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Language Teaching And Skill Learning

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LANGUAGE TEACHING AND SKILL LEARNING

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

It is obvious that in the 21st century, the trend of globalization is leading to closer relationships between countries. Of all the different languages, English, as a global/international language (EGL/EIL) or a Lingua Franca (ELF) is widely used in communication between people and countries. The English language has spread and developed globally, which is a fact that cannot be ignored. As the main foreign language taught and employed in communication with foreigners, the use of English has dramatically increased in Uzbekistan. The decree of the president of the republic of Uzbekistan on measures for further enhancement of the system of teaching of foreign languages[1] (Tashkent, December 10, 2012) enlarges our possibilities to introduce and implement the advanced foreign language teaching methods with the use modern and information - communication technologies.

The research work discusses the challenges to language teaching and its methodological principles posed by the new technologies. It will be argued that the integration of computer technologies into language learning is a necessary step to ensure the acquisition of the kind of language skills and competencies needed for living and working in the knowledge society. The numerous methods of teaching foreign languages may sometimes make teachers, especially those who are just stepping into the field of Education, feel frustrated. Not knowing which one to apply or how to do it when they only sympathize with certain techniques is a fact that can have positive effects on them or negative ones. Moreover, not 'any' method can be applied to 'any' group. There are many factors, like age, number of

[1] Decree of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan "On Measures For Further Enhancement Of The System Of Teaching Of Foreign Languages". Tashkent, December 10, 2012, № PD-1875.

students, personalities, speed of learning, which may influence on the way the teacher will lead the group to fulfill his/her goal. Some teachers learn, through time and experience, how to deal with all those drawbacks, but some others find it difficult, especially when they think they are supposed to be on only one track.

However, I believe that I am offering a foundation that will promote student learning by fostering effective classroom teaching and providing a solid framework for in-depth study in EFL teaching area. And also to help teachers select the techniques and activities they can adapt to their own approach and justify the reason why they are making such a selection. This will confirm their self-confidence in what they are doing and the way they are doing it.

Actuality of the theme: the problem of searching for new approaches, technologies and teaching aids of students' training, which lay the basis of competent, successful and promising personalities of the country. The problems of acquiring basic skills in the areas of listening comprehension, reading comprehension, speaking (dialogue and monologue) and writing, and thus of developing communicative competence, which can be further developed life-long, depending on the individual needs. The large number of new approaches to training to foreign languages demands methodological validation of this problem.

The purpose of the work: to enhance motivation in teaching English in EFL, and offer practical suggestions for broadening one's teaching approaches to accommodate a wider range of learner characteristics while helping students develop a more flexible, empowered approach to diverse learning contexts and tasks, to contribute with this research work in giving detailed information to overcome the difficulties we can have as teachers.

The tasks of the research work:

- Clarify the content of the basic terms of the research work
- Identify opportunities, which support students with linguistic abilities

- Clarify new directions in teaching foreign languages
- Give consideration to using computer technologies in the process of teaching foreign language
- Identify didactic principles of integration of language and speech skills
- Analyze Reading Skills of English among medical students
- Methodical processing of texts, activities to develop reading, writing, speaking and listening skills of medical students;
- To use professionally focused information resources in foreign language training that promotes more effective formation of professional foreign language communicative competence in the conditions of medical high schools;

For realization of the above-stated problems, the following **methods** will be used**:** prognostic and diagnostic methods of the research, including supervision, the literature analysis, studying and generalization of experience of pedagogy, research works on the given problem, and questionnaire for teachers and students.

The object of the research work: training process of EFL students to foreign languages.

The subject of the research work: the theory and technique of developing national teaching approaches and methods of the FL teachers in system of training foreign languages teaching. Bringing trainees to the point at which they can begin to function competently and thoughtfully as a basis for further development and improvement in the course of their own professional practice.

Research methods of the research work: is to examine various theories, methods, approaches and strategies. Interview questions were prepared and used during the interviews. Two interview questions were made, one with questions aimed for the students and one aimed for the teachers. A checklist was prepared to use during the observations, to ensure that the same information was gathered from

each class and the different classrooms. This also served as guidelines to show what to look for during the observations.

Scientific novelty of the research work:

- Identifying the principles of effective foreign language teaching in Uzbekistan
- Defining the essence and the content of the effective teaching strategies for Uzbek students, specification of its structure, function, ways and formation means;
- processing texts methodologically for developing professionally focused reading skills of medical students;
- Working out the teaching methods that provide the development of reading skills of the students of Fergana Branch Tashkent medical academy and also which contains systematic work with texts contributing to the development of professional and competent specialists.

Practical value of the research work consists of reliability of the method of realization of teaching strategies and learning skills in the training system of foreign languages.

The structure of the research work: including the introduction, this research work consists of three chapters. First, chapter II presents necessary background information related to the research. The chapter 1 outlines the evolution, which has taken place in the past decades in our understanding of the nature of language as skill and its impact on various conceptions and procedures in foreign language teaching. Although implications can be seen for teaching foreign languages, I focused on English as a foreign language with its uses and functions in the modern globalized world. The ultimate question to be asked is:

a) has this evolution brought progress in our understanding of the nature of language relevant to the discipline of foreign language learning and teaching, and b) has it advanced our orientation in options and strategies of developing foreign language as skill in the educational setting.

Chapter 2 examines exemplary use of technology for English language teaching and learning around the world and, like throughout the chapter, it is accepted that a ‘one size fits all’ approach to using technology is neither desirable nor practical. Each situation demands a specific approach to English language learning and these circumstances dictate not only when technologies are introduced to learners, but also how they are implemented. It is also apparent that while technology has the power to extremely transform learning, there are occasions where it can actually serve to reinforce linguistic, social and cultural hegemonies, rather than challenging them. Chapter 2 also investigated reading skills of English among medical students of Fergana Branch Tashkent Medical Academy, drawn some conclusions and suggestions for teaching and research. During the research for this work, students and teachers from Fergana Branch of Tashkent medical academy were the target group.

In Chapter 3 I have discussed the questions of implementing communicative approach and activities in medical English lessons, offered the syllabus for medical English teachers. Given the used list of references.

CHAPTER I THE NATURE OF APPROACHES AND METHODS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

1.1. Skill acquisition and foreign language teaching

Language education is the teaching and learning of a foreign or second language. Language education is a branch of applied linguistics. Foreign language acquisition is a phenomenon that affects many students all over the world, and has been the topic for many academic papers over the years. Researchers have developed a range of foreign language acquisition theories that cover different aspects of this acquisition. Some of these theories place the primary focus and importance on the learners' innate capacity for language acquisition, while others' may accentuate the role of the environment in presenting different occasions for the learner to interact with speakers who modify their language and communication forms to meet the learners' needs[2] Though there has been a great deal of research devoted to how people learn languages, and these theories have had a profound effect on the way we teach foreign languages, according to Harmer no one knows exactly how people learn languages. Without paying attention to the present situation of the foreign language acquisition theories, learning a foreign language is a complex process that is very different from learning a first language. This statement is based on the fact that in most cases learning a foreign language takes place in a different environment that presents different learning conditions. Differing from the process of first language acquisition, other aspects of language learning apply when learning a foreign language. During the foreign language acquisition (FLA) process, the language learner will in most cases already have successfully acquired

[2] Lightbown, P. M. & Spada, N. (2006). *How langauges are learned.* New York. Oxford University press, Third edition..

a first language. In addition they may also have developed a higher sense of metalinguistic awareness and can define and use grammatical rules[3].

Based on these facts, a foreign language learner will require different ways of instruction and support, in order to be successful in their acquisition. The instruction and support required in this process is one of the main focuses of this work, in addition to the learner's internal factors and finally social factors, which can influence the foreign language learning process. This introduction to the work, aims to introduce the topics that are presented and discussed in the various chapters, and also give a presentation of the outline.

Increasing globalization has created a large need for people in the workforce who can communicate in multiple languages. The uses of common languages are in areas such as trade, tourism, international relations, technology, media, and science. However, some countries such as India, Singapore, Malaysia, Pakistan, and the Philippines use a second official language in their governments. According to GAO (2010), China has recently been putting enormous importance on foreign language learning, especially the English language.

Although the need to learn foreign languages is older than human history itself, the origins of modern language education are in the study and teaching of Latin in the 17th century. Latin had for many centuries been the dominant language of education, commerce, religion, and government in much of the Western world, but it was displaced by French, Italian, and English by the end of the 16th century. John Amos Comenius was one of many people who tried to reverse this trend. He composed a complete course for learning Latin, covering the entire school curriculum, culminating in his *Opera Didactica Omnia*, 1657. In this work, Comenius also outlined his theory of language acquisition. He is one of the first theorists to write systematically about how languages are learned and about pedagogical methodology for language acquisition. He held that language

[3] Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of English language teaching*. New edition. Longman.

acquisition must be allied with sensation and experience. Teaching must be oral. The schoolroom should have models of things, and failing that, pictures of them. As a result, he also published the world's first illustrated children's book, *Orbis Sensualium Pictus*. The study of Latin diminished from the study of a living language to be used in the real world to a subject in the school curriculum. Such decline brought about a new justification for its study. It was then claimed that its study developed intellectual abilities, and the study of Latin grammar became an end in and of itself. "Grammar schools" from the 16th to 18th centuries focused on teaching the grammatical aspects of Classical Latin. Advanced students continued grammar study with the addition of rhetoric.

The study of modern languages did not become part of the curriculum of European schools until the 18th century. Based on the purely academic study of Latin, students of modern languages did much of the same exercises, studying grammatical rules and translating abstract sentences. Oral work was minimal, and students were instead required to memorize grammatical rules and apply these to decode written texts in the target language. This tradition-inspired method became known as the grammar-translation method.

Innovation in foreign language teaching began in the 19th century and became very rapid in the 20th century. It led to a number of different and sometimes conflicting methods, each trying to be a major improvement over the previous or contemporary methods. The earliest applied linguists included Jean Manesca, Heinrich Gottfried Ollendorff (1803–1865), Henry Sweet (1845–1912), Otto Jespersen (1860–1943), and Harold Palmer (1877–1949). They worked on setting language teaching principles and approaches based on linguistic and psychological theories, but they left many of the specific practical details for others to devise.

Those looking at the history of foreign-language education in the 20th century and the methods of teaching (such as those related below) might be

tempted to think that it is a history of failure. Very few students in U.S. universities who have a foreign language as a major manage to reach something called "minimum professional proficiency". Even the "reading knowledge" required for a PhD degree is comparable only to what second-year language students read and only very few researchers who are native English speakers can read and assesses information written in languages other than English. Even a number of famous linguists are monolingual.

However, anecdotal evidence for successful second or foreign language learning is easy to find, leading to a discrepancy between these cases and the failure of most language programs, which helps make the research of second language acquisition emotionally charged. Older methods and approaches such as the grammar translation method or the direct method are dismissed and even ridiculed as newer methods and approaches are invented and promoted as the only and complete solution to the problem of the high failure rates of foreign language students.

Most books on language teaching list the various methods that have been used in the past, often ending with the author's new method. These new methods are usually presented as coming only from the author's mind, as the authors generally give no credence to what was done before and do not explain how it relates to the new method. For example, descriptive linguists seem to claim unhesitatingly that there were no scientifically based language teaching methods before their work (which led to the audio-lingual method developed for the U.S. Army in World War II). However, there is significant evidence to the contrary. It is also often inferred or even stated that older methods were completely ineffective or have died out completely when even the oldest methods are still used (e.g. the Berlitz version of the direct method). One reason for this situation is that proponents of new methods have been so sure that their ideas are so new and so correct that they could not conceive that the older ones have enough validity to

cause controversy. This was in turn caused by emphasis on new scientific advances, which has tended to blind researchers to precedents in older work.

There have been two major branches in the field of language learning, the empirical and theoretical, and these have almost completely separate histories, with each gaining ground over the other at one point in time or another. Examples of researchers on the empiricist side are Jesperson, Palmer, and Leonard Bloomfield, who promote mimicry and memorization with pattern drills. These methods follow from the basic empiricist position that language acquisition basically results from habits formed by conditioning and drilling. In its most extreme form, language learning is seen as basically the same as any other learning in any other species, human language being essentially the same as communication behaviors seen in other species.

On the theoretical side are, for example, Francois Gouin, M.D. Berlitz, and Elime de Sauzé, whose rationalist theories of language acquisition dovetail with linguistic work done by Noam Chomsky and others. These have led to a wider variety of teaching methods ranging from the grammar-translation method to Gouin's "series method" to the direct methods of Berlitz and de Sauzé. With these methods, students generate original and meaningful sentences to gain a functional knowledge of the rules of grammar. This follows from the rationalist position that man is born to think and that language use is a uniquely human trait impossible in other species. Given that human languages share many common traits, the idea is that humans share a universal grammar which is built into our brain structure. This allows us to create sentences that we have never heard before but that can still be immediately understood by anyone who understands the specific language being spoken. The rivalry of the two camps is intense, with little communication or cooperation between them.

Language education may take place as a general school subject or in a specialized **language school**. There are many methods of teaching languages.

Some have fallen into relative obscurity and others are widely used; still others have a small following, but offer useful insights.

While sometimes confused, the terms "approach", "method" and "technique" are hierarchical concepts.

An **approach** is a set of assumptions about the nature of language and language learning, but does not involve procedure or provide any details about how such assumptions should be implemented into the classroom setting. Such can be related to second language acquisition theory.

There are three principal "approaches":

1. The structural view treats language as a system of structurally related elements to code meaning (e.g. grammar).
2. The functional view sees language as a vehicle to express or accomplish a certain function, such as requesting something.
3. The interactive view sees language as a vehicle for the creation and maintenance of social relations, focusing on patterns of moves, acts, negotiation and interaction found in conversational exchanges. This approach has been fairly dominant since the 1980s.

A **method** is a plan for presenting the language material to be learned, and should be based upon a selected approach. In order for an approach to be translated into a method, an instructional system must be designed considering the objectives of the teaching/learning, how the content is to be selected and organized, the types of tasks to be performed, the roles of students, and the roles of teachers.

1. Examples of structural methods are grammar translation and the audio-lingual method.
2. Examples of functional methods include the oral approach / situational language teaching.

3. Examples of interactive methods include the direct method, the series method, communicative language teaching, language immersion, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, the Natural Approach, Total Physical Response, Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling and Dogme language teaching.

A **technique** (or strategy) is a very specific, concrete stratagem or trick designed to accomplish an immediate objective. Such are derived from the controlling method, and less directly, from the approach[4].

Hundreds of languages are available for self-study, from scores of publishers, for a range of costs, using a variety of methods. The course itself acts as a teacher and has to choose a methodology, just as classroom teachers do.

Audio **recordings** use native speakers, and one strength is helping learners improve their accent. Some recordings have pauses for the learner to speak. Others are continuous so the learner speaks along with the recorded voice, similar to learning a song. Audio recordings for self-study use many of the methods used in classroom teaching, and have been produced on records, tapes, CDs, DVDs and websites. Most audio recordings teach words in the target language by using explanations in the learner's own language. An alternative is to use sound effects to show meaning of words in the target language. The only language in such recordings is the target language, and they are comprehensible regardless of the learner's native language.

Language **books** have been published for centuries, teaching vocabulary and grammar. The simplest books are phrasebooks to give useful short phrases for travelers, cooks, receptionists, or others who need specific vocabulary. More complete books include more vocabulary, grammar, exercises, translation, and writing practice. Also, various other "language learning tools" have been entering

[4] Richards, J.C. & Rodgers T. S. (2011). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Second edition. Routledge,

the market in recent years. There are as simple examples as Vocabulary Stickers, but also technologically complex augmented reality translation apps.

Language teaching covers four skills needed for communicating – listening, speaking, reading and writing. Good language teachers plan lessons, and sequences of lessons, which include a mixture of all the skills, rather than focusing on developing only one skill at a time.

	Oral skills	Literacy skills
Receptive skills	**Listening**	**Reading**
Productive skills	**Speaking**	**Writing**

Listening and speaking are *oral skills*. Reading and writing are *literacy skills*. Each week teachers should include some activities which focus on developing the students' oral skills (e.g. pair and group interactions and games) and some activities which focus on literacy skills (e.g. reading and analyzing texts and then students write their own). The four skills can also be grouped another way. Listening and reading are receptive skills since learners need to process and understand language being communicated to them in spoken or written form. Speaking and writing are known as productive skills since learners need to produce language to communicate their ideas in either speech or text.
It is common for language learners to have stronger receptive than productive skills, that is they can understand more than they can produce. Teachers often link activities for developing students' receptive and productive skills.
What is the connection between receptive and productive skills?

It's important for teaching activities to be designed so that learners receive input and modeled language (through listening and reading activities) before they

are expected to produce those modeled structures (in their own speaking and writing). Listening and reading activities prepare students to be able to speak and write their own texts. To take an example of a speaking activity, to enable students to talk about their family, a teacher might ask each student to prepare a profile of their family for an oral presentation to the class:

My family lives in Uzbekistan. Our house is big. Dad cuts the grass. I have three brothers. Their names are Alisher, Bahodir and Bahtiyor. We have a dog called Baron. Aunt Nodira lives with us too. My auntie comes for dinner every night.

To prepare the learners for this speaking activity (demonstrating their productive skills in the language) it's important that they first have many opportunities to listen to and/or read models of family profiles (developing their receptive skills in the language). The models could be: an audio or video recording of people introducing their family; the teacher speaking to the class, introducing their family using photos; family profiles written by students in previous years. Before presenting to the class, the students could work in pairs to practice introducing their family.

How to teach receptive skills?

Both listening and reading are receptive skills. For a teacher to be sure that learner has understood a spoken or written text, they need to demonstrate their understanding through a response. The response may be:

- a verbal response, e.g. answering questions orally when the teacher asks students one-by-one around the class,
- a physical response, e.g. an action in a Total Physical Response activity,
- a creative response or visual representation, e.g. listening to a talk about local places and drawing a map of them; reading a description of a person and drawing them,

- a written response, e.g. listening to or reading a text and writing answers to multiple choice, true/false, short answer comprehension questions, sentence completion activities,
- completing a cloze passage.

Receptive skills involve *bottom-up* and *top-down* processing. From the bottom up, teachers ensure that students know the sounds and spelling system, word roots and suffixes, and build up to phrases, sentences and paragraphs. If students understand and can analyze smaller components of language, they can build up to understanding longer texts in the language. At the same time, it is important to present students with opportunities to process spoken and written texts from the top down. The texts will contain a mixture of vocabulary and language structures which are already familiar to the students, together with vocabulary and structures which are not familiar. This challenges and develops students' ability to work out the meaning, fill in gaps, and develop skills in finding out about aspects of the language which are new to them. From the top down, students hear or read a whole text. At first they may just pick up the gist of the text, e.g. they take note of the setting, identify the characters, and understand the general meaning of the text. They use their understanding of the gist of the text to begin to work out more of the details, e.g. they make informed guesses about unfamiliar words and phrases in the text.

For students to develop their top-down processing skills, they often need to hear or read the text a few times. Each time they will process and understand more of the text. So we shouldn't worry if they don't understand the whole text the first time they hear/read it. Rather than immediately translating it into English for them, it's better to let them listen to or read the text again and again. Top-down listening activities often involve a pre-listening exercise before the students hear the text for the first time.

The students have already learned family terms. They have completed various exercises with those vocabulary items, e.g. picture card games and word-picture matching exercises. The teacher has made his/her own audio recording of a character called Harry introducing his family.

In the pre-listening stage of the activity, the teacher tells the students that they are about to hear a recording of a boy called Harry who will introduce his family. As a class or in small groups, the students are asked to predict the kinds of things Harry will say in the recording. The students brainstorm and guess some of the vocabulary and structures they will hear in the target language.

In the second stage of the activity, the teacher plays the recording to the students. As they listen, they draw Harry's family tree. Their diagrams should show as many of the details as possible which they have heard in the recording, e.g. relationships between people, their names, what they look like. The students listen to the recording a few times in order to be able to add more detail to their diagrams. The teacher might have a worksheet for the students to complete – it might contain multiple choice, short answer, true/false questions about the recording, e.g. Where does Harry's family live? How many people in Harry's family? How many sisters does Harry have? What's Harry's Dad's name? Does Harry's family have a pet? After the listening activity the students to share the details they heard in the recording. The teacher reviews the content of the text the students have heard and may focus the discussion on any details that the students had trouble understanding.

To develop learners' listening and reading skills, teachers can be a model. That is, teachers can speak to their students and write example sentences on the board. But individual words, phrases and sentences are not enough. Teachers can provide their students with much more input, if they provide them with opportunities to hear and read whole texts (such as the one about Harry's family). Sometimes those spoken and written texts already exist in the resources available

to the teacher but sometimes they need to be created, developed and recorded.

What is a cloze activity?

A cloze activity is a text with words (or parts of words) removed. Students are asked to fill in the gaps. Teachers may (or may not) give students a set of words to choose from:

Today Dad went to the supermarket and bought some _____ , _____ and _____ . He gave _____ to the shopkeeper and carried the food to the _____ . He pulled his keys out of his _____ and drove home in the _____ .

Cloze passages are used for developing and/or assessing listening and reading skills in the target language. If students understand the context and can work out the meaning, they will be able to complete the passage. Teachers may delete words systematically (every 8th word) or selectively (e.g. all of the nouns, or all of the verb suffixes).

Once the students have completed the reading activity individually or in pairs, the class discusses the missing words, and talks about the meaning of the paragraph and any grammatical features.

How to teach productive skills?

Both speaking and writing are productive skills. To enable learners to produce language, teachers select the vocabulary and structures, and the spoken or written text types which will be the focus of a lesson or unit of work.

As summarized in the diagram and example activity below, firstly the selected language is presented to the learners through listening and/or reading activities. That is, the teacher provides input and models the vocabulary and structures that the students are expected to produce. Secondly, students are given opportunities for controlled practice of that language. Ultimately this supports them to use that

language to produce new spoken and written texts. The modeled language may be provided by:

- the teacher speaking to the class,
- an audio or audio-visual recording which the teacher has made earlier,
- the teacher presenting text on the (interactive) white board,
- a text for the students to listen to and/or read and analyze,
- in a textbook, workbook or on a teacher-made worksheet.

When students have listened to and/or read various models, teachers provide controlled practice activities so that the students can begin to rehearse the set vocabulary and structures in their own speaking or writing. Controlled practice may be in the form sentence substitution activities – the students take the model and substitute similar word types into each part of a sentence frame. For example:

Example/model: Kangaroos lie in the shade. Sentence frame: animal name + animal action + place.

Controlled practice: The sentence frame allows for many possibilities (e.g. Fish swim in the river. The dog eats outside the house. Birds fly in the sky. Brolgas stand in the water. Pipis burrow in the sand). The list of animal names can be long. The actions can be past, present or future tense. The place can be a number of different locations. The action and place parts of the sentence frame are an opportunity to teach and rehearse various verb and noun suffixes.

A series of additional sentence frames could model for the students how to describe what the animal looks like, how it moves, what it eats, and its habitat and so on. In this way students build up a lot of relevant vocabulary and grammar for this topic. Controlled practice may also involve the whole class or small groups of students working together to jointly construct a text. After that, each student chooses an animal and independently writes a factual text, for example:

Emus are large birds. Their necks and legs are long. They have feathers and small wings. They don’t fly. They walk and run fast. They live in flat country and near

trees. They eat plants, insects and stones. They see and hear well. They live in pairs and groups.

Controlled practice supports the students to manipulate the learned vocabulary and structures in new ways. They create series of linked sentences in their own original spoken or written text. They use the newly introduced language but also incorporate language they have learned in previous lessons, units of work, school terms and years. They draw on recently learned language as well as the language skills and knowledge they have developed over a number of months or years. They can also use resources such as dictionaries. Here is an example of a speaking activity. In the speaking activity, students are given a picture of a beach scene. They draw their own additional figures into the picture, e.g. people spending time on the shore. Students then use the modeled and rehearsed vocabulary and structures, to take turns in talking with each other (in pairs or small groups) about what is happening in each of their scenes.

The family is down at the beach.
They are sitting on the sand.
The children become hot.
They are running to the sea to swim.
Uncle collects pipis for the family.
The children cook the pipis.
Grandma and grandpa eat the pipis.
The boys are swimming to the island.
The girls catch flathead for the family.
There are birds in the sky.
They are flying to the west.

1.2. Factors influencing foreign language learning

According to Drew and Sorheim when learning a foreign language there are many factors that can influence the learning process. Besides the factors related to an educational context such as the curriculum, materials and available resources,

one can divide these factors into two categories: *social* and *individual*[5]. This section will present both social and individual factors.

Social factors

Social factors are a part of what Ellis calls external factors. External factors are explained as factors relating to the environment in which the learning is taking place. Ellis emphasizes that the role of external factors and their importance remain a controversial issue. However, behaviorist's theories of learning consider these factors to have central importance[6].

Social factors are explained by Drew and Sorheim as those that "have to do with the way language is regarded and used in the society in which it is being learned". The way the English language is viewed in Norway is used as an example to explain this theory. English is viewed as an important language to know and to be able to use in order to function in international communication. English has a high status in Norway, and the way we teach and learn English as a foreign language will be a reflection of our general feelings and opinions towards the language. In addition to the way the target language is viewed in the society, exposure to the language also serves as a social factor. Second language students will most of the time find themselves living in a target language community (TLC). TLCs are communities where "…inhabitants speak the language which the student is learning: for students of English, an English-speaking country would be a TLC. The students would need to learn English to survive in that community" (Harmer). However, based on the status of the language, a TLC can also be in a place where the language is not necessarily the main language. Again, one can use the example of English in Norway. Students learning English in Norway will be exposed to the language through movies, television programs, music and computer games long before they start school (Drew & Sorheim).

[5] Drew, I. & Sørheim, B. (2009). English teaching strategies. Methods for English teachers Of 10 to 16-years-olds. Oslo. Samlaget. Second edition. 2009.

[6] Ellis, R. (1992). *Second Language Acquisition and Language Pedagogy*. Britain. British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data.

Based on this, one can make the comparison between a TLC and a high level of exposure to create better learning conditions for the students one can draw a parallel between high exposure to the language and the student's success in language learning. Exposure is also linked to Krashen's theory that the process of learning a second language would benefit from being more like the process of a child acquiring its first language. Though a child is never consciously taught a language, they acquire their first language through hearing and experiencing a high amount of language from communicative situations with adults and other children[7]. A series of subconscious processes result in a child's gradual ability to use the language; this process is the exact opposite of most second language learning where the teacher tend to concentrate on getting the student to consciously learn items of the language in isolation[8].

One can argue that social factors will have a more indirect than a direct effect on FL learning. Social factors will most likely be shaped by the learners' attitudes, which in turn will affect the learning outcome[9]. In addition, the social factors influencing the acquisition of a second language are likely to be different according to different social contexts.

Individual factors

In addition to the social factors, one can also discuss a number of factors relating to individual students. Personality, intelligence, motivation and attitude are all examples of internal factors that can have an impact on the language learning process. It has been argued that individual factors are hard or impossible to measure as they are interrelated.

However, Ellis claims that mentalist theories emphasize the role played by these individual internal factors. They credit the students with a "…*Language acquisition device* that enables them to work on what they hear and to extract the

[7] Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of English language teaching*. New edition.Longman.
[8] Krashen, S. (1981). *Language acquisition and language learning*. University of southern California.
[9] Ellis, R. (2012). *Language teaching research & language pedagogy.* London. Wiley Blackwell.

abstract ´rules´ that account for how the language is organized"[10] (Ellis). The joint contribution of external and internal factors is often emphasized in the cognitive theories of language acquisition (Ibid). Though important to any second language acquisition theory, individual factors are not directly observable and are for the most part only inferred by learner's reports of how they learn and by studying learner output (Ellis).

As a part of individual factors, one can also mention motivation as a factor that can influence second language learning. Lightbown and Spada (2006) explain how it is difficult to know if motivation is a reason for successful learning or if successful learning is a reason for motivation, or if both examples are affected by other factors. Nevertheless, Lightbown and Spada claim, "…there is ample evidence that positive motivation is associated with a willingness to keep learning" even though "research cannot prove that positive attitudes and motivation cause success in learning".

To further explain motivation, Drew and Sorheim present Gardner and Lamberts' (1972) theory that there are different types of motivation. Gardner and Lamberts introduced a distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation is described as identifying with and admiring the target language culture and is motivated to integrate with that culture, meaning learning a language for cultural enrichment. Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, is viewed as something being a means to an end, such as learning a second language in order to be successful in a career, or being able to travel to other countries. Nevertheless, Drew and Sorheim argue that the distinction between these two forms of motivation is considered too narrow as students may have interrelated and complex motivations. Lightbown and Spada supports this by stating that early research on motivation "tended to conceptualize it as stable characteristics of the learner" while newer research accentuates the vigorous nature of motivation and tries to take into consideration the changes that occur over time.

[10] Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition.* Second edition. Oxford.

Language Transfer an important distinction to make between learning a first and learning a second language is that when one is learning a second language, one has already accomplished learning a language before. Having a first language can affect the process of learning a second language in different ways, and can be viewed as both an advantage and a disadvantage. Even though there is variation as to what extent a first language is used when learning a second language, learners' mother tongues will influence their fluency and what level of proficiency they will be able to achieve in the target language. This influence from other languages is called *language transfer* (Selj, Ryen & Lindberg).

Examples of language transfer include translation and borrowing, for example using the first language as a tool for successful communication; code-mixing, namely using both the first and second language to construct the same sentence; and code switching, meaning to alternate the use of first and second language within a discourse. Incorporating features of the first language into the knowledge system of the language that the learner is trying to acquire is an example of transferring. One must distinguish between a learning process that excludes the first language for purposes of communication and one where the first language is a natural part of the teaching. Based on this one can draw the conclusion that the study of language transfer collects evidence demonstrating that the language learner's first language will influence both the *use* and *acquisition* of the second language.

According to Ellis it is important to mention that the distinction between acquisition and use holds both theoretical and methodological importance, as the presence of transfer effects in communication is not necessarily a demonstration of the first language having penetrated the learners' interlanguage system. Interlanguage is explained by Yule as an in-between system innate in the language learner that is used in the process of second language acquisition which contains

aspects of the first language and the second language but which is a varied system with rules of its own[11].

Besides its systematicy, there are also other characteristics of learner language or interlanguage. Interlanguages are also presumed to be unstable and in the process of changing, or in other words characterized by a high level of variability[12]. The types of errors that are made by a language learner in their utterances vary from moment to moment, and the learner seems liable to switch between a range of correct and incorrect forms over longer periods of time (Ibid). This variability is a central feature of learner interlanguage that theories on second language learning will need to explain. However, Ortega claims that there is strong evidence of the fact that first language transfer cannot radically impact the route of second language acquisition but can alter the rate of the language learner's progress and development. To support this theory, Ortega created the hypothesis that first language knowledge can interrupt certain second language choices and primes others, which can result in the underuse and overuse of certain second language forms in spoken and written learner production[13].

Language transfer, which is also known as *cross linguistic influence*, can be both an advantage and a disadvantage for the language learner. Yule divides different forms of language transfer into two categories: *positive transfer* and *negative transfer*. If students' target language has similar features as their first language, they may be able to benefit from their first language knowledge when learning the second language, making it a positive transfer.

On the contrary, transferring features or knowledge of a first language that is very different from the target language will result in negative transfer making it more difficult to communicate successfully in the target language. Yule comments that negative transfer, also known as *interference*, is most common in the earliest

[11] Ellis, R. (2012). *Language teaching research & language pedagogy.* London. Wiley Blackwell.

[12] Mitchell, R., Myles, F. & Marsden, E. (2013). *Second Language Learning Theories.* Third edition. New York. Routledge

[13] Ortega, L. (2009). *Understanding Second language acquisition*. Great Britain. Hodder education.

stages of second language learning and often becomes a smaller issue as the language learner reaches higher levels of familiarity with the target language.

Language transfer, or interference, may provide some challenges for second language teachers. It is thought to be a benefit for the teachers to have some knowledge of the linguistic and literacy background of their students, and also to check the student's abilities to read in their various first languages before checking their fluency and capability in high frequency words in the second language[14] .

Literacy development in language learners

When language minority students enter schools, they need to develop both oral and literacy skills in a second language. In addition, this process needs to be both effective and productive in order for the students to keep up with their native speaker classmates. Developing these necessary skills can be a challenge for some students. Usually the language learning process starts before a student enters school, which will allow them some basic understanding of the language. According to August and Shanahan, this process typically includes skills that are related to reading and writing such as oral language skills, familiarity with print and an understanding of text structures and the acquisition of knowledge. During this part of language acquisition, children are still learning to decode and encode in addition to reconstructing meaning. Reading and writing therefore become tools for developing vocabulary as well as for communication (August & Shanahan). Even though the process of literacy development takes place during a child's acquisition of a first language, it creates a basis for them to build on while they learn their second language. This can be explained by the fact that many of the students will be learning to read and write in the language of instruction and the target language simultaneously. This means that young students will develop literacy skills in their L1 and their FL at the same time. There are many factors that can make this experience complex and difficult. These factors include, amongst

[14] Grabe, W. (2009). *Reading in a second language: moving from theory to practice.* Cambridge University press. Cambridge.

others, the student's previous educational experiences. For some students, this may be their first experience with school, whereas others may have started school in their home countries before moving to a new country and continuing their education there. Cultural and linguistic backgrounds may also influence the student's abilities and attitudes towards learning a new language, whilst also developing basic literacy skills. Cognitive strength, and the type of literacy instruction they receive will also influence this experience (Helman). Even though the students are exposed to the second language through environmental print, television, and from friends and teachers at school, many of them will have parents who do not speak the language. This results in little practice for the students at home. Literacy instruction will for many only come in the classroom from teachers and fellow students. Cultural factors can influence learning to read and write, and the students' first language can both help and make it more difficult for the student to read in a new language (Helman).

Spontaneous vs. guided learning

Hagen and Tenfjord explain that there are two ways of learning: guided or spontaneous. Language learning takes place in a social context. Though this social context usually refers to a classroom, learning a second language also requires input from the environment outside of the classroom. Historically, learning a foreign language was considered a guided and formal process, but this process has been questioned. Social contexts outside of the classroom have recently been given more importance, leaving the use of language for the purpose of teaching in the classroom, and instead promoting language as a means of communication making language learning a spontaneous process outside of the classroom.

Hagen and Tenjord imply that there are several important differences between how one uses language in spontaneous learning or teaching, and how one uses language in guided learning or teaching. Guided teaching uses language as a means for educating the student. The teacher is most likely the only person in the

room who speaks the target language fluently and a high level of importance is given to the structure and grammar of the language. The context of a guided learning situation is typically within a classroom. Spontaneous teaching, on the other hand, is when language is mainly used as a means for communication. In this situation, people who fluently speak the target language will surround the language learner, and the importance is placed on successful and comprehensible communication rather than focusing on correct use of language structure and grammar (Ibid). Ellis similarly distinguishes between what he calls naturalistic versus instructed second language acquisition.

Ellis makes this distinction based on the same criteria as Hagen and Tenjord, namely, whether language learning takes place during communication such as "naturally occurring social situations or through study, with the help of guidance from reference books or classroom instruction"[15]. However, Ellis distinguishes these two types of language learning in a sociolinguistic sense focused on the setting and activities in which the learner would participate in order to learn the target language. Ellis argues that one cannot assume that naturalistic learning is a subconscious act, whilst instructed learning is conscious. Whether or not the process of acquisition is the same or different in the naturalistic and instructed settings, remains an open question.

Krashen (1981), who amongst others, shares Ellis' view on language teaching and learning and has been a spokesperson for the field wrote:

What theory implies, quite simply, is that language acquisition, first or second, occurs when comprehension of real messages occurs, and when the acquirer is not 'on the defensive' … Language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules, and does not require tedious drilling. Krashen explained further how real language acquisition develops slowly, and that developing speaking skills takes significantly more time than developing listening skills, even under perfect learning conditions. Based on this, Krashen claims that

[15] Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition.* Second edition. Oxford.

the best methods for teaching second languages are those that supply 'comprehensible input' in low anxiety situations, containing messages that students really want to hear. Comprehensible input was a hypothesis suggesting that in order for language acquisition to take place, the teacher must give the student input, using either a level of language that the student comprehends, or one level higher than the students' current comprehension, in order to continue progress. This hypothesis is known as i+1: I being the current level of skill, and the +1 representing the next level of skill[16].

Using these methods when teaching a second language will not force early production in the language, but will allow students to produce when they are 'ready'. In other words, this theory recognizes that improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, the i+1, and not from forcing and correcting production (Krashen, 1981:6-7). Ellis (1994) agrees with Krashen on the importance of input and interaction. Ellis claims it to be self-evident that second language learning can only take place when the learner is exposed to, or has access to, input in the target language. This input can be in both written and spoken form. An example is during interaction where the language learner attempts to converse with native speakers such as the teacher or another learner. The teacher or the student will adjust their language to address the learner in a language that is on the same level as the students' level, or on a level above, to create suitable input. This type of adjusted language is often known as *foreigner talk* or *teacher talk* (Ellis, 1994:28). Relating to this subject, one can also mention scaffolding. Scaffolding refers to the concept of a more knowledgeable speaker helping a less knowledgeable speaker, for example a new language learner, to learn by providing support or assistance [17](Lightbown and Spada, 2006:131).

Content-based language teaching

[16] Krashen, S. (1981). *Language acquisition and language learning*. University of southern California.
[17] Lightbown, P. M. & Spada, N. (2006). *How langauges are learned.* New York. Oxford University press, Third edition.

In recent years, there have been some dramatic developments in language teaching. The nature of language has been re-conceptualized and the role of the learner within the language process has been reevaluated. In addition new insight into instructed second language acquisition has been generated[18]. Together with insights from research, this has led to some fundamental changes in the way we regard the nature of language learning, resulting in changes in the way we go about the business of language teaching.

When conducting research for this thesis, two very different types of teaching methods were observed, namely content-based language teaching where a student learns the target language through working on content, and language-focused language teaching where the students have lessons dedicated to working solely on the target language's grammatical rules and structures, vocabulary and how to use the language in different contexts. In order to explain the concept of content-based language teaching, one must first explain the meaning of the word content.

According to different teaching methods, the concept of content has had a lot of different definitions, ranging from being comprised of grammatical constructions and vocabulary to sound patterns. However, modern teaching strategies like the communicative approach, for example, have a completely different way of defining the meaning of the word content. Snow, (2001:303) explains how content, in a communicative approach, is generally defined as "the communicative purposes for which speakers use the second/foreign language." Replacing the natural method, another definition of content has emerged more recently. Content-based language teaching defines content as "…the use of subject matter for second/foreign language teaching purposes"[19]. This teaching method defines subject matter as being comprised of topics or themes in a second language setting, based on the student's interests or needs but can also be very specific and

[18] Nunan, D. (1988). *The learner-centered Curriculum: A study in second language teaching*.Cambridge. Cambridge Press.

[19] Snow, Marguerite Ann. 2001. *Content-Based and Immersion Models for Second and Foreign Language Teaching.* Retrieved from http://static.schoolrack.com/files/213546/639761/CURR_223_L(2-5-6-7-9).pdf. Accessed November, 2013.

follow subjects that the students are currently studying in their elementary school classes.

Snow also draws a parallel between content-based language teaching and English for specific purposes (ESP) where one identifies the students' vocational or occupational needs as the basis for the curriculum and materials development. Stryker and Leaver explicate that traditional foreign language classes have been concentrated on the learner spending time developing skills in practicing scales and practicing theory[20].

Content-based language teaching, on the other hand, "… encourages students to learn a new language…by actually using that language, from the very first class, as a real means of communication". Furthermore, Stryker and Leaver elucidate the philosophy of content-based language instruction (CBI) as aiming to empower students to become independent learners and to continue the learning process beyond the classroom[21].

Lyster writes that the objective for content-based language teaching is that non-linguistic content, including subject matter, is taught to the students through the target language to enable them to learn curricular content while learning an additional language simultaneously through an instrumental approach. Though one can argue that language development and cognitive development go together, traditional teaching methods tend to separate language development from general cognitive development. Using this method, except for the mechanical workings of the language itself, the target language tends to be isolated from any substantive content. Based on the previous presentation, Lyster draws the conclusion that in contrast to other approaches to teaching, content-based instruction is designed to integrate language and cognitive development[22].

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[20] Stryker, S. B. & Leaver, B. L. (1997). *Content based instruction in foreign language Education. Models and methods*. Georgetown University press.

[21] Stryker, S. B. & Leaver, B. L. (1997). *Content based instruction in foreign language Education. Models and methods*. Georgetown University press.

[22] Lyster, R. 2011. *Content-based Second Language teaching.* In Hinkel, Eli. 2011. *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning*. Volum 2. Routledge.

According to Lyster it has been widely documented that students learning an additional language through immersion indeed succeed in mastering the content as well as if they were learning the content through their first language.

Summarizing the section on content-based second language teaching, content-based teaching has often been referred to as the "two for one" approach as the students will be learning subject matter and target language at the same time. Based on the research presented in the previous sections, one can conclude that many researchers agree, with slight variations, regarding the use for content-based language teaching and its success.

English as a second language

A distinction is often made between learning a second language and learning a foreign language. A second language often refers to a language that has an "…institutional and social role in the community". Learning English in English speaking countries in order to function in school and in the community is considered learning a second language. In contrast, foreign language learning "…takes place in settings where the language plays no major role in the community and is primarily learned only in the classroom"[23]. For example, learning French in Norwegian schools is learning a foreign language, since French does not have an important role in order to function in Norway. English Language Learners (ELLs) learn their language through English as a second language courses. ESL courses are designed for ELLs and target language acquisition focusing on reading, writing, speaking and listening skills, usually by extensive listening and speaking practice. Depending on in which grade the student is the course content and methods may vary. During the research for this work, students and teachers from Fergana Branch of Tashkent medical academy were the target group.

Theories and practices in ELL

[23] Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition.* Second edition. Oxford.

A great deal of research has been devoted to how people learn languages. Though certain theories have had a profound effect upon the practice of teaching a language, no one knows exactly how people learn languages (Harmer, 1991:31). As mentioned there are different methods for learning a second language, however there are also different reasons for wanting to learn a second language. Harmer lists six different reasons for learning English (or other languages) as a second language. First, school curricula will in some places demand it. Second, there are some advantages for having knowledge of the English language, and some students might want to learn English to give them advancement in their professional lives.

The third reason for learning English as a second language could be because a student finds him or herself living in a target language community where English is the target language. A student would have to learn English to function in that community. As a fourth reason, Harmer claims that a student can learn English for specific purposes, such as English for occupational purposes (EOP), English for academic purposes (EAP), and English for science and technology (EST). The final two reasons for learning English as a second language, according to Harmer, are for culture, and for miscellaneous reasons. For the students to reach the different competence aims set for the course, teachers can use a variety of different approaches to teaching[24].

1.3. New directions in teaching foreign language

New Directions in Teaching Foreign Languages includes the results of some of the latest research activities in the field of language pedagogy in Uzbekistan. The aim is to give an up-to-date overview of current thinking about important research issues in foreign language education.

Language teaching research should support and develop investigation of both quantitative and qualitative research within the area of foreign language

[24] Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of English language teaching*. New edition.Longman.

teaching. I have paid more attention to teacher-driven research to help clarify and explain various phenomena occurring in classrooms. That is why a wide range of topics in the area of language teaching is covered in this chapter including the research of the early language production, areas of teaching foreign languages to learners with learning difficulties, teaching foreign languages for academic and specific purposes, implications of intercultural communicative competence and intercultural education for teaching foreign languages, and implementing online support and e-books into the process of acquiring foreign languages.

Today many universities have Wi-Fi facilities set up in their areas to encourage mobile learning. As research objectives of this unit I examined the current information on mobile and what are their benefits.

Mobile learning technologies offer teachers-and students a more flexible approach to learning. In this unit I underlined the academic potential that mobile learning devices can have to enrich the learning process for students.

It is widely accepted that new technologies encourage communication, intercultural understanding, and connections with a wide range of subject areas, information acquisition and students' participation in various communities. It is also commonly believed that new technologies have become a media increasing students' motivation to understand material. With regard to EFL courses, scaffolded lesson planning based on use of new technologies inside and outside classrooms would contribute to the improvement of EFL students' academic and study skills. For example, interactive whiteboards, along with digital projectors and document cameras, help EFL tutors to make teaching material more engaging and easy to understand; lecture capture systems are beneficial for many ESP students, especially for revision ahead of exams, and for developing and improving academic listening macro-skills such as note-taking and recognizing the structure of the lectures, and micro-skills such as word stress and sentence stress. Student response systems help ESP instructors to quickly analyze a student's performance,

especially during reading comprehension practice with multiple-choice questions. All the above mentioned media might be included in an everyday lesson plan in order to provide visuals, model knowledge and increase motivation. In addition, e-portfolios are beneficial for the EFL students' research skills development as their critical thinking, teamwork and independent learning skills would be developed inside and outside the classroom, thanks to specific devices and internet technology, which support a wide range of EFL teaching approaches.

It is also important to stress how technology enhances the teaching and learning process and how it helps EFL students to improve and develop their academic and study skills. Some of the new tech devices that will be described here are interactive whiteboards, document cameras, lecture capture systems, digital projectors, student response systems, and wireless and projection keyboards. Interactive whiteboards (IWBs), amazing tools, along with Power Point and online video technology appear to enrich EFL students' connectivity with the subject matter. They support many learning styles and encourage EFL students to interact with content. In this way, students are able to implement what they learn in their English classes in their main field of study, whether it be Money, Banking and Finance, Education, Economics, Medicine, Computer Science or Engineering. Being able to use the vocabulary and structures that they learn in an interactive way through specialized resources reinforces what is taught and increases their motivation. Document cameras like overhead projectors, document cameras project images for classroom viewing. They appear to be an important tool, especially for ESP students, who are encouraged to interact with content related to their main field of study. They can be used to display two-dimensional content, such as presentations in English; to model writing skills – editing and revising; for extended essay feedback; or for textbooks, reference books and various graphs or 3D content, zooming in on small items to show research findings as they are described in scientific articles analyzed in the classroom. Document cameras can

be used to take pictures of content to be integrated into course material, posted to the LMS or used during a presentation. Many double as webcams, and some offer video recording capabilities, making them useful for lecture capture and videoconferencing applications, as well as content display. It is worth pointing out that EFL instructors can record class sessions — including audio, video and screen activity — using a digital or a web camera, a microphone and lecture capture software. Students can benefit from such systems, as they will be able to revise the class session, to improve their note-taking skills and develop their understanding of various linguistic features of spoken English at home. Teachers who want to know what content is being watched, and how frequently, can use system data to identify specific areas where students may be struggling.

It is understandable, as we, teachers expect students to be actively listening to the lectures which include making notes, and deciding what is relevant and what is less relevant. On the other hand, digital natives consider it to be very practical as many times they can concentrate on the lecture itself instead of having to take notes throughout. They simply do not learn things in the same way as we do and we should accept it and not force them to do it in our ways.

Speaking about using e-learning form in language teaching we have to trace back to the history at least to the beginning of the 1960s and we have to deal with computer assisted language learning. Computer assisted language learning (CALL) is the term coined in the early 1980s and it substituted the term CALI - computer assisted language interaction (where the teacher-centered approach was dominant) and this term CALL "is widely used to refer to the area of technology and second language teaching and learning despite the fact that revisions for the term are suggested regularly"[25]. The term technology Enhanced Language Learning (TELL)

[25] CHAPELLE, Carol. A. 2001. Computer applications in second language acquisition. New York: Cambridge. 2001. pp. 236. ISBN 0 521 62646 3.

is used as an alternative term to CALL. Levy defines CALL as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning"[26].

Warschauer describes 3 phases of CALL:

• Behavioristic (later changed to Structural) that dates back to the drill-and-practise-material (based on the belief that "Repeated exposure to the same material is beneficial or even essential to learning").

• Communicative – implemented in 1970-1980s (in later sources 1980-1990s) where the main focus was mainly on using the language rather than its analysis.

• Integrative (later sources 2000 onwards) integrated learning into tasks and projects using multimedia technologies[27].

Today many universities and educational institutions offer e-learning courses. It is frequently used for continual professional development of the employees or as courses for public (free of charge or paid). To provide and manage e-education learning management systems (LMS) are frequently used. LMS is a system for managing online courses, delivering the educational content, tracking students' performance, etc. Ellis states that „a robust LMS should be able to do the following:

• centralize and automate administration;

• use self-service and self-guided services;

• assemble and deliver learning content rapidly;

• consolidate training initiatives on a scalable web-based platform;

• support portability and standards;

• personalize content and enable knowledge reuse".

An example of learning content management system LCMS is e.g. Moodle, which is usually assigned as LMS Moodle, but in fact it is the LCM system. LMS Moodle – is an open source web application widely used around the world in the

[26] Levy, M and Hubbard, P (2005) Why call CALL 'CALL'? *Computer Assisted Language Learning* 18/3: 143–149.
[27] Warschauer, M (2003) Demystifying the digital divide. *Scientific American*, 289/August: 42 – 47.

business and academic environment as a system for online courses or face-to-face courses support.

Learning style, group, different approaches and ways of learning as key factors affect language learning. There are three basic types (visual, auditory and kinesthetic). Coffield (In Graf, 2007, p. 5) classified learning style models into 5 families "which are based on some overarching ideas behind the models, attempting to reflect the views of the main theorists of learning styles. The first family relies on the idea that learning styles and preferences are largely constitutionally based including the four modalities: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile. The second family deals with the idea that learning styles reflect deep-seated features of the cognitive structure, including patterns of abilities. A third category refers to learning styles as one component of a relatively stable personality type. In the fourth family, learning styles are seen as flexibly stable learning preferences. The last category moves on from learning styles to learning approaches, strategies, orientations and conceptions of learning".

Impact of new tech devices on EFL students' academic and study skills all the above-mentioned points indicate how exactly new tech instruments affect EFL students' academic and study skills development.

1.4. Methods of Teaching English Language Skills

There are many teaching approaches that can be used in teaching English. The teacher is advised to choose the method to use depending on: objectives, content, resources available, learners‟ abilities and interests as well as class size. The manner in which teaching takes place is a major factor that may influence students‟ development of language skills. Integration of English language and literature means that teachers are assumed to have a good mastery of the language and also a clear understanding and appreciation of literature, and are able to teach each as a function

of the other. This means that the teachers are expected to teach English language using literary texts, and also to teach literature using various skills of English

The integrated English course also requires integration of English language skills in teaching. Teachers, therefore, needed adequate training and retraining in the integrated approach for them to function well in their teaching of integrated English course. In view of this, the teachers‟ teaching techniques may not be suitable for the integration and development of the English language skills. It is obvious that there is need for in-service training for teachers of English so that they can cope with the demand of the new course, which requires new approaches and techniques to teaching English. Therefore, teachers must know how to integrate, not only English language and literature, but also how to integrate within the various aspects of English language skills namely: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

This is aimed at equipping the students with relevant skills to be able to perform better in English language. The British Council introduced the Secondary English Language Project (SELP 1988-1992). The purpose of SELP was to acquaint the already serving teachers with integrated English innovation and to quip them with new skills to enable them implement the course fully. Despite all these efforts to make the teaching of integrated English and to help improve the students‟ mastery of the English language, there are still many challenges facing the teacher in her/his efforts in the realization of teaching and learning English as a foreign language. Main purpose of the unit was therefore to examine teaching techniques that enhance integration in the development of the four English language skills.

Teaching Listening and Speaking

Listening and speaking are normally integrated as they go together. As for skill, Collin’s English Dictionary describes it as a special ability in a task, sport-especially ability acquired by training. Although speaking as a productive skill is complete in itself, there is an interdependent of oral skills in communication. Oral skills transcend absolutely making of verbal utterances. The main goal of the

language teacher in striving to improve learners‟ oral skills or interaction skills should be to equip such learners with the full repertoire of language skill needed to function with confidence in any situation outside the classroom, where they no longer have any control over what is said to them. For this reason poor skills development would automatically cause breakdown of understanding almost immediately, resulting into nervousness, which in turn may further inhibit the ability to speak. They further point out that unless a learner is able to deal with English only in its written form, there is no escape from the acquisition of at least the rudimentary elements of English pronunciation. Therefore, amount of time should be devoted to practice in the spoken language. Since opportunity to engage in genuine communication in a second language or foreign language learning situations are rare, the teacher has to create opportunities and situations that promote this intentionally. To bridge the gap between the classroom and the real world outside, the teacher can use teaching techniques that promote this, such as role play, dramatization, discussions and communication games among others.

Teaching Reading

Reading is an important skill that not only helps the learners in the mastery of English, but also enhances their performance in other subjects in the school curriculum. The teacher of English should therefore provide opportunities for learners to develop the various reading skills in order to undertake successfully intensive reading, extensive reading and comprehension.

In my opinion the syllabus presents the content for reading skill in a spiral approach. For example, comprehension skills are covered from Form One to Form Four. The skills taught in Form one includes recall, comprehension and application. In Form Two analysis is introduced and in Form Three synthesis and evaluation are introduced. It is recommended that the teaching of reading be integrated with the teaching of other language skills and grammar. This should be done through debate or a writing task from an extract of a literary text.

Unfortunately, we are getting students who are less and less interested in reading in English language. The effect is that many of them are not fully literate by the time they get to form 4. Some students read the passage casually and then attempt answering the questions from memory. Students generally tend to be too brief in answering questions. The teacher should aim at training the learners to read fluently and efficiently. It is the acquisitions of these skills that will enable the learners to undertake extensive and intensive reading in order to develop comprehension.

Teaching Writing

Writing is the advanced language skill that requires the learner to communicate ideas effectively. It trains the learners to be organized and to think critically and creatively as he or she responds to situations. The ability to write well is, therefore, essential for success in any academic discipline. Writing is also a lifelong skill. It is part of the personal development skills that are useful beyond the classroom. Teachers should, therefore, engage the students in as much writing sub-skills as possible. Some researchers point out that many teachers of writing have long been dissatisfied with the traditional paradigm and its implications for classroom practice. Consequently, research into the intensive and comprehensive studies of the development of writing abilities has aroused the need for a new pedagogy of writing. In view of these discussions, classroom procedures of teaching writing skills should therefore follow certain principles and techniques which enhance integration in the development of the four language skills.

Techniques in Integrating Skills Read views the integration of skills in the language classroom simply as a series of activities or tasks which use any combination of the four skills-Listening (L), Speaking (S), Reading (R) Writing (W) in a continuous and related sequence.

The activities in the sequence may be related through the topic or through the language or through both. She observes that an important feature of the sequence is the interlocking nature of the activities; to a large extent each task develops from those that have come before and prepares for those that are to follow. The skills are

thus not practiced in isolation but in a closely interwoven series of tasks, which mutually reinforce and build each other. She points out that if students are provided with integrated skills practice, it allows for continuity in the teaching/learning program. Those tasks and activities are not performed in isolation but are closely related and dependent on each other. If the four skills are integrated, it will provide variety and can be invaluable in maintaining motivation. It also allows naturally for the recycling and revision of language, which has already been taught and is therefore, often helpful for remedial teaching.

Byrne stressing on the importance of integrating skills, says that the need to integrate skills in English language teaching has been emphasized and is not a new feature of writing program. He says that many of the communication activities and „fun" writing integrate talking and writing (and sometimes reading) in a natural way. He therefore, proposes that if the teacher wants to increase the amount of skill integration in her daily teaching and this is worthwhile because it allows the learners to use language naturally[28].

Mathews et al. (1991: 73) justifies integration of language skills by giving two main reasons; to practice and extend the student use of a particular language structure or function and to develop the students" ability in two or more of the four skills within a constant context[29].

This, they claim ensures, continuity of the learning program because the activities are closely related either in terms of content and are dependent on each other, the four skills are developed in a realistic situation which allows flexibility, an opportunity is given to the learners to use language in different contexts, modes and with different participants. This variety breaks the monotony of having to deal with one variety at a time and finally, there is a linkage of the skills. In support of integration, the unit therefore, aims to find out teaching techniques that enhance

[28] Byrnes, H. (1998). Learning foreign and second languages. Perspectives in research and Scholarship. The U.S. The modern language association of America.

[29] Mathews, A., Spratt, M. and Dangerfield, L. (1991). At the Chalk Face. Practical Techniques in Language teaching. Hong Kong: Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd.

integration and development of English language skills while teaching in medical academy. I think the classroom observation would be very important for this study.

One more objective of this chapter was to find out which language skill teachers found difficult to integrate. Teachers of Fergana state university and Fergana branch of Tashkent medical academy were asked to state language skills they found difficult to integrate. The responses fixed and the frequency showed the level of responses. The frequency indicates how many times the responses were recorded.

Teachers Found Difficult to Integrate English Language Skills

Skill(s) difficult to integrate	Frequency	Percentage
Listening	14	70
Speaking	3	15
Reading	2	10
Writing	1	5
Total	20	100

Teachers were asked which language skill(s) they found difficult to integrate. Based on the results, majority, seventy percent (70%) indicated that listening skill was difficult to integrate, fifteen percent (15%) speaking, ten percent (10%) reading while only five percent (5%) cited writing to be difficult to integrate. Results show that speaking and listening were difficult to integrate by English language teachers when teaching. Teachers attributed this to the fact that wrong forms of spoken English have over time, become institutionalized in society. Teachers also listed the following as challenges affecting their teaching and integrating language skills: (1) Teachers felt that the hours given for integration of skills was not enough to enable them teach them effectively. Due to this they could not use the recommended techniques or improvise some resources, (2) some teachers

complained that since they trained on specialized in one area they found it difficult to teach the other area which they had no interest, (3) some teachers complained of lack of knowledge on integrated skills leading to poor lesson preparation. They also said that speaking and listening calls for a lot of involvement of the students.

1.5. Effective Strategies for Teaching English Language Learners

Effective classroom teaching requires professional commitment. If teachers are to sustain a success-oriented environment by promoting student learning throughout the academic year, they must continually and thoroughly address the teaching act, which is founded on the planning and implementing of instructional activities and the assessing of student performance.

In my research work I believe that I am offering a foundation that will promote student learning by encouraging effective classroom teaching and providing a solid framework for in-depth study in EFL teaching area.

A teaching strategy is the method used to deliver information in the classroom, online, or in some other medium. Effective teaching strategies help to activate students' curiosity about a class topic, engage students in learning, develop critical thinking skills, keep students on task, engender sustained and useful classroom interaction, and, in general, enable and enhance the learning of course content.

The goal of a teaching strategy is to facilitate learning, to motivate learners, to engage them in learning, and to help them focus. There is no one best strategy; we can select from several instructional strategies for just about any subject. It is important to vary instruction not only to keep the students' interest, but also to allow them to interact with content in a variety of ways that appeal to various learning styles. A teaching strategy comprises the principles and methods used for instruction. Commonly used teaching methods may include lecture, class

participation, demonstration, project-based learning, or memorization, but some combination of these usually results in the most effective strategy; that is, a strategy that engages a diversity of learning styles through varied instruction. The choice of teaching strategy or strategies to be used depends largely on the information or skill that is being taught, and it may also be influenced by the learning style, aptitude, skills, and enthusiasm of the students.

The strategies in this unit are designed to help students to become more fluent and successful writers. The learning strategies included address such areas as time management, behavior, speaking, listening, reading, writing, grammar, and vocabulary building. These strategies are intertwined on all levels. They focus on the variety of learning styles in the classroom as well. They will also find pleasure in the various activities that require them to consider, investigate, and evaluate certain photographs and art pieces. Auditory learners will benefit from the discussions about the 9/11 snap shots and the investigative reporters sections. Kinesthetic learners will enjoy the opportunities to set up an art gallery and a bulletin board of people lost in the World Trade Center after 9/11. Tactile learners will appreciate the rendering of a cityscape after our discussion of the elements and principles of drawing and design, and visual learners will treasure the entire experience since our focus is directed at all things visual.

Time Management Strategy

University students are typical adolescents. They march to their own drum, and it often does not include education in its beat. Nonetheless, they must be in school. In my opinion as a strategy, teacher should always provide students with a monthly coursework sheet outlining all assignments, both written and oral, homework, due dates, and the point value of everything listed on the sheet. Each exercise or requirement is explained in as much detail as possible, but allowances are always made for changing school circumstances such as unexpected meetings

or school closing during winter months. Teacher's email address appears at the top of each sheet so students can reach and question their teacher when they are at home. A requirement for the class is to place this sheet in their English binder. This strategy provides a sense of security to some students who need it.

Behavioral Strategy

Classroom management is paramount in the education. Knowing that students come to school with behavioral issues mentioned in rationale, lessons need excitement, high interest, and dramatic subject matter using hands-on activities. This focus needs to be sustained throughout the unit. As an educator, I teach Socratically, challenging my students to get them to answer their own questions by making them think and drawing out the answer from them. This rapid and repeated questioning plays into their hyper-attentive, high-tech world. Yet, in my classroom, my students aren't always willing to stay focused on the topic at hand and respond to the questions being asked. They would rather be socializing or drawing, and they hate being called out for these behaviors. Thinking it over, I needed a strategy that got their heads "back in class" without calling them out. My approach is simple. I encourage on-task behavior by repeating the last student's answer as I continue questioning. "Islam just said….Do you agree with his statement, Lola?" This is a very valuable method of instruction to remember and employ. It does not embarrass the student who has not been listening, restates the ideas that he or she need to consider getting back on task. Giving students these avenues of redirection and thought encourages the low-threat, high-challenge environment that is sorely needed by my students. They have quietly and without fanfare been given the ideas to think and write about, thus removing the deer-in-the-headlights look so many students have when asked to reflect on a certain topic when their attention has been waning.

Speaking and Listening Strategies

Adolescents like to talk, a lot. Most teachers do not have problems getting them to engage in this type of activity but often take issue with off-task talking in the classroom. The fact is that students are not given enough time to voice their opinions on anything. Part of the problem is that teachers do not set up rules for discussion so the classroom quickly turns into a cacophony of noise in which no one hears anything anyone is saying and the activity ends in failure. Students need to hear language spoken correctly in order to become effective speakers and writers. Yet some teachers of middle school give up far too easily after a few sessions like the one just mentioned. There are several ways around this. One idea that works is giving the student who has the floor a soft object of some kind. The object is passed to the next speaker when he or she is finished. Another way that is effective is to insist that the current speaker repeat the main idea of the last speaker before he or she begins his thought.

A third strategy is to have small groups discuss the issue then report back as a whole. In this way, the somewhat expected, off-task behavior is not offensive to the teacher. The old-fashioned raising-of-the-hands strategy also works wonders if established from day one in the classroom. It is important to take the time necessary to establish these behaviors at the beginning of the year as students need and want to understand the boundaries and expectations of the classroom.

On the part of the teacher, it is fundamental that correct syntax be reinforced. When a student uses language correctly, it should be repeated and reinforced by the teacher. If, on the other hand, a student uses incorrect sentence structure, a teacher should repeat the idea of the student using the correct pronunciation and grammar. A teacher must provide incentive for listening and speaking. Having students listening for specific information as an answer to some fundamental questions, keeps students focused. These questions should appear in print either on

the board, on an overhead projector, or on paper, so students can refer to them from time to time.

There is another issue in this mix - participation in discussion. Simply put, teachers need to choose topics that the students will want to discuss. Designing discussions around exciting topics will ensure that students pay attention. Allowing plenty of time for the discussion will signal to students that their voices and opinions are valued and respected. Their input also signals the recognition of the diversity of the opinions held by every student in the class. When possible, students should have the opportunity to choose their own topics. Having students understand that participation in discussion is an integral part of their grade might attract those reluctant students who seem to remain invisible in the classroom.

Top Ten Ways to Reduce Speaking Anxiety

1. Remember, you are not alone. Public speaking anxiety is common, so don't ignore it—confront it.
2. You can't literally "die of embarrassment." Audiences are forgiving and understanding.
3. It always feels worse than it looks.
4. Take deep breaths. It releases endorphins, which naturally fight the adrenaline that causes anxiety.
5. Look the part. Dress professionally to enhance confidence.
6. Channel your nervousness into positive energy and motivation.
7. Start your outline and research early. Better information = higher confidence.
8. Practice and get feedback from a trusted source. (Don't just practice for your cat.)
9. Visualize success through positive thinking.
10. Prepare, prepare, prepare! Practice is a speaker's best friend.

Writing and Grammar Strategies

The Uzbek language is different in form from English. This holds true for both thinking and speaking. Since writing comes from thought, students' writing takes on the "Uzbek" form. Writing with an accent results in syntactical errors and misuse of vocabulary, though not through any fault of the writer. Bilingual students are simply following the Uzbek patterns of writing. As with any language, there are a few exceptions. In English adjectives describe nouns and generally precede them. Uzbek verbs change their form. There are several areas, where students seem to commit errors in syntax. The activities in the lessons provide direct help through recognition on graphic organizers of some of these issues. There are many writing exercises and partner editing opportunities that will further their skills in these areas.

Additionally, since exposure and usage of evolving language increase vocabulary and more complex sentence structures, the more students use language, the better they will be able to handle its nuances. Using more complex, motivating and appealing topics and texts, they will experience language configurations using graphic organizers that students will also begin using in their writing. It is then that students might feel comfortable enough to make meaningful inferences and connections as they explore topics in writing.

However, herein lays the problem. If students are doubtful of their writing ability, they are not comfortable or secure about it. They feel they need a security blanket. A simple example of this problem involves the persuasive essay. When they address a persuasive writing assignment, they want to remain within the comfort zone of the "formula writing" referred to as the five-paragraph essay. It was a very effective, introductory writing tool. As the result of continuous practice using this method, students can develop a reasonable essay staying within the confines of the formula. Not that this is a negative in writing. It certainly addresses

the idea of defining three reasons in defense of an argument and their sequencing, but it is an immature writing form when considering what will be expected of them in years to come. In essence, this form becomes a crutch. Each writing piece looks just like the last. Students become prisoners to this form and become unaware of what an argument looks like in academic writing. Without reading, they are not exposed to more complex language proficiencies, so this writing form becomes their consistent and steadfast model. Because they are held prisoner to this writing form, they do not come into their own voices, and they continue to use the same format repeatedly. It becomes formulaic, in essence, comfortable, and safe. It is a fill-in-the-blank writing structure, and it represses their voices.

A practice that I have found useful as a method for developing appropriate uses of language is writing a newspaper. The skills involved in putting together a newspaper are the same skills I will employ as we prepare for the opening of our art gallery. The idea is to put into practice "on the job" training. Verbal interaction with peers displays more frequent use of language because students are able to generate meaning out of their own experience as editors, writers, reporters, and artists. The interpersonal collaboration necessary to develop a framework for a newspaper or, in this case, an art gallery, requires an extensive use of vocabulary in a situation controlled by them. From the start, students are heavily involved in the "process" of creating this gallery; from the ideas for the artwork, to the assignments in defense of their piece of art, to the actual set up of the gallery. These literacy-based activities encourage the use of correct English because each student understands that opening an art gallery requires many eyes before it becomes a reality.

In short, all adult learners need adult-appropriate content, materials, and activities that speak to their needs and interests and allow them to demonstrate their knowledge and abilities. English language learners may differ from other learners to the extent that culture, language, and experience play roles in the

learning. For example, many adult learners have been accustomed to teacher centered classrooms where they were not encouraged to participate. It may take time for learners to become comfortable with the more learner-centered EFL class where their participation is expected and encouraged.

1.6. The conclusion of the chapter I

Providing information about good foreign language teaching is the main purpose of this chapter. *Language Teaching and Skill Learning* issues are important in the field of language learning and teaching. In my research work I tried to investigate some valuable approaches of current thinking about second language acquisition, but have also tried reassess of the view of language as a skill among other skills.

In proposing a skills framework for language teaching, I have placed leading professors' views of cognitive approaches to language, and have collected a wide range of evidence.

The teachers' opinions gave me interesting insights to be confirmed later with the students in the group discussions. I collected interviews of the FL teachers of our university and the teachers of Fergana Branch Tashkent medical academy. I have also studied the information on how different social and individual factors affected the students learning. In order to conduct the research of this chapter, research questions were formed: What are the teachers' opinions and feelings about learning skills?

A qualitative approach allowed me to find answers to the research question and sub-questions. The chapter I also suggests that teaching English as a foreign language requires creative, innovative and motivating teaching strategies. Furthermore, there is evidence that effective language learning is facilitated by teachers through providing a non-threatening environment in which learners feel

comfortable and self-confident and are encouraged to take risks to use the target language.

The research work helped to provide insight for me as a teacher in the university, how to initiate and maintain students' motivation in learning English as a foreign language by avoiding a possible mismatch between students' and teachers' perceptions of motivational strategies in teaching English.

CHAPTER II SCIENTIFIC - METHODICAL BASES OF DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

2.1. Evolution in Understanding the Notion of Language as Skill in Foreign Language Didactics

At present, speaking a foreign language represents one of the essential requirements of today´s society. I can confirm that knowing a foreign language is a necessity for everyone. The president of the republic of Uzbekistan paid a significant attention to improve the system of learning foreign languages and adopted the decree PD-1875 on ”The further improving the system of learning foreign languages” on December 10th 2012. This order makes the teachers feel and comprehends responsibility, in fulfilling the given task, as well as contributes to the implementation of reforms, master our professional teaching skills. Teachers have limitless possibilities in the progression of education and education technology. In modern society, because of globalization, communications between nations is widely active.

On another hand, economic area has shifted from developed country to developing country. Therefore, the communication between people who are from different cultural background is more and more prevalent. During the connection, people who have intercultural communication competence are easy to achieve their goal in their notational, particularly in business world. From this point of view, as a future teacher, we have to think about how to make our students have ability to receive the challenge after their graduation, how to make them communicate

properly with foreigners, and how to train or cultivate their competence of intercultural communication.

The unit of this chapter presents the evolution in our understanding of the nature of language as skill as three stages which span the end of the 19th century and the turn of the 21st century. It examines some selected significant conceptualizations of the term ‘language skill’ and lists the differences between experts and novices in skilful language use. The tendency toward an increasingly realistic treatment of language as skill is illustrated by a contrast between characteristic features of the graphemic and the phonemic sub-codes in language use for comprehension and production. Such a specific, psycholinguistic understanding can be regarded as an ‘empirical anchor’ in modeling non-primary language use Evolution in Understanding the Notion of Language as Skill and learning in the context of verbal communication, useful as the basis for systematizing strategies of teaching foreign language skills in the educational context.

Three stages in the evolution of understanding language as skill in the field of foreign language didactics is researched in this unit. Taking into account such criteria as the socioeconomic situation, the state of technology and the purposes for which English as a foreign language is used, learned and taught, three stages can be distinguished in the evolving conceptions of language as skill:

1) the philological stage;
2) the linguistic stage; and
3) the psycholinguistic stage (early, middle, and present).

Stages 2 and 3 deserve a closer inspection in that the ideas on the development of foreign language skills have been derived from increasingly solid scientific bases, such as linguistics and psycholinguistics, as well as from research on second/foreign language learning. The psycholinguistic stage, which spans at least four decades, emphasizes the uniqueness of the phonemic and graphemic sub-

codes in comprehension and production, modality-specific considerations relevant from the perspective of the language learner, the characteristic seepage of various cues such as linguistic, para- and non-linguistic in the process of language use as skill, the role of communicative constraints in language use, and last but not least, the centrality of meaning, especially domain-specific content and expertise.

Table 1. Essential characteristics of the three stages in understanding foreign language skills (based on Dakowska 2001; 2003; 2005)

The philological stage	**The linguistic stage mid 20th century**	**The psycholinguistic stage turn of the 21st Century**
• early industrial society; • language use for (elite) educational purposes (reading); • interpersonal communication of a limited kind, i.e. restricted in terms of space and intensity; • printed and spoken input in the target language; mainly philological inspirations, classical texts in teaching; • the knowledge of language understood as the knowledge of grammar rules and the ability to understand texts; • the ability to understand	• late industrial society; •language use for extensive interpersonal /intercultural communication; • the growth of mass media, communication technology and fast transit for extensive mass mobility; • language input from the printed and spoken sources, but enriched with the discourse of the media; • focus on colloquial language; • definitions of language and learning derived from linguistics and psychology;	•information/global society; • language use for extensive interpersonal, intercultural and global communication; • further growth of mass media and spread of the Internet, which beats space and time in verbal communication; • the status of English as a world language for global communication, justifying its learning for specialized, professional, expertise demanding purposes (ESP); •progress in nderstanding verbal communication as a

texts treated as the ability of translating them into the native language; • translation for the purpose of semantizing in reading comprehension; •foreign language teaching based on descriptive and normative grammar, informal observations and common-sense principles.	• clash between habit formation and rule learning; • search for ideal methods of foreign language teaching; • emphasis on language teaching rather than learning, including the four language skills; • hotly-debated issues: primacy of speech, the pre-reading, or silent period, the role of silent reading versus reading aloud, • are skills really passive? • the concept of a common core of the four language skills; • skill-oriented activities from a structural syllabus; •beginnings of sycholinguistic research of language skills; • the field of foreign language teaching seen as methodology.	psychological and sociological phenomenon, including cross-cultural and global communication in its various situational contexts; •advances in the sycholinguistic understanding of comprehension and production in the four language skills in L1 and L2; • understanding of the relationship between language and its use in various sub-codes thanks to research on the deaf, blind and dyslexics; • the notion of multimodal representations underlying individual skills;

Experts versus novices in language use as skill

In view of the above, experts in the use of skills can be contrasted with novices on the basis of such criteria as fluency of their performance, degree of accuracy, certainty regarding forms, meta-cognitive regulation of their performance, the awareness of the global target model for the performance, and the use of elaborate forms.

Table. Skill differences between experts and novices in language tasks (Anderson 1981)

EXPERTS	NOVICES
1. are characterized by fluent performance 2. accurate performance in the sense of a rather limited number of errors 3. display certainty regarding the forms 4. longer, more developed/elaborated tasks 5. strategies and metacognitive regulation 6. mental global model, or standard 7. deeper processing, more critical evaluation of the task.	1. by more hesitant performance 2. distinctly more errors in their performance 3. lack of certainty regarding language forms 4. shorter, more laconic tasks 5. strategies still to be developed; resources unavailable for metacognitive regulation 6. insufficient or missing model or standard 7. surface processing, focus on local aspects of the task.

Toward a sufficiently specific understanding of the concept

Defining the concept of language as skill relevant from the point of view of foreign didactics calls for a realistic context of language use for communicative purposes, so that the vast potential of the notion of language can be limited to what people (language learners, language users) really do in sociocultural situations. Therefore, such a definition can be situated:

a) within the natural constraints of language use in verbal communication for the purpose of influencing others; i.e. the central role of meaning (content and expertise) in the context of humanly feasible encounters, relationships and situations;

b) as an inalienable property of language users, i.e. human subjects including their mental and sociocultural environment; i.e. the ubiquity of top-down and bottom-up interactions between the processing subjects and their environment;

c) whole-person involvement in verbal communication, which is to say that language users tap all their resources and mental capacities for communicative situations, such as their cognitive system, emotions, volition, imagination,

imagery, language and body language, visual and analogical information processing, personal culture, etc.;

d) sufficiently specific for the purpose of TEFL, i.e. sensitive to modality-specific considerations; focus on the sub-codes and their distinctive features.

Language skill in the cycle of language use (knowledge, skill, discourse)

The term 'cycle' means that the episodes of communication are recursive: a full cycle involves the sender's intention reaching the addressee to be reconstructed in his or her mind as well as a response on the part of the addressee reaching the sender's mind to be reconstructed and evaluated. Each individual is equipped to take both the role of the sender (producer) and comprehended (addressee), whereas their communicative intentions are largely determined by their knowledge, goals, previous exchanges as well as the entire context of the situation. Since people enter communicative encounters in some social roles with agendas and expectations, their communicative intentions are determined by these social roles, identities, motives, and desires. Therefore, it is necessary to posit, for both the sender and the addressee, the appropriate representations in their minds required in verbal communication, that is:

a) language as knowledge is a distributed propositional as well as declarative and procedural networks of mental representations;

b) language use as skill, a complex form of behavior which enables the communicating person to integrate hierarchically organized choices from among various representations, and their execution in the form of speaking or writing, and

c) language product in the form of discourse, i.e. linear encoding of our communicative intention in the form of an utterance or written text.

To sum up, knowledge refers to the vastly distributed mental networks, hierarchies and systems of information, activated in encoding and decoding communicative intentions. It includes a variety of representations: words in our mental lexicon categorized from the point of view of form, associations and meaning, modality specific representations, declarative and procedural records,

syntagmatic and paradigmatic representations, (preverbal) plans, schemata, scenarios, scripts, conventions and rules, as well as models of culture-specific discourse genres. Knowledge may be fuzzy and poorly organized, and therefore harder to access, as much as well-organized and explicit, and thus more easily accessible and available for verbalization.

In this context, the notion of language use as skill has been defined as a behavioral category denoting a hierarchical integration of communicative choices, which enable the language user to resort to controlled processes for the strategically more important decisions and execute them with the help of subordinated automatic processes. Automatization of lower-level choices helps the language user to keep pace with the communicative fluency demands. The lexical material as well as the syntagmatic plans and other linear arrangements are activated in converting the intention into discourse. The choices that the speaker makes must be implemented in fractions of seconds. The qualitative difference between knowledge in the sense of mental representations and skill as a behavioral category is not only in the ability of the language user to retrieve the required information from memory, but first of all, the ability– within the constraints of his or her working memory – to integrate the necessary operations in time to control the composing activity and regulate its course/direction. The lower-level choices must be automatic to free the attentional resources for the more ambitious and demanding level of the task. The learner's route to automatization is via practice and it has its own progression identified by Fitts (1964) as the declarative, associative and autonomous stages. The difficulty of developing skills in foreign language learning results from the fact that the integration and automaticity necessary in skilled language use are developed via flexible adjustable acts of composing utterances, i.e. they must be practiced in countless communicative tasks which take time, in contrast to rigid language drills aimed at fixed grammatical forms, taken out of their communicative environment. Skill acquisition requires relevant models of behavior, practice, imitation and repetition, rehearsal, deliberate

planning, integration, whole-part task strategy, feedback incorporation, etc., provided the material is communicatively relevant and the unit of activity is sufficiently sizeable to be stored as a communicative event, which is to say, it must have an episodic structure of a meaningful communicative task. Discourse is the tangible and even permanent language product of encoding in verbal communication and may even be recorded in a form more permanent than the auditory one. The distinctive property of this natural unit of verbal communication is the unity of the communicative intention, constructed by the sender and directed at the addressee, as well as its deep embeddedness in the situational context by means of reference and deixis. Discourse hangs together because of its coherence and cohesion, i.e. topical connectivity and prosodic, morphosyntactic and lexical suprasentential devices that retain the links between the new and given information from the speaker's perspective to hold the thread of discourse together. From the point of view of the needs of language learners, the most important function of discourse is that of language input, i.e. the source of information on how competent speakers code their communicative intentions into target language forms and do this intelligibly as well as idiomatically in situational contexts. More specifically, target language discourse is a model and a source of knowledge about discourse genres, i.e. culturally specific discourse types with their domain terminology, structure and characteristic coherence and cohesion devices. Practising discourse production must entail the experience of using the coherence and cohesion devices accurately over some communicative distances within the working memory constraints. Discourse is not only an outcome of communicative processes, the effect of language production and the material for comprehension, but also the material for study and reasoning. It may be taken apart and put back together again; the underlying plan may be inferred and reconstructed with a view to its conventions. Lexical units of various sizes may be perceived, semanticized, elaborated, systematized and learned in connection with it. The ability to produce discourse may be developed with the use of models for imitation, partial imitation,

completion and summarizing, parallel writing, analysis and recognition of discourse plans and conventions, as well as in relevant partial tasks which include planning, drafting/rehearsing, editing/feedback incorporation and rewriting/retelling, as well as process writing (Dakowska 2003).

Options in developing language skills

The table below systematizes options that are available in the field of foreign language didactics for the development of language use as skill, ensuing from our understanding of this complex, but specific notion:

1. Task adjustment strategies	Pre-teaching for the task, orientation/anticipation strategies, no time constraints, compression, elaboration (built-in redundancy), augmentation and salience/prominence given to task elements, etc.
2. Learning by observation	source of language knowledge, such as situational discourse models, schemata and scenarios, including lexical material and standards for skill-demanding tasks
3.Imitation, i.e. verbatim repetition, of ready tasks	opportunity to coordinate and sustain the production of longer chunks of discourse to "stretch" the limitations of the learner's working memory and enhance fluency.

2.2. From Communicative Competence to Intercultural Communicative Competence: A New Proposal for Language Skills

To define the construct under discussion in the most general sense, we may present intercultural (communicative) competence as "a complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself" (Fantini, 2006, p. 12). Concerning the linguistic (as well as cultural) difference some questions may arise,

a) about the origin of speakers, i.e. their mother tongue, and

b) about the language of the dialogue which serves as a framework for the usage of intercultural (communicative) competence. Throughout the literature, we

may find various terms defining more or less similarly perceived constructs, however, the two most widely used are the terms intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence. Opinions on defining and understanding these terms vary; we believe that it is important to specify our own position concerning the mentioned terms and to emphasize certain discrepancies between them.

Some authors perceive the terms synonymously, these definitions mostly originate from the provenience of English language speaking countries, in other words, from the context of English language as a contemporary lingua franca. Although foreign language as such is not usually explicitly discussed in these models, they do not omit the aspect of communication completely (e.g. Deardorff, 2004, 2009; Fantini, 1995 revised 2001 and 2005, 2000). On the contrary, models originating from the area of the European Union often emphasize the role of foreign language as a prerequisite for intercultural communication (e.g. Byram, 1997; Lázár et al., 2007). It is thus possible and desirable to distinguish between intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence. According to Byram (1997, pp. 70–71), in the first case, individuals have the ability to interact in their own language with people from another country and culture. On the other hand, someone with Intercultural Communicative Competence is able to interact with people from another country and culture in a foreign language. Byram further describes the relationship between intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence as a degree of complexity and the ability to deal with a wider range of situations of contact in the latter than in the former. Fantini (2009, p. 458) similarly claims:

Increasingly, language educators contend that foreign language learning should increase students' intercultural competence (IC) which would allow them to see relationships between different cultures, mediate across these cultures, and critically analyze cultures including their own (Chapelle, 2010). Language teachers

have now recognized their role in eliciting culture learning in their classrooms and ways to access that learning (Moloney and Harbon, 2010). One such way proposed by Schulz (2007) is through utilization of culture learning portfolios. According to Schulz, the teaching of intercultural competence should include developing awareness of variables that affect communicative interactions, recognizing stereotypes and evaluating them, and developing awareness of types of causes for cultural misunderstandings between members of different cultures. The use of a culture-learning portfolio allows teachers to assess students' progress over time based on specific objectives that can be related to individual student interest. These portfolios encourage critical reflection and self evaluation and, especially important in the area of cultural learning, the use of multiple sources of evidence (Schulz, 2007: p. 18). Despite much research into effective strategies and approaches to teaching and assessing intercultural competency in foreign language classrooms (particularly in the United States), several challenges have been put forward. One such challenge is that of sensitizing students to the value of seeing the world through the language/culture of another and creating a more affective climate for developing intercultural competency in an environment where a monolingual monocultural national linguistic identity rules at home and global English rules abroad.

No matter what terminological label the related terms possess (let us use ICC further on), we agree with Fantini who defined ICC as a construct comprising of various components that need to be taken into account to be able to overcome the above mentioned differences. The core components of ICC include (Fantini, 2000):

- a variety of traits and characteristics some commonly cited traits of ICC include: flexibility, humor, patience, openness, interest, curiosity, empathy, tolerance for ambiguity, and suspending judgment, among others; three areas or domains ICC involves ability in three areas or domains:

- the ability to establish and maintain relationships;
- the ability to communicate with minimal loss or distortion;
- the ability to collaborate in order to accomplish something of mutual interest or need;
- four dimensions – ICC has four dimensions, these include:
- knowledge;
- (positive) attitudes;
- skills;
- awareness
- proficiency in the host language – the ability to communicate in a second or foreign language is important to the development of ICC.

Grappling with another language challenges how one perceives, conceptualizes, and expresses oneself; and in the process, it opens the possibility of developing alternative communication strategies on someone else's terms. This humbling process often results in transcending and transforming how one understands the world. Lack of a second language – even at a minimal level – constrains one to continue to think about the world and act within it, only in one's native system, and deprives the individual of one of the most valuable aspects of the intercultural experience;

- varying levels of attainment throughout a longitudinal and developmental process – the development of ICC usually involves a longitudinal and on-going process. For this reason, various benchmarks may be helpful to mark one's

journey along the way. At World Learning, four levels have been found useful for our context. These are:

Level I: Educational Traveler

Level II: Sojourner

Level III: Professional and Level IV: Intercultural/multicultural Specialist.

All the components are closely interrelated and would be worthless in isolation, however, (especially) in the educational context, many aspects need to be taken from characteristics acquired/developed during one's life or the role of family and take into consideration, such as the possibility to distinguish inborn personal qualities the role of the educational system. Both distinctions are rather important for intercultural education since they pose a question of which characteristics and abilities can and should be developed through educational influence at schools, and furthermore, which of them should and can be assessed or tested.

To sum up, only some components of ICC can be evolved through school education and training. Many authors concentrate on the component of language (processes of language teaching and learning) and the fact that ICC comprises of particular dimensions. The quantity and quality of the dimensions in question vary according to an author(s) and also in relation to the discipline of origin. The dimensions in particular are perceived as suitable for didactic transformation on an ontodidactic as well as psychodidactic level and so for operationalization, i.e. its development and further assessment.

2.3. Technology and Language Skills: Computer Games and Language Skills Development

In this early part of the 21st century the range of technologies available for use in language learning and teaching has become very diverse and the ways that they are being used in classrooms all over the world have become central to language practice.

However, digital tools, or what I will describe as 'technical cultural artefacts' have long been a feature of the world of education (Bates, 2005), and particularly language education (Salaberry, 2001). These digital tools are, of course, central in what I would argue is the established and recognized field of computer assisted language learning (CALL), but are also increasingly a core part of English language teaching (ELT) in general.

People continue to debate the use of the term CALL itself, asking whether it is still relevant. Levy and Hubbard making the argument for, whilst Dudeney and Hockly are rather less convinced. In a world where we increasingly see laptops, tablet computers, or mobile phones as the technology of choice, it might be argued that we are at a tipping point when this common term will soon disappear.

A useful definition of CALL comes from Levy: 'the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning'.

CALL has its origins in the development of the first mainframe computers (Levy, 1997; Beatty, 2010; Davies et al., 2013) and articles about the use of computers in language education started appearing in earnest in the 1980s, over 30 years ago, at the same time as early desktop computers started to make an appearance.

Since computers started to be introduced in language learning (and in education in general) people have rightly asked whether the investment we are making in these technologies gives us value for money. As digital technologies have taken a hold in society in general, this particular question is not asked quite so often, but it is still important to make sure that the technologies that we have available are used effectively. People are always tempted to try to make an argument for technology having an impact on the development of pedagogy and in many cases we

can see that the use of technology has enabled teachers to re-think what they are doing.

We also see people trying to populate this domain by talking about notions like the 'flipped classroom', ostensibly a methodology that sees input as occurring at 'home' and physical classrooms being used as spaces to explore what has been presented in the input. This is far from being a new idea, but these agendas are pushed for a while and then disappear again. What is a contender for a methodology that is central to the world of technology and language learning is that of blended learning (Motteram and Sharma, 2009). We see this methodology still being developed, but when handled best it is the most likely candidate for a starting point for getting teachers to work with technology in their practice. It is still the case that most teachers work in physical classrooms and looking at ways that these spaces can be augmented with digital technologies is a very good starting point.

An extended classroom is one that allows learners to engage in material beyond the regular class period, so while a blended classroom is looking at ways that an activity might be enhanced by a technology, we also see technologies being used to make it possible to cover areas of the curriculum that there is just not enough time for in the busy world of formal education, particularly in primary and secondary schools. Thorne and Reinhardt (2008) have also proposed the notion of 'bridging activities', which simplistically is about getting learners to talk about how learners are using technology in their 'out of class lives' in the classroom.

Thorne and Reinhardt (2008) are interested in fan fiction, the sort of narrative material that is created around digital gaming. What they propose is that teachers encourage learners to bring this activity into the classroom with them and they use it as the foundations of lessons.

The internet can be a vast treasure trove of English learning games and activities, but teachers should not underestimate the potential for making their own games for their learners. Indeed, there is also huge potential to enable learners to become 'game-developers' and publish for their peers. Language games and activities

not only provide a framework for reviewing existing language but can also be used to explore and acquire new language[30].

There are numerous online tools for developing games and activities as well as standalone packages such as '2Simple's 2 Do It Yourself' (https://www.2simple.com/2diy/) software, which is easy enough for younger learners to use as well as providing enough complexity to keep older learners engaged. Here is a useful blog posting about creating language learning games: http://larryferlazzo.edublogs.org/2008/04/21/the-best-websites-for-creating-online-learning-games/

Portable devices such as tablet computers, smart and feature phones and MP3 players have particular resonance for English teaching in situations where practitioners move between different locations and where learning occurs in isolated contexts. These technologies have the potential to deliver high quality multimedia stored on internal drives or removable memory cards or that can be accessed over wireless and telecommunication networks. Many portable devices feature long-lasting batteries, particularly important where power supplies are only available during certain times of the day. Moreover, some can be powered using solar cells or charged via wind-up mechanisms.

Touch sensitive screens and simple menu systems may also be of particular benefit in situations where a lack of familiarity with mice, keyboards and operating systems might inhibit learning.

Many mobile devices sport one or more cameras and where there is a reliable internet connection, users can communicate over distance using simple video conferencing tools. GPS functionality and internal compasses also enable users to access and interact with powerful mapping tools. Front facing cameras allow learners to be creative as well as enabling them to trigger the release of information, for example by scanning QR codes (a type of barcode). In-built audio recording

[30] Dalton, S (2005) *Language Learning Games: Why, When, and How*. Southern New Hampshire University. Available online at: http://gaeacoop.org/dalton/publications/LanguageGames.pdf

functionality allows children to record their thoughts about an area of learning or perhaps interview peers or family members prior to a task.

Mobile phones and other ‘smart’ devices are perfect for developing mobile assisted language learning (MALL) activities. Clever software can facilitate the delivery of multi-modal content as well as offering the potential to register user interaction, provide feedback and track progress.

2.4. The Analysis of Reading Skills of English among medical students of Fergana Branch Tashkent Medical Academy

Reading in a second or foreign language (SL/FL) has been a significant component of language learning over the past forty years. This significance has made reading education an important issue in educational policy and practice for English language learners. However, reading is a complex, interactive cognitive process of extracting meaning from text. In the reading process, the reader is an active participant, constructing meaning from clues in the reading text. Reading is also an individual process, which explains the different interpretations of different readers. Learning to read is an absolutely necessary skill for understanding FL texts. Readers may use useful strategies to help them read FL texts as they construct meaning. Using such strategies will help learners not only to understand general information in the reading text at very fast rates but also to remember new lexical items from the text.

Most learners have reading problems because they lack the specific strategies necessary for efficient reading. When FL reading is a laborious, unpleasant, and unsuccessful process, readers will often be unwilling to read in the target language. This explains why most EFL learners do not enjoy reading in English. They simply do not understand what they are reading (Arnold, 2009; Nuttall, 1982).

In addition, most EFL learners encounter difficulties in reading text. In 1998, Vogel indicated that about 52% of adults with reading problems had difficulties in learning a FL. Schiff and Calif (2004) further explained that EFL students had reading problems because of a lack of knowledge and awareness of how to apply

reading strategies. Consequently, EFL students need to master sufficient reading strategies to construct the meaning of the text.

In non-native English speaking countries, the high school English curriculum often adopts a reading skill oriented textbook that focuses on vocabulary, sentence structure, and grammar. The content primarily consists of articles with exercises to extend vocabulary and sentence patterns. However, most of students lack knowledge of appropriate EFL reading strategies, or they use such strategies inadequately.

The use of sufficient EFL reading strategies is considered to be one of the important factors contributing to successful language learning. Oxford and Crookall (1989) suggested that SL/FL learners use reading strategies to develop more efficient and effective language learning. Using these strategies provides EFL learners with good models for writing, gives opportunities to introduce new topics, stimulates discussion, and allows the study of linguistic components such as vocabulary, grammar, and idioms (Richards & Renandya, 2002). Reading strategies can also help EFL students to overcome reading difficulties. These studies provided constructive suggestions, such as teachers could help "correct" poor EFL readers' strategic knowledge and help them to deal effectively with the academic reading they face. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the EFL reading strategies that high school students currently use in order to find out what reading strategies the students need to use to comprehend what they read, to develop reading skills, and to unconsciously increase their vocabularies and syntactic knowledge.

Most EFL students in high schools learn from reading-based English textbooks without using efficient reading strategies. More importantly, the EFL reading strategies they use to comprehend the text also remain unknown. In addition, many studies in past decades have investigated EFL reading strategies, but few have used high school students as participants. The present study explores the current use of EFL reading strategies among medical academy students. The results of this study

serve as a valuable source for understanding students' uses of EFL reading strategies at the high school level.

Research in the field of EFL reading has identified some variables that influence the SL reading process. These variables include strategy choices, background knowledge, and reading proficiency in the first and second languages (Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001). Of these variables, reading strategy choices is the one most often discussed and studied. Several definitions of SL/FL reading strategies can be found in the literature. Oxford and Crookall (1989) explained SL/FL reading strategies as learning techniques, behaviors, problem-solving skills, or study skills that can lead learners to more effective and efficient learning. Grabe and Stoller (2001) defined the distinction between skills and strategies. In their definition, a SL/FL reading skill could become a reading strategy when it was used intentionally, and a SL/FL strategy could be relatively automatic in its use by a fluent reader. Using SL/FL strategies has been shown to be a significant and viable approach to developing ESL and EFL ability (Day & Bamford, 1998), particularly in foreign language environments with limited sources of second language input.

In my research work I investigated the use of EFL reading strategies among students of Fergana Branch Tashkent medical academy.

The participants consisted of 100 students from the first year 1 to the third year. Compulsory reading materials were provided by the researcher. The instrument used in this study was the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS). The SORS mainly examines the type and frequency of the use of reading strategies by ESL adolescent and adult students when they read English academic materials such as textbooks and journal articles. The SORS consists of 30 items measuring three categories of English reading strategies: namely, problem-solving strategies, global reading strategies, and support strategies. For this study, it was translated into Uzbek, the native language of the participants. The questionnaire items were rated on a five-point Likerttype scale: strongly agree (5), agree (4), uncertain (3), disagree (2), and strongly disagree (1).

In this study, the SORS was translated into Uzbek to facilitate respondents' understanding. Descriptive analysis was used to explore the participants' uses of EFL reading strategies.

Results for each of the 30 individual reading strategies (problem-solving, global, and support) are presented in the order of use frequency, from high (3.5 and above) and moderate (2.5~3.4) to low (2.4 and under), in Table 1. The respondents reported 22 high-frequency strategies and 8 moderate-frequency ones. There were no low-frequency reading strategies. The most frequently used reading strategy was a global strategy, I think about what I know to help me (M=4.07); this was followed by one global strategy, I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read (M=3.99) and one problem-solving strategy, When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases (M=3.93).

Table 1. Means and standard deviations for the survey of English reading strategies

Categories	Strategies	Mean	SD
Problem-Solving	I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading.	3.82	1.65
	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	3.87	86
	I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	3.65	90
	When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	3.68	1.50
	I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	3.47	.91
	I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.	3.65	89
	When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.	3.92	90
	When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	3.93	84
Global Reading	I have a purpose in mind when I read.	3.63	90
	I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	4.07	83
	I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it.	3.66	94
	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	3.27	91
	I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.	3.38	96
	When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	3.36	95

	I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	3.82	1.18
	I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.	3.87	1.21
	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	3.45	81
	I check my understanding when I come across new information.	3.72	76
	I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read.	3.99	82
	I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	3.71	84
Support	I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	3.56	97
	When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	2.68	1.23
	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	3.88	92
	I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.	3.80	1.00
	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	3.81	84
	I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among the ideas in it.	3.63	84
	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	3.41	98
	When reading, I translate from English into my native language.	3.79	92
	When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.	3.83	85

Each dimension of the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) was further analyzed. The results showed that problem-solving (M=3.75), global (M=3.95), and support (M=3.60) reading strategies were all used with high frequency, and the mean of the SORS was 3.77.

2.5. The conclusion of the chapter II

This study provides an overall understanding of the use of EFL reading strategies among medical students by investigating their uses of EFL reading strategies when reading English text. The results revealed that students used EFL reading strategies frequently. Of the three strategy sub-categories, global reading strategies were used by students the most, followed by problem-solving reading

strategies and then support strategies. I hope the study findings can help EFL teachers of high schools better understand the current use of EFL reading strategies among their students and actions they can take to help their students improve their reading abilities. The results of this study may help teachers determine the appropriate reading strategies to incorporate into English reading comprehension instruction. However, to ensure success in English reading comprehension, students need to know which strategies to use and how to use them.

In addition to using these strategies with high frequency, EFL high school students need to learn to use them effectively. It is suggested that future studies focus on the following: First, observation can be used to develop a deeper understanding of the use of reading strategies by university students.

Interviews can also be employed after survey or observation. If these approaches are used, then not only can the way EFL reading strategies are used by learners be observed, but also the reading strategies that are most effective at improving the reader's English reading ability may be practically explored.

Second, it would be worthwhile to compare the use of EFL reading strategies by proficiency level to help students better regulate the use of strategies while reading. Third, action research can be conducted to find out how effective reading strategies can be used to improve English reading among EFL high school students.

CHAPTER III

3.1. The communicative approach in language teaching

The communicative approach in language teaching starts from **a theory of language as communication**. **The goal of language teaching is to develop** what Hymes (1972) referred to **as "communicative competence**." Hymes coined this term in order to contrast a communicative view of language and Chomsky's theory of competence. Chomsky held that linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance[31].

For Chomsky, the focus of linguistic theory was to characterize the abstract abilities speakers possess that enable them to produce grammatically correct sentences in a language. Hymes held that such a view of linguistic theory was sterile, that linguistic theory needed to be seen as part of a more general theory incorporating communication and culture. **Hymes's theory of communicative competence was a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community**. In Hymes's view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use.

This theory of what knowing a language entails offers a much more comprehensive view than Chomsky's view of competence, which deals primarily

[31] Chomsky 1965: 3. Language and problems of knowledge. Cambridge: Mit press.

with abstract grammatical knowledge. At the level of language theory, Communicative Language Teaching has a rich, if somewhat eclectic, theoretical base. Some of the characteristics of this communicative view of language follow.

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.

2. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.

3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.

4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

Theory of learning

In contrast to the amount that has been written in Communicative Language Teaching literature about communicative dimensions of language, little has been written about learning theory. Neither Brumfit and Johnson nor Littlewood, for example, offers any discussion of learning theory. Elements of an underlying learning theory can be discerned in some CLT practices, however. One such element might be described as the communication principle: **Activities that involve real communication promote learning**. A second element is the task principle: **Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning** (Johnson 1982). A third element is the meaningfulness principle: **Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process**.[32] Learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use (rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns). These principles, we suggest, can be

[32] Johnson K. Language teaching and skill learning. Oxford: Blackwell.

inferred from CLT practices. They address the conditions needed to promote second language learning, rather than the processes of language acquisition.

More recent accounts of Communicative Language Teaching, however, have attempted to describe theories of language learning processes that are compatible with the communicative approach. Savignon surveys second language acquisition research as a source for learning theories and considers the role of linguistic, social, cognitive, and individual variables in language acquisition. Other theorists (e.g., Stephen Krashen, who is not directly associated with Communicative Language Teaching) have developed **theories cited as compatible with the principles of CLT**. **Krashen sees acquisition as the basic process involved in developing language proficiency and distinguishes this process from learning.** Acquisition refers to the unconscious development of the target language system as a result of using the language for real communication. Learning is the conscious representation of grammatical knowledge that has resulted from instruction, and it cannot lead to acquisition. It is the acquired system that we call upon to create utterances during spontaneous language use. The learned system can serve only as a monitor of the output of the acquired system. Krashen and other second language acquisition theorists typically stress that language learning comes about through using language communicatively, rather than through practicing language skills.

Johnson and Littlewood consider an alternative learning theory that they also see as compatible with CLT-a skill-learning model of learning. According to this theory, the acquisition of communicative competence in a language is an example of skill development. This involves both a cognitive and a behavioral aspect:

The cognitive aspect involves the internalization of plans for creating appropriate behavior. For language use, these plans derive mainly from the language system they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and

social conventions governing speech. The behavioral aspect involves the automation of these plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance in real time. This occurs mainly through practice in converting plans into performance[33]. This theory thus encourages an emphasis on practice as a way of developing communicative skills. Piepho discusses the following levels of objectives in a communicative approach:

1. an integrative and content level (language as a means of expression)

2. a linguistic and instrumental level (language as a semiotic system and an object of learning);

3. an affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct (language as a means of expressing values and judgments about oneself and others);

4. a level of individual learning needs (remedial learning based on error analysis);

5. a general educational level of extra-linguistic goals (language learning within the school curriculum).

These are proposed as **general objectives**, applicable to any teaching situation. Particular objectives for CLT cannot be defined beyond this level of specification, since such an approach assumes that language teaching will reflect the particular needs of the target learners. These needs may be in the domains of reading, writing, listening, or speaking, each of which can be approached from a communicative perspective. Curriculum or instructional objectives for a particular course would reflect specific aspects of communicative competence according to the learner's proficiency level and communicative needs.

Types of learning and teaching activities

[33] Littlewood W. 1992. Teaching oral communication. A methodological framework. Oxford Blackwell.

The range of exercise types and activities compatible with a communicative approach is unlimited, provided that such exercises enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and require the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction. Classroom activities are often designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of information and information sharing.

Learner roles

The emphasis in Communicative Language Teaching on the processes of communication, rather than mastery of language.

Teacher roles

Several roles are assumed for teachers in Communicative Language Teaching, the importance of particular roles being determined by the view of CLT adopted. Breen and Candlin describe teacher roles in the following terms:

The teacher has **two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group.** The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher; first, as an organizer of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities. A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience of the nature of learning and organizational capacities. Other roles assumed for teachers are needs analyst, counselor, and group process manager.

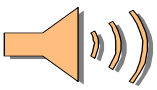
At the initial stage it is necessary to teach students English pronunciation and spelling. As we know teaching phoneticsis a productive process, it demands from the learners' knowledge of articulation organs, which represents a difficult methodical problem. At this stage, this information is the most difficult for learners and demands the much time expenses and efforts from the teacher. If learners spend, time and effort on learning pronunciation based on on strictly fulfilled materials, at the initial stage, it can provide the motivation level and reliable base for formation of foreign language professional communicative competences. The communicative approach assumes training all language skills.

The task of the chapter is developing of the foreign language professional communicative competence by means of phonetic exercises on mastering medical terminology of English language.

At the initial stage of training students quickly acquire a new material at which all mistakes of a pronunciation are visible.

While working on my research I developed communicative activities for medical students and implemented them in my lessons at Fergana Branch of medical academy. Students appreciated these activities and showed interest and active involvement. Examples of the activities:

Practice pronunciation and intonation in expressing medical terms



Phonetic exercise

E – [i:] – meter, severe, beverage, deplete, cereal, essential, establish, helix.

E – [e] – cell, ingest, leprosy, medical, hepatitis, intensity, essential, ventilation, smell, specific.

Phonetic exercise

I – [ai]- binary, satie, microbe, climate, spine, triage, biology, swipe, ice, identify, ion, life, virus, viral, virology, white.

I –[i]- implement, liver, ringworm, river, sickness, skin, assist, chills, milk, intensive, improper, insulin, infant, pickle, distinct, acid, diarrhea, limbs, fish, kidney, visible.

I –gh - [ai] – light, slight, sight, thigh, high, bright.

I –nd – [ai] – find, mind, kind, blind

I –ld – [ai] – mild, child.

Phonetic exercise

O - [ɔu]- vitro, total, emotion, hemoglobin, process, note, overstrain, dosage, emotion, node, local.

O – [ɔ] – onset, drop, hot, chronic, toxic.

O -n – [Λ]- ton, tongue, month, contract, tonsil.

O – m [Λ] – stomach, some, become.

Phonetic exercise

U – [ju] – value, insulin, evolution, fuse, unicellular, fumigant, superstition, acute, immune, incubation, tissue, absolute, annually, solution, nutrient, purify, uniform, illumination, rule, sputum, produce, utensils, sugar, human, humidity, induce.

U – [Λ] – structure, supply, product, consumption, butter, substance, ultra, thunderstorm, abundance, sufficient.

Exercise 1.

a) Sea, level, weak, leave, feel health, death, head, already, element, effect, and canteen.
b) Morbidity, mortality, promote ozone.
c) Common, consumption, contaminated, cloning, other, some, month, color.

***Exercise 2*.** Group the words according to the sounds: **[ə:], [ɛə] , [aiə], [ei], [ai]**

First, nurse, male, care, satie, iodized, high, area, hygienic, measure, retain, maintenance, survey, ailments, weight, earth, air, aerosol, germ, life.

Learn and practice English consonants

Consonants

Exercise

a) Practice, medical, medicine, place, necessary, toxic, interface, precipitates, cell, climate, species, acid, center, source, produce, space, capsid, cream,

b) Genetics, agent, antigen, sugar, refrigeration, growth, general, surgical, hygiene, biology, gland, energy, charge, magnetism, oxygen, gravity, germ.

Phonetic exercises. *Practice pronunciation and intonation in expressing medical terms*

Read and say type of the syllable:

1. Global, Remnant, Barograms, Action, Obesity, Microbe, Neutral, Land, Soil,
2. 1|closed/:open /Glo-bal, Rem- nant,
3. Barogram, Action, Obesity, Microbe, Neutral, Land, Soil

Put into two columns with sound [æ]- and [ei]:

background, case, bath, basic, cancer, eliminate, add, banner, safer, saddle, fate, stake,

Underline the words with the sound [ei]:

wave, parrot, maize, train, blade, sand, pain, relate, battery, as, wave, maize, train, blade, pain, relate.

Read and pronounce the sounds AU, AW in the following words:

spawn, laundry, straw, autoimmune, raw, cause.

Underline sound [ai]:

respiratory, time, virus, provide, find, mind, child, wild, ice, might, high, respiratory, time, virus, provide, find, mind, child, wild, ice, might, high.

Pay attention to the long and short sounds:

Short sound: Milk, Sickness, Ringworm, Situ, Clinic.

Long sound: Nutrient, Piece, Hygienic, Field, Brief.

Learn and practice medical English terms

Underline the words with sound [ts]:

clench, wash, match, switch, rash, punch, lash, cheer, sherry, kitchen, clench, match, switch, punch, cheer, kitchen

Underline the words with sound [ks]

thick, clock, acceptable, successful, accelerate, accumulate, accuse, acceptable, successful, accelerate, accent.

Underline the words with long sound [o:]

wartime, wordy, ward, worker, worship, warmer, warning, worth,|3|wartime, ward, warmer, warning.

Double vowel sounds-diphthongs Quiz

Which word is represented by the phonetic symbol [oi]

soil, boiling, oil, spoil, exploit

Fill in the space with the word represented by the phonetic symbol [ai]

life, microwave, light, microbe, night

Which word is represented by the phonetic symbol [ei]:

wave, safe, pain, main, rate.

Vowel sounds multiple choice quiz

2. Find pronounced sound*: pain, spray, brain, daily*

a) [ei]

b) [ai]

c) [ɛə]

3. **Find the sound [ɛ] in the following words**

a) cream, sweet, heating, freezing, death;

b) earth, allergy, germ, early, earl;

c) set, preservation, energy, heart.

4. **Sound [ai] is pronounced in:**

a) diarrhea, ion, wine, climate, environment;

b) delivery, direct, illness, pickle, microbe;

c) digested, dirty, first, living, bird.

5**. Find long sound [i:]**

a) germ, emerge, death, stern, vermin;

b) ear, near, adhere, peer, sphere;

c) beams, fleas, spleen, least.

6*. Find sound* [**aɪə]**

a) oncovirus, triage, spine, biochemical;

b) expiration, desire, retire, dire, mire;

c) coliform, specimen, skin, situ, silicosis

7. At the end of the words what sound is pronounced?

fabulous, marvelous, dangerous, capricious is pronunced:

a) [au]

b) [əs]

c) [ou]

8. At the end of the words we pronounce the sound:

squamous, cartilaginous, dangerous, aqueous

a) [au]

b) [əs]

c) [ou]

9. Find sound [U] in closed syllable:

a) value, sunny, vacuum, utensils, insulin, mud;

b) pure, oxygen, nutritious, dry, stay, clue;

c) nut, lynx, mutton, myth, rhythm, sun.

Phonetic exercises. *Practice pronunciation and intonation in expressing medical terms*

1. What word is represented by the phonetic symbol? /ɔi/

a. Ration
b. Cholera
c. Biosphere
d. Poison

2. **What word is represented by the phonetic symbol?** /ɔi/

a. Oil
b. Exposure
c. Soup
d. Alcohol

3. **What word is represented by the phonetic symbol?** /ɔi/

a. source
b. common
c. blood
d. moisture

4. **What word is represented by the phonetic symbol?** /ɔi/

a. aerosol

b. adenoid

c. cold

d. coagulation

5. **What word is represented by the phonetic symbol?** /ɔi/

a. Domestic

b. Corrosion

c. Exploit

d. felons

6. Which of the following words does not have the sound shown on the picture? [i:]

a. Steam

b. Spleen

c. Feet

d. Weather

7. Which of the following words does not have the sound shown on the picture? [I]

a. Virus

b. Skin

c. Lipid

d. Lymph

8. Which of the following words does not have the sound shown on the picture? [e]

a. Health
b. Threat
c. Weather
d. Heat

9. Which of the following words does not have the sound shown on the picture? [æ]

a. Saddle
b. Cancer
c. Vaccine
d. Falling

10. Which of the following words does not have the sound shown on the picture? **[ʌ]**

a. Substance
b. Ultra
c. Butter
d. Nutrition

- Which of the following words does not have the sound shown on the picture? [a:]

a. Brain
b. Harmful
c. Partial
d. parameter

- Which of the following words does not have the sound shown on the

picture? [I]

a. Virus
b. Skin
c. Lipid
d. Lymph

- Which of the following words does not have the sound shown on the picture? [e]

a. Health
b. Threat
c. Weather
d. Heat

- Which of the following words does not have the sound shown on the picture? [æ]

a. Saddle
b. Cancer
c. Vaccine
d. Falling

- Which of the following words does not have the sound shown on the picture? [ʌ]

a. Substance
b. Ultra
c. Butter
d. Nutrition

- Which of the following words does not have the sound shown on the picture? [a:]

a. Brain

b. Harmful
c. Partial
d. parameter

3.2. The syllabus of English lesson for medical students of Uzbekistan

This chapter can serve as a guide for teachers of English as a foreign language to develop the students´ abilities in the language. It is the application of an integrating approach for the development of communicative skills in the classroom, in which the four skills in the acquisition of knowledge of a foreign language can be taught in a coherent way, and practiced together, with a distinction of the importance of one upon the other.

Discussions of the nature of the syllabus have been central in Communicative Language Teaching. We have seen that one of the first syllabus models to be proposed was described as a notional syllabus, which specified the semantic-grammatical categories (e.g., frequency, motion, location) and the categories of communicative function that learners need to express. **The Council of Europe expanded and developed this into a syllabus that included descriptions of the objectives of foreign language courses for European adults, the situations in which they might typically need to use a foreign language (e.g., travel, business), the topics they might need to talk about (e.g., personal identification, education, shopping), the functions they needed language for (e.g., describing something, requesting information, expressing agreement and disagreement), the notions made use of in communication (e.g., time, frequency, duration), as well as the vocabulary and grammar needed. The result was published as *Threshold Level English*** and was an attempt to specify what was needed in order to be able to achieve a reasonable degree of

communicative proficiency in a foreign language, including the language items needed to realize this "threshold level."

Formation of the modern doctor possessing modern advanced medical technologies substantially depends on that, how much operatively he is able to take professionally focused information not only on native, but also on foreign languages. Realization of educational function of a foreign language in the higher medical schools opens possibility to the future doctors to receive the necessary professional information from foreign sources that is especially important for formation of their professional competence.

Besides a profound knowledge on special disciplines, the operational experience on the computer, the developed communicative skills, knowledge of foreign languages is necessary for modern medical experts. Thereupon there is a problem of training students of medical high schools to professionally focused communicative competence with the maximum understanding the information of special character.

However, the analysis of a modern condition of English language teaching in medical high school shows, that teaching materials, texts, types of exercises not oriented on specificity of professional work. In addition, phonetic rules is given in the form of the table and are used irregularly, without didactic principles, the native language interference, and accent which creates a number of linguistic- didactical problems in development of professional communicative abilities is not taken into consideration. As a result now graduates of medical high schools practically do not possess speaking skills in demanded level.

In accordance with I developed, created and put into practice the communicative approach, in which teaching materials consisted of professional directions. There is a teaching material organized by me for preventive medicine direction, providing individual or group training.

Syllabus for the third year students

№	THEME	HOUR
1	Objects and Things in Medicine	2
2	Objects for Patients	2
3	Branches of medicine	2
4	Dentistry	2
5	Skin and Dermatology	2
6	Surgery	2
7	Vocabulary - People in Medicine	2
8	Vocabulary - Verb Collocation	2
9	Medical vocabulary	2
10	Vocabulary - Compound Nouns	2
11	Vocabulary - Negative Prefixes	2
12	Unit IV Nutritional hygiene Slaughter house	2
13	At home, prevention of foodborne illness	2
14	Meat and poultry	2
15	Test on lessons	2

Lesson plan sample course 1

Theme: ABU ALI IBN SINA (AVICENNA)

The aim: to develop real communicative situations spontaneously. Consciousness raising through reading a text which integrates reading and writing subskills through a focus on lexical- grammatical form.

-to follow our ancestors life

- use in practice their experiences

Lesson is focused on: reading, speaking

Language- descriptive sentences, past tense. Asking questions.

Time: 80 minutes

Preparation: A handout for each student, dictionaries. Blackboard

Teaching techniques: Asking questions; speaking; forced contribution.

Procedure of the lesson:

Stages of the lesson	**Type of the lesson**	**Time**
Preparation	Speaking	5minutes
Warming up exercises Checking the home task		10 minutes
l.The Procedure: **Step l**	reading	30minutes
Giving the handouts. Writing new words		
Step2. Reading the text Avicenna	Work with dictionary	20minutes
Step3. In order to make sure that all the members of the class or group give their views in the discussion, numbers or question are distributed which determine the order of speaking	Listening Comprehension	10 minutes
The end of the lesson: -The results of the group are read out and discussed. **Preparation for the next lesson:** prepare text for retelling; find some more information about Avicenna	Vocabulary is tested at the sentence level with the focus on recognition of correct use. Evaluating students' speaking skills by an oral	5minutes

Estimating student participation.	interview (beforehand prepared questions)	

New words of the lesson

Scholar- a specialist in a particular branch of study, esp. the humanities; a distinguished academic

Heritage- valued objects and qualities such as historic buildings and cultural traditions that have been passed down from previous generations

Memorize- learn by heart

Field- sphere

Physician- doctor

Permit- officially allow (someone) to do something

Near East-Ближний Восток

Middle East- Средний Восток

Devote- dedicate, give all or most of one's time or resources to (a person or activity)

Treasure- a very valuable object

Outlook- a person's point of view or general attitude to life

Notable- a famous or important person

The canon of medicine- канон врачебных наук

THE FAMOUS DOCTOR OF THE EAST AVICENNA

ABU ALI al-Hussein Ibn Abdullah Ibn Sina was born in 980 A.D. (Anno Domini) in Afshana near Bukhara. The young Abu Ali received his early education in Bukhara, and by age of ten had become well versed in the study of the Qur'an and various sciences. He started studying philosophy by reading various Greek, Muslim and other books on this subject and learnt logic and some other subjects from Abu

Abdullah Natili, a famous philosopher of his time. While still young, he attained such a degree of expertise in medicine that his renown spread far and wide. At the age of 17, he was fortunate in curing Noah Ibn Mansur, the King of Bukhara, of an illness in which all the well-known physicians had given up hope. On his recovery, the King wished to reward him, but the young physician only desired permission to use his uniquely stocked library.

On his father's death, Abu Ali left Bukhara and traveled to Jurjan where Khwarizmi Shah welcomed him. There, he met his famous contemporary Abu Raihan al- Biruni. Later he moved to Ray and then to Hamadan, where he wrote his famous book AL-QANON fi al-Tibb. Here he treated Shams al- Daulah, the King of Hamadan, for severe colic. From Hamadan he moved to Isphahan, where he completed many of his monumental writings. Nevertheless, he continued travelling and the excessive mental exertion as well as political turmoil split his health. Finally, he returned to Hamadan (now Iran) where he died in 1037 A.D.

He was the most famous physician, philosopher, encyclopedist, mathematician and astronomer of his time. His major contribution to medical science was his famous book al-Canon, known as the "CANON" in the West. The Canon is an immense encyclopedia of medicine extending over a million words. Author's important original contribution includes such advances as recognition of the contagious nature of phthisis and tuberculosis; distribution of diseases by water and soil, and interaction between psychology and health. In addition to describing pharmacological methods, the book described 760 drugs and become the most authentic material medica of the era. He was also the first to describe meningitis and made rich contributions to anatomy, gynecology and child health.

Comprehension questions

1. **Put the necessary word.** His book… has a five volume encyclopedia of

medicine of his time.

a. Danish name
b. English
c. Spanish
d. Canon of medicine

2. Put the right word. In his book Avicenna describes about …..Of medicine

a. 1000
b. 500
c. 2000
d. 50

3. What is Avicenna's real name?

a. Abdullah
b. Hussein.
c. Abdullah ibn Husan
d. Noah IBn Mansur

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Article by J J O'Connor and E F Robertson. Journal Avicenna 3 /2007 /

3.3. Needs analysis

The CLT teacher assumes a responsibility for determining and responding to learner language needs. This may be done informally and personally through one-to-one sessions with students, in which the teacher talks through such issues as the student's perception of his or her learning style, learning assets, and learning goals.

It may be done formally through administering a needs assessment instrument, such as those exemplified in Savignon (1983). Typically, such formal assessments contain items that attempt to determine an individual's motivation for studying the language. For example, students might respond on a 5-point scale *(strongly agree* to *strongly disagree)* to statements like the following.

I want to study English because...

1. I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.

2. It will help me better understand English-speaking people and their way of life.

3. One needs a good knowledge of English to gain other people's respect.

4. It will allow me to meet and converse with interesting people.

5. I need it for my job.

6. It will enable me to think and behave like English-speaking people.

On the basis of such needs assessments, teachers are expected to plan group and individual instruction that responds to the learners' needs.

COUNSELOR

Another role assumed by several CLT approaches is that of counselor, similar to the way this role is defined in Community Language Learning. In this role, the teacher-counselor is expected to exemplify an effective communicator seeking to maximize the meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation, through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback.

GROUP PROCESS MANAGER

CLT procedures often require teachers to acquire less teacher-centered classroom management skills. It is the teacher's responsibility to organize the classroom as a setting for communication and communicative activities. Guidelines for classroom practice (e.g., Littlewood 1981; Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983) suggest that during an activity the teacher monitors, encourages, and suppresses the inclination to supply gaps in lexis, grammar, and strategy but notes such gaps for later commentary and communicative practice. At the conclusion of group activities, the teacher leads in the debriefing of the activity, pointing out alternatives and extensions and assisting groups in self-correction discussion. Critics have pointed out, however, that non-native teachers may feel less than comfortable about such procedures without special training.

The focus on fluency and comprehensibility in Communicative Language Teaching may cause anxiety among teachers accustomed to seeing error suppression and correction as the major instructional responsibility, and who see their primary function as preparing learners to take standardized or other kinds of tests. A continuing teacher concern has been the possible deleterious effect in pair or group work of imperfect modeling and student error. Although this issue is far from resolved, it is interesting to note that recent research findings suggest that "data contradicts the notion that other learners are not good conversational partners because they can't provide accurate input when it is solicited".

THE ROLE OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

A wide variety of materials have been used to support communicative approaches to language teaching. Unlike some contemporary methodologies, such as Community Language Learning, practitioners of Communicative Language Teaching view materials as a way of influencing the quality of classroom

interaction and language use. Materials thus have the primary role of promoting communicative language use. We will consider three kinds of materials currently used in CLT and label these text-based, task-based, and realia.

TEXT-BASED MATERIALS

There are **numerous textbooks** designed to direct and support Communicative Language Teaching. Their tables of contents sometimes suggest a kind of grading and sequencing of language practice not unlike those found in structurally organized texts. Some of these are in fact written around a largely structural syllabus, with slight reformatting to justify their claims to be based on a communicative approach. Others, however, look very different from previous language teaching texts. Morrow and Johnson's *Communicate*, for example, has none of the usual dialogues, drills, or sentence patterns and uses visual cues, taped cues, pictures, and sentence fragments to initiate conversation. Watcyn-Jones's *Pair Work* consists of two different texts for pair work, each containing different information needed to enact role plays and carry out other pair activities. A typical lesson consists of a theme (e.g., relaying information), a task analysis for thematic development (e.g., understanding the message, asking questions to obtain clarification, asking for more information, taking notes, ordering and presenting information), a practice situation description (e.g., "A caller asks to see your manager. He does not have an appointment. Gather the necessary information from him and relay the message to your manager."), a stimulus presentation (in the preceding case, the beginning of an office conversation scripted and on tape), comprehension questions (e.g., "Why is the caller in the office?"), and paraphrase exercises.

TASK-BASED MATERIALS

A variety of games, role plays, simulations, and task-based communication activities have been prepared to support Communicative Language Teaching classes. These typically are in the form of one-of-a-kind items: exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials, and student-interaction practice booklets. In pair-communication materials, there are typically two sets of material for a pair of students, each set containing different kinds of information. Sometimes the information is complementary, and partners must fit their respective parts of the "jigsaw" into a composite whole. Others assume different role relationships for the partners (e.g., an interviewer and an interviewee). Still others provide drills and practice material in interactional formats.

REALIA

Many proponents of Communicative Language Teaching have advocated the use of "authentic," "from-life" materials in the classroom. These might include language-based realia, such as signs, magazines, advertisements, and newspapers, or graphic and visual sources around which communicative activities can he built, such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts. Different kinds of objects can be used to support communicative exercises, such as a plastic model to assemble from directions.

3.4. The conclusion of the chapter III

Communicative Language Teaching is **best considered an approach rather than a method.** Thus although a reasonable degree of theoretical consistency can be discerned at the levels of language and learning theory, at the levels of design and procedure **there is much greater room for individual interpretation and variation than most methods permit**. It could be that one version among the various proposals for syllabus models, exercise types, and classroom activities may gain wider approval in the future, giving Communicative Language Teaching a status similar to other

teaching methods. On the other hand, divergent interpretations might lead to homogeneous subgroups.

Communicative Language Teaching appeared at a time when British language teaching was ready for a paradigm shift. Situational Language Teaching was no longer felt to reflect a methodology appropriate for the seventies and beyond. **CLT appealed to those who sought a more humanistic approach to teaching, one in which the interactive processes of communication received priority**. The rapid adoption and implementation of the communicative approach also resulted from the fact that it quickly assumed the status of orthodoxy in British language teaching circles, receiving the sanction and support of leading British applied linguists, language specialists, publishers, as well as institutions, such as the British Council (Richards 1985).

Now that the initial wave of enthusiasm has passed, however, some of the claims of CLT are being looked at more critically (Swan 1985). **The adoption of a communicative approach raises important issues for teacher training, materials development, and testing 'and evaluation.** Questions that have been raised include whether a communicative approach can be applied at all levels in a language program, whether it is equally suited to EFL situations, whether it requires existing grammar-based syllabuses to be abandoned or merely revised, how such an approach can be evaluated, how suitable it is for non-native teachers, and how it can be adopted in situations where students must continue to take grammar-based tests. These kinds of questions will doubtless require attention if the communicative movement in language teaching continues to gain momentum in the future.

Conclusion

Language Teaching and Skill Learning issues are important in the field of language learning and teaching. In my research work I tried to investigate some valuable approaches of current thinking about foreign language acquisition, but have also put ahead a much needed reassessment of the view of language as a skill among other skills.

In proposing a skills framework for language teaching, I have placed leading professors' views of cognitive approaches to language, and have collected a wide range of evidence.

The argument, in a nutshell, is this: Language fits the commonly accepted definition of skill within the psychology literature. It is "goal-directed, hierarchically organized, non-stereotyped behavior. In my opinion I briefly reviewed some of the evidence from the foreign language teaching research.

The first chapter discussed what cognitive psychology has to say about the acquisition of skilled behavior and teaching a foreign language. This chapter considers the atomization of skills and what this means for improving student's oral production skills. Classroom strategies for incorporating skill-based theory into the classroom are also discussed. A qualitative approach allowed me to find answers to the research question and sub-questions. The chapter I also suggests that teaching English as a foreign language requires creative, innovative and motivating teaching strategies. Furthermore, there is evidence that effective language learning is facilitated by teachers through providing a non-threatening environment in which learners feel comfortable and self-confident and are encouraged to take risks to use the target language.

Most foreign language teachers will not have the time, facilities, and perhaps the motivated students needed to use this entire technique. I have showed how one

program uses the skill acquisition model with techniques that many teachers use to encourage fluency that can be adapted to most teaching situations.

I have introduced numerous examples to illustrate how communicative methods stimulate the automatization of language forms by focusing on memory, meaning and real-time processing.

This study also provides an overall understanding of the use of EFL reading strategies among medical students by investigating their uses of EFL reading strategies when reading English text. During the research for this work, students and teachers from Fergana Branch of Tashkent medical academy were the target group.

However, to ensure success in English reading comprehension, students need to know which strategies to use and how to use them.

Interviews can also be employed after survey or observation. If these approaches are used, then not only can the way EFL reading strategies are used by learners be observed, but also the reading strategies that are most effective at improving the reader's English reading ability may be practically explored.

The teachers' opinions gave me interesting insights to be confirmed later with the students in the group discussions. I collected interviews of the FL teachers of our university and the teachers of Fergana Branch Tashkent medical academy. I have also studied the information on how different social and individual factors affected the students learning.

I hope the study findings can help EFL teachers of high schools better understand the current use of EFL reading strategies among their students and actions they can take to help their students improve their reading abilities. The results of this study may help teachers determine the appropriate reading strategies to incorporate into English reading comprehension instruction.

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Appendices. Appendix 1. Students' interview questions

Which skills are emphasized more in your English classes?

In your opinion, what are the objectives of the English classes at the university?

Should English language classes be obligatory or optional?

Do you like the way the classes are taught?

Do you find the time you spend in the classes to be interesting?

Do English language courses meet your needs regarding the use of the English language?

What are three benefits of the English language courses?

Do you think that the English language classes help you cope better with other courses at the university? If yes, how?

What do you like/ dislike about the English language classes?

Appendix 2. Teachers' questionnaire

Would you answer the following questions related to the teaching/learning of English language classes at the university?

According to you what are the five most important problems that hinder the students' progress in the language classes?

According to you what are the two most important strategies to help learners discuss engagingly in the target language?

According to you what are the two most important strategies to think deeply in the target language?

According to you what are the two most important strategies to write academically in the target language?