in pronunciation; speaking, and reading. The practical value of writing is great because it can fix patterns of all kinds (graphemes, words, phrases and sentences) in pupils' memory, thus producing a powerful effect on their mind. That is why the school syllabus reads: "Writing is a mighty means of teaching a foreign language." Writing includes penmanship, spelling, and composition. The latter is the aim of learning to write. The school syllabus states: "Pupils are expected to be able to write a letter in the foreign language within the material learnt." Since writing is a complicated skill it should be developed through the formation of habits such as:

- (1) the habit of writing letters of the English alphabet;
- (2) the habit of converting speech sounds into their symbols — letters and letter combinations;
- (3) the habit of correct spelling of words, phrases, and sentences;
- (4) the habit of writing various exercises which lead pupils to expressing their thoughts in connection with the task set.

In forming writing habits the following factors are of great importance:

1. Auditory perception of a sound, a word, a phrase, or a sentence, i.e., proper hearing of a sound, a word, a phrase, or a sentence.

2. Articulation of a sound and pronunciation of a word, a phrase, and a sentence by the pupil who writes.
3. Visual perception of letters or letter combinations which stand for sounds.
4. The movements of the muscles of the hand in writing. The ear, the eye, the muscles and nerves of the throat and tongue, the movements of the muscles of the hand participate in writing. And the last, but not the least, factor which determines progress in formation and development of lasting writing habits is pupils' comprehension of some rules which govern writing in the English language.

Soviet methodology believes that a conscious approach to teaching and learning a foreign language can ensure pupils' progress in writing.

Teaching writing should be based on such methodological principles as a conscious approach to forming and developing this skill, visualization and activity of pupils. Pupils learn to write letters, words, and sentences in the target language more successfully if they understand what they write, have good patterns to follow, and make several attempts in writing a letter (a word, a sentence) until they are satisfied that the work is well done.

"Whenever the teacher writes on the blackboard he gives some explanations as to how the letter is made, and then how the word is written. His pupils follow the movements of his hand trying to imitate them; they make similar movements with their-pens in the air, looking at the blackboard.

3. The teacher asks pupils to write first the letter, then the word in their exercise-books. When pupils are writing he walks round looking at the work they are doing and giving help to the pupils who need it. Since habits are formed and developed through performing actions, pupils are told to practice in writing the letter and the word (words) at home.

The teacher's handwriting and his skill in using the blackboard is of great importance. Children learn by imitating. Therefore the teacher's handwriting should be good enough to imitate. They usually write in the way the teacher does, so he must be-careful in the arrangement of the material on the blackboard because pupils will copy both what is written and how it is written.

Consequently, training in penmanship implies: visual perception; observations accompanied by some explanations on the part of the teacher; practice under the teacher's supervision in class, and independently at home.

The teacher should bear in mind that pupils are taught to write only those letters of the English alphabet which really present some difficulties to Russian pupils, and he need not show them how to write *a* or *c* or *e* nor ask pupils to write two or three lines of such letters at home, as some teachers sometimes do. They probably forget that the difficulty is not in writing but in memorizing the name of the letter and the sound (or sounds) it stands for. Manifold repetition in writing such a letter does not help at all in solving the problem.

In spelling instruction the teacher should take into consideration the difficulties of English spelling and instruct pupils how to overcome these difficulties. The following exercises may be suggested for the purpose.

The additional work the pupil must perform in copying a text or an exercise makes him pay attention to the sound and meaning of the words. This kind of copying is a good way of ensuring the retention of the material. It must be extensively applied in the junior and in the intermediate stages.

2. Dictation. This kind of writing exercise is much more difficult than copying. Some methodologists think that it should never be given as a test to young beginners. "It is a means of fixing of what is already known, not a puzzle in which the teacher tries to defeat the pupil"(F. French).¹ Dictation is a valuable exercise because it trains the ear and the hand as well as the eye; it fixes in the pupil's mind the division of each sentence pattern, because the teacher dictates division by division. For example, *Tom and I I go to school I together.*

Dictations can vary in forms and in the way they are conducted:

(a) *Visual dictation* as a type of written work is intermediate between copying and dictation. The teacher writes a word, or a word combination, or a sentence on the blackboard. The pupils are told to read-it and memorize its spelling. Then it is rubbed out and the pupils write it from memory.

(b) *Dictation drill* aims at consolidating linguistic material and preparing pupils for spelling tests. The teacher dictates a sentence. A word with a difficult spelling either is written on the blackboard, or is spelt by one of the pupils. Then the pupils are told to write the sentence. The teacher walks about the class and watches them writing. He asks one of the pupils who has written correctly to go to the blackboard and write the sentence for the other pupils to correct their mistakes if they have any. The dictation drill may be given for 10—12 minutes depending on the grade and the language material.

(c) *Self-dictation*. Pupils are given a text (a rhyme) to learn by heart. After they have learned the text at home the teacher asks them to recite it. Then they are told to write it in their exercise-books from memory. So they dictate it to themselves. This type of written work may be given at junior and intermediate stages.

3. Writing sentences on a given pattern. This kind of writing exercise is more difficult because pupils choose words they are to use themselves. The following exercises may be suggested:

(a) Substitution: *Nick has a sister*. The pupils should use other words instead of *a sister*.

(b) Completion: *How many ... are there in the room? He came late because*

(c) Extension: *Ann brought some flowers*. (The pupils are expected to use an adjective before *flowers*.)

Practice of this kind can lead pupils to long sentences.

4. Writing answers to given questions. The question helps the pupil both with the words and with the pattern required for the answer.

The object of every kind of written exercise mentioned above is to develop pupils' spelling in the target language and to fix the linguistic material in their memory and in this way to provide favourable conditions for developing their skills in writing compositions. By composition in this case we mean pupils' expression of their own thoughts in a foreign language in connection with a suggested situation or a topic within the linguistic material previously assimilated in speech and reading. Progress in writing a foreign language is possible on condition that pupils have ade-

quate preparation for writing. This preparation should nearly always be carried out orally, except late at the senior stage when it can be done from books independently as at this stage oral questioning need not precede writing. Writing compositions will not help much in the learning of a new language without careful preparation. If pupils have to rack their brains for something to say, or if they try to express something beyond their powers, the writing may be more harmful than helpful. Preparation may include:

- (a) oral questioning with the aim of giving the pupils practice in presenting facts and ideas in the target language;
- (b) the use of pictures and other visual aids to provide information for written work;
- (c) auding an extract or a story which can stimulate pupils' thought; after auding there should always be some questions on the content;
- (d) silent reading which can be used as a source of information for pupils, first, to speak about, and then for writing. in teaching compositions the following exercises may be suggested:

1. A written reproduction of a story either heard or read. With backward classes most of the words that are habitually misspelt must be written on the blackboard.

2. A description of a picture, an object or a situation. For example:

- Write not less than three sentences about (the object).

- Write five sentences about what you usually do after classes.

- Write four sentences about what you can see in the picture of the room.

3. A descriptive paragraph about a text, or a number of texts on a certain subject.

Pupils may be given concrete assignments. For instance:

- Describe the place where the action takes place.

- Write what you have learned about ...

- Write what new and useful information you have found for yourself in this text (these texts).

- Write what the author says about ... using the sentences from the text to prove it.

4. An annotation on the text read. The following assignments may help pupils in this.

- Pick out sentences which express the main idea (ideas) in the text and then cross out those words which are only explanatory in relation to the main idea.
 - A bridge the text by writing out only topical sentences.
 - Write the contents of the text in 3—5 sentences.
5. A composition on a suggested topic. For example, "My family" or "Our town" or "The sports I like best". Pupils should be taught to write a plan first and then to write the story following the plan.
 6. Letter writing. Pupils are usually given a pattern letter in English,¹ which shows the way the English start their letters and end them.

The following assignments may be suggested:

- Write a letter to your friend who lives in another town.
- Write a letter to your parents when you are away from home,

III.2. Linguistic Characteristics of Writing Speech

Within the communicative framework of language teaching, the skill of writing enjoys special status—it is via writing that a person can communicate a variety of messages to a close or unknown reader or readers. Such communication is extremely important in the modern world, whether the interaction takes the form of traditional paper-and-pencil writing or the most technologically advanced electronic mail. Writing as a communicative activity needs to be encouraged and nurtured during the language learner's course of study, and this chapter will attempt to deal with the early stages of ESL/EFL writing.

Viewing writing as an act of communication suggests an interactive process which takes place between the writer and the reader via the text. Such an approach places value on the goal of writing as well as on the perceived reader audience. Even if we are concerned with writing at the beginning level, these two aspects of the act of writing are of vital importance; in setting writing tasks, the teacher should encourage students to define for themselves the message they want to send and the audience who will receive it.

The writing process, in comparison to spoken interaction, imposes greater demands on the text, since written interaction lacks immediate feedback as a guide. The writer has to anticipate the reader's reactions and produce a text which will adhere to Grice's (1975) cooperative principle. According to this principle, the writer is obligated (by mutual cooperation) to try to write a clear, relevant, truthful, informative, interesting, and memorable text. The reader, on the other hand, will interpret the text with due regard for the writer's presumed intention if the necessary clues are available in the text. Linguistic accuracy, clarity of presentation, and organization of ideas are all crucial in the efficacy of the communicative act, since they supply the clues for interpretation. Accordingly, while the global perspectives of content and organization need to be focused on and given appropriate attention, it is also most important to present a product which does not suffer from illegible handwriting, numerous spelling errors, faulty punctuation, or inaccurate structure, any of which may render the message unintelligible.

The present chapter focuses on the development of the mechanics of writing. Letter is a necessary instrumental skill with which meaningful writing cannot take place. Study the letter then moves on to early functional forms which can be carried out with some proficiency in the target languages in order to remember that in this can greatly facilitate writing, like the other letter correspondences, but be dealt with at the premier of exceptions or and discourse proficiency that need to be learned. Dents have reached posed sequence rules which provide the learners with useful generalizations and which therefore help them become effective readers. Once students have assimilated and internalized the basic features of such correspondences—namely, the distinction syllables—this will work well not only for all monosyllabic words but also for polysyllabic ones, in which the stressed syllable can act as a monosyllabic environment for letter-sound vowel correspondences (e.g., *dispose*).

Furthermore, some of the more advanced spelling rules related to English morphology can be facilitated by this knowledge. In polysyllabic verbs with the final syllable stressed, the spelling rules, for adding the inflection -ing work in the same manner as for monosyllabic ones. Thus, learners who know the rule for consonant

letter doubling when changing *sit* to *sitting* will be able to apply the same rule to any polysyllabic verb that ends with a stressed syllable having the form. Therefore, the verb *begin*, since its final syllable is stressed, will undergo doubling of the last consonant in *beginning*, as opposed to the verb *open*, where the final syllable is not stressed and therefore the *-ing* form of *open* is spelled *opening*.

However, in spite of all that has been said so far, English orthography has a notorious reputation because, in addition to all these helpful and relatively reliable rules, we must *account* for various less productive rules. Some of these are quite predictable, such as the occurrence of the letter *a* in front of / or *ll*, which quite consistently is realized as the sound /o/ as in *call*, or *a* in front of the letter *r*, which has the sound /a/ as in *car*. In general, the letter *r* affects the sound of the vowel preceding it and causes it to become more centralized, as in the words *world*, *bird*, *curd*. Furthermore, the vowel diphthongs have a variety of spellings, such as the following letter combinations, which all correspond to the same vowel diphthong /ow/: *rope*, *boat*, *low*, *foe*. So, while it is true that there are quite a few cases in English which need to be remembered as individual words, there are far fewer than people imagine. In summing up this section dealing with the teaching points relevant to the mechanics of reading and writing, we should emphasize the fact that it is important for learners of English as a second or foreign language to realize from the start that English orthography is by no means a one-to-one letter-sound correspondence system; it has its own consistency embedded in the combination of letters with their immediate environments, resulting in what we tend to call sound-spelling correspondences. By practicing the proper pronunciation of sounds in relation to given spelling patterns, we can provide learners with a good basis for pronunciation as well as for the skills of reading and writing.

CONCLUSION

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.

Speech is a process of communication by means of language. For example, (1) a pupil tells the class a story about something which once happened to him; (2) the teacher asks questions on the story read by the pupils at home and starts a discussion; (3) pupils speak on the pictures suggested by the teacher, each tries to say what others have not mentioned; (4) pupils listen to the story and get some new information from the text; (5) they see a sound film and learn about something new from it, etc.

Writing as a skill is very important in teaching and learning a foreign language. It helps pupils to assimilate letters and sounds of the English language, its vocabulary and grammar, and to develop habits and skills in pronunciation; speaking, and reading. The practical value of writing is great because it can fix patterns of all kinds

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