

**THE MINISTRY OF PUBLIC EDUCATION OF THE
REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN**

NAVOI STATE PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTE

**ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE
DEPARTMENT**

COURSE PAPER

**On the theme: Designing activities on integrated skills on the theme
“New York City”**

**Researcher:
Scientific adviser:**

**Jarbayeva A.
Kodirova D.Sh**

NAVOI-2016

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION.....3

CHAPTER I. DESIGNING MATERIALS FOR LANGUAGE SKILLS

1.1. Designing reading tasks.....7

1.2. Designing writing tasks.....10

1.3. Designing speaking tasks.....16

1.4. Designing listening tasks.....18

CONCLUSION.....24

BIBLIOGRAPHY.....31

INTRODUCTION

On December 10, 2012 President of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov signed a decree **“On measures to further improve of foreign language learning system”**. It is noted that in the framework of the Law of the Republic of Uzbekistan "On education" and the National Program for Training in the country, a comprehensive foreign languages' teaching system, aimed at creating harmoniously developed, highly educated, modern-thinking young generation, further integration of the country to the world community, has been created. During the years of independence, over 51.7 thousand teachers of foreign languages graduated from universities, English, German and French multimedia tutorials and textbooks for 5-9 grades of secondary schools, electronic resources for learning English in primary schools were created, more than 5000 secondary schools, professional colleges and academic lyceums were equipped with language laboratories. According to the decree, starting from 2013/2014 school year foreign languages, mainly English, gradually throughout the country will be taught from the first year of schooling in the form of lesson-games and speaking games, continuing to learning the alphabet, reading and spelling in the second year (grade).¹

Therefore for teaching English is great attention being paid. As well as for organizing effective lessons it is important to use and produce different materials during the lessons.

The idea of materials production in language teaching has always been associated with cutting and pasting. In the pre-digital era, teachers used scissors to cut magazines and newspapers to prepare their activities. In the computer age, they use browsers to download files from the Internet, break them up into pieces and merge these pieces into a new file. The new process is apparently the same, but the final product is graphically very different, as the patchwork look of pre-digital era is removed. Teaching materials form an important part of most English teaching

¹ . Karimov I. “Ma’rifat”-Tashkent. December 10, 2012

programmes. From textbooks, videotapes and pictures to the Internet, teachers rely heavily on a diverse range of materials to support their teaching and their students learning. However, despite the current rich array of English language teaching materials commercially available, many teachers continue to produce their own materials for classroom use. Indeed, most teachers spend considerable time finding, selecting, evaluating, adapting and making materials to use in their teaching. In this research work we synthesize a range of ideas from the literature on materials design. We consider why teachers might want to design their own teaching materials and look at some of the advantages and disadvantages. We examine six factors given by methodology scientists that teachers need to take into account when considering designing their own materials; and finally we present ten guidelines for designing effective English teaching materials.

Discussions about the advantages and disadvantages of teacher-designed materials usually centre on a comparison with using text or coursebooks. Rather than focusing on coursebooks, we have turned our focus to teacher-produced materials. The key reasons why teachers may wish to produce their own teaching materials can be linked to four themes distilled from recent literature on this topic.

An important advantage of teacher-produced materials is contextualization. A key criticism of commercial materials, particularly those produced for the world-wide EFL market is that they are necessarily generic and not aimed at any specific group of learners or any particular cultural or educational context. The possible lack of ‘fit’ between teaching context and coursebook has been expressed thus: “Our modern coursebooks are full of speech acts and functions based on situations which most foreign-language students will never encounter... ‘Globally’ designed coursebooks have continued to be stubbornly Anglo-centric. Appealing to the world market as they do, they cannot by definition draw on local varieties of English and have not gone very far in recognizing English as an international language, either.”² For many teachers, designing or adapting their own teaching

² Jo McDonough, Christopher Shaw. *Materials and methods in ELT*. Blackwell Publishing.2011.

materials, enables them to take into account their particular learning environment and to overcome the lack of ‘fit’ of the coursebook.

Another aspect of context is the resources available. Some teaching contexts will be rich in resources such as course books, supplementary texts, readers, computers, audio-visual equipment and consumables such as paper, pens and so on. Other contexts may be extremely impoverished, with little more than an old blackboard and a few pieces of chalk. A lack of commercial materials forces teachers to fall back on their own resources available in their teaching materials can enable them to make best use of the resources available in their teaching context. A further aspect that is not often mentioned in the literature is the cost of commercially produced resources. For many schools, teacher-produced materials can be the best option in terms of both school and student budget.

A second area in which teacher-designed materials are an advantage is that of individual needs. Modern teaching methodology increasingly emphasizes the importance of identifying and teaching to the individual needs of learners. English language classrooms are diverse places not only in terms of where they are situated, but also in terms of the individual learners within each context. Teacher-designed materials can be responsive to the heterogeneity inherent in the classroom. This approach encompasses the learners’ first languages and cultures, their learning needs and their experiences. Few coursebooks deliberately incorporate opportunities for learners to build on the first language skills already acquired, despite research suggesting that bilingual approaches are most successful in developing second language competence. A teacher can develop materials that incorporate elements of the learners’ first language and culture, or at least provide opportunities for acknowledgement and use alongside English. In addition, teacher-prepared materials provide the opportunity to select texts and activities at exactly the right level for particular learners, to ensure appropriate challenge and levels of success.

In designing their own materials teachers can also make decisions about the most appropriate organizing principle or focus for materials and activities. Ant this

can be changed over the course of the programme if necessary. Most coursebooks remain organized around grammar elements and the PPP (presentation, practice, production) model of teaching, often with an “unrelenting format” which can be “deeply un engaging”.³ By taking more control over materials production, teachers can choose from the range of possibilities, including topics, situations, notions, functions, skills etc, or a combination of these principles, as starting points to develop a variety of materials that focus on the developing needs of their particular group of learners.

A further advantage of teacher-designed materials is timeliness. Teachers designing their own materials can respond to local and international events with up-to-date, relevant and high interest topics and tasks. The teachable moment can be more readily seized.

The purpose of this paper is to learn, to analyze the modern and optimal ways of designing teaching materials.

The objects and tasks of the paper are to work out more simple and effective ways of designing language materials, to analyze types of materials used in presentation techniques such as visual techniques and verbal explanation.

The method and techniques the teacher should use in evaluating teaching materials for learners are looked through in this paper.

This course paper consist of introduction, designing materials for language skills, conclusion and bibliography parts.

³ Jo McDonough, Christopher Shaw. *Materials and methods in ELT*. Blackwell Publishing.2011.

CHAPTER I. DESIGNING MATERIALS FOR LANGUAGE SKILLS

1.1. Designing reading tasks.

The key to really building learners' confidence in reading is to prepare them effectively to read. This means 'warming them up', engaging their interest in the subject of the reading text, but also pre-teaching the words they will need to really understand and enjoy the text. Here are some things can be used with learners in groups or pairs before they read the text itself.

If the text have been chosen have pictures, we can photocopy them and distribute them into groups of learners. If not, perhaps we can draw something from the text on the board. Make sure that it will intrigue them. In either case, we give them some focus questions. What is it about? How many people are in the story? We let the learners think, share and answer.⁴

We write the headline or title on the board. And ask the learners to work in small groups and think of 5 words that may come up in the text. When they have done this, 'secretaries' can come to the board and write up all the words. Then the learners scan the text and see how many of the words are in the text. Which group got most words right?

We write the title on the board and ask the learners, in groups, to tell simple stories on the subject of the title. Again, they read the text and find out how it's the same and how it's different.

Here are some ideas we can use for motivating students during the actual reading stage:

Select some simple sentences from different parts of the text and write them on the board. Learners put them in the correct order and predict the story in groups. If it's an action story, get learners to act out or mime the sentences in groups. Give students the first and last sentences of the story. Groups come up with the story in the middle.

⁴ Nunan D. *Designing tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge University Press. 2001.

Similarly, learners can work together once they have read the text. Task types which we can use to get students working in groups are:

Learners read and then act out the story.

Jigsaw reading. Each group has different information from a different part of the text and they must tell other students about the part of the text they have read. This way the learners construct meaning from the text collectively.

Learners read and prepare some true/false questions for the other groups.

This latter activity not only empowers the learners, as they get to write their own questions, but it also helps us to see the areas where they may be having problems with meaning.

It is of course helpful to choose a text which is intrinsically interesting for learners, because then they will be more motivated to read. Find out what your students like, and then look for suitable reading material. We may often find material on the Internet, or in pop magazines and newspapers.

Choosing really interesting material may mean that the text we'd like to use is slightly above the level of learners. The key is to set a task which gives learners a sense of accomplishment, and that doesn't necessarily mean understanding every single word.

If we level the task appropriately, the learners' reading level will improve little by little, and they will start to understand more of these texts. Here are some low-level tasks which help learners with their 'text attack skills.' They range from beginner level to upper elementary:

- a) Finding information about characters from the text and putting it next to the name of the right character.
- b) Putting pictures depicting events from the text in the right order.
- c) Putting cut up paragraphs or segments of the text into the right order.
- d) Finding the mistakes or differences between a text and an illustration.

This brings us to the principle that developing reading skills in our learners is not about testing them, but about helping them to become better readers.

It's clear that the group work outlined above relies on this principle. If we allow learners to help each other to construct meaning, then we are focusing on the development of skills rather than testing individual students' reading ability.

Another important point here is in setting the task in advance of reading, so that learners know exactly what they are going to do. The key teaching skill is focusing the learners on the task, rather than the text as a whole. One way we can find of doing this is really spending time on the task before reading, and then giving the learners a strict time limit when they read.

1.1.1. Read the text and put questions.

Pre-activity: Do you know the biggest cities in the world?

While-activity: How is New York called?

How many boroughs are there in New York?

How many languages are spoken in New York?

When did New York serve as a capital?

Post – activity: What other big cities in the USA do you know?

New York—often called New York City or the City of New York to distinguish it from the State of New York, of which it is a part—is the most populous city in the United States and the center of the New York metropolitan area, the premier gateway for legal immigration to the United States and one of the most populous urban agglomerations in the world. A global power city, New York exerts a significant impact upon commerce, finance, media, art, fashion, research, technology, education, and entertainment, its fast pace defining the term New York minute. Home to the headquarters of the United Nations, New York is an important center for international diplomacy and has been described as the cultural and financial capital of the world.

Situated on one of the world's largest natural harbors, New York City consists of five boroughs, each of which is a separate county of New York State. The five boroughs – Brooklyn, Queens, Manhattan, the Bronx, and Staten Island –

were consolidated into a single city in 1898. With a census-estimated 2014 population of 8,491,079 distributed over a land area of just 305 square miles (790 km²), New York is the most densely populated major city in the United States. As many as 800 languages are spoken in New York, making it the most linguistically diverse city in the world. By 2014 census estimates, the New York City metropolitan region remains by a significant margin the most populous in the United States, as defined by both the Metropolitan Statistical Area (20.1 million residents) and the Combined Statistical Area (23.6 million residents). In 2013, the MSA produced a gross metropolitan product (GMP) of nearly US\$1.39 trillion, while in 2012, the CSA generated a GMP of over US\$1.55 trillion, both ranking first nationally by a wide margin and behind the GDP of only twelve and eleven countries, respectively.

New York City traces its roots to its 1624 founding as a trading post by colonists of the Dutch Republic and was named New Amsterdam in 1626. The city and its surroundings came under English control in 1664. New York served as the capital of the United States from 1785 until 1790. It has been the country's largest city since 1790. The Statue of Liberty greeted millions of immigrants as they came to the Americas by ship in the late 19th and early 20th centuries and is a globally recognized symbol of the United States and its democracy.

Here are some other things we can do as a teacher to teach, not test:

Choose the right answers and complete the sentences.

1. Who discovered America ?

- a. John Kennedy
- b. Christopher Columbus
- c. Jimmy Carter

2. Who was the first president of the USA ?

- a. Franklin Roosevelt

- b. Abraham Lincoln
 - c. John Washington
3. What is the federal capital of the USA?
- a. New York
 - b. Chicago
 - c. Washington (DC)
4. What river is the capital of the USA situated ?
- a. the Potomac
 - b. the Hudson
 - c. the Mississippi
5. How many stars and stripes are there on the US flag?
- a. 45 and 12
 - b. 50 and 13
 - c. 55 and 15
6. Where do American Presidents live?
- a. in the Capital
 - b. in the Lincoln Memorial
 - c. in the White House
7. What is America's symbol of freedom ?
- a. the Empire State Building
 - b. the Bald Eagle
 - c. the Statue of Liberty
8. What is the largest American state?
- a. Alaska
 - b. Texas
 - c. Florida
9. What monument in Washington D.C. is nicknamed "The pencil"?
- a. Washington Monument
 - b. the White House
 - c. the Capitol

10. What is the largest city in the USA?

- a. Boston
- b. New York
- c. Chicago

So, let's go... First of all, look at the map.

(Появляется карта мира, затем карта Америки)



IV. The U.S.A. is one of the richest and one of the largest countries in the world. It is situated in the central part of the North American Continent. It occupies the territory of over 9 million square kilometers. There are 50 states in the United States of America. Two of these states – Alaska and Hawaii – are not connected to the other states. You can see it on this map.

The population of the United States is nearly 250 million people. Most of the people live in towns and cities. Nearly 3 million people live in Washington, D.C., the capitol of the U.S.A.

The U.S.A. is a federal republic consisting of fifty states, each of which has its own government.

The American flag is the main symbol of the United States. It is often called “The Stars and Stripes”. Its colors are red, white and blue. In the upper left-hand corner there is a field of blue with 50 stars on it – one for each of the 50 states.

The rest of the flag consists of 13 horizontal red and white stripes, alternating, but beginning and ending in red. These stripes represent each of the original thirteen American colonies.

The bald eagle became the official national symbol in 1782. The national anthem of America is “The Star-Spangled Banner”. It was written by Francis Scott Key during the War of 1812.

One of the most famous symbols of the United States is the Statue of Liberty. France gave the statue to America in 1884 as a symbol of friendship. The Statue is in New York harbor on Liberty Island. It is one of the first things people see when they arrive in New York by sea.

The U.S.A. is washed by the Pacific Ocean in the west; by the Atlantic Ocean in the east, by the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico in the South. In the north are 5 Great Lakes.

The U.S.A. borders on Canada in the north and Mexico in the south.

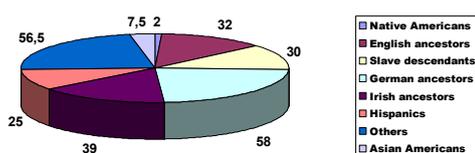
Many rivers cross the United States, but the greatest is the mighty Mississippi River. On the northern border between the U.S.A. and Canada there are five Great Lakes: Lake Superior, Lake Huron, Lake Michigan, Lake Erie and Lake Ontario.

The Great Salt Lake is in northern Utah.

The bald eagle, America’s national bird, lives in many of the forest areas of the U.S.A., but it is now becoming rare.

Washington D. C. is the capitol city of the U.S.A. It is not in any of the 50 states but has its own private land, the District of Columbia (hence D.C.). It was founded in 1791 and was named in honor of the first President of the United States, George Washington. It lies on the left bank of the Potomac River. Washington D.C. is the political, cultural and scientific center of America. The heart of Washington D.C. is the national Capitol Building.

Who lives in the United States?



Avoid asking 'how many did you get right?' to individual learners.

Avoid giving marks for reading tasks.

Give students ideas about how to read for gist, for example 'Now, read quickly and find the answer to the question on the board. You just have two minutes.'⁵

1.2. Designing writing tasks

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

- (1) the habit of writing letters of the English alphabet;
- (2) the habit of converting speech sounds into their symbols — letters and letter combinations;
- (3) the habit of correct spelling of words, phrases, and sentences;

⁵ Nunan D. *Designing tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge University Press. 2001.

(4) the habit of writing various exercises which lead pupils to expressing their thoughts in connection with the task set.

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

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

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

Use the information from the fliers, fill in the gaps and complete the notes. Be careful with the articles.

New York is on the ...River. Another name for the New York is... . It consists of five boroughs:The heart of New York is.... It has a lot of

One of them is the Empire State Building. It is the tallest ... in New York but only sinceOne of the New York's most famous museums isIt's famous for its building, which was designed byThose who are interested in theatre will be able to enjoy different musicals and shows on The faster way to see New York is by You need to buy a ... and it will take you all over the city.

Teaching writing should be based on such methodological principles as a conscious approach to forming and developing this skill, visualization and activity of pupils. Pupils learn to write letters, words, and sentences in the target language more successfully if they understand what they write, have good patterns to follow,

and make several attempts in writing a letter (a word, a sentence) until they are satisfied that the work is well done.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

2. Dictation. This kind of writing exercise is much more difficult than copying. Some methodologists think that it should never be given as a test to young beginners. "It is a means of fixing of what is already known, not a puzzle in which the teacher tries to defeat the pupil".⁶ Dictation is a valuable exercise because it trains the ear and the hand as well as the eye; it fixes in the pupil's mind the division of each sentence pattern, because the teacher dictates division by division. For example, *Tom and I go to school I together.*

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

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

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

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

⁶ Harmer J. *How to teach English*. Harlow, Essex: Pearson Educational Ltd.

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

- (a) Substitution: *Nick has a sister.* The pupils should use other words instead of *a sister*.
- (b) Completion: *How many ... are there in the room? He came late because*
- (c) Extension: *Ann brought some flowers.* (The pupils are expected to use an adjective before *flowers*.⁷)

Practice of this kind can lead pupils to long sentences.

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

The object of every kind of written exercise mentioned above is to develop pupils' spelling in the target language and to fix the linguistic material in their memory and in this way to provide favourable conditions for developing their skills in writing compositions. By composition in this case we mean pupils' expression of their own thoughts in a foreign language in connection with a suggested situation or a topic within the linguistic material previously assimilated in speech and reading. Progress in writing a foreign language is possible on condition that pupils have adequate preparation for writing. This preparation should nearly always be carried out orally, except late at the senior stage when it can be done from books independently as at this stage oral questioning need not precede writing. Writing compositions will not help much in the learning of a new language without careful preparation. If pupils have to rack their brains for something to say, or if they try to express something beyond their powers, the writing may be more harmful than helpful. Preparation may include:

- (a) oral questioning with the aim of giving the pupils practice in presenting facts and ideas in the target language;

⁷ Harmer J. *How to teach English*. Harlow, Essex: Pearson Educational Ltd.

(b) the use of pictures and other visual aids to provide information for written work;

(c) auding an extract or a story which can stimulate pupils' thought; after auding there should always be some questions on the content;

(d) silent reading which can be used as a source of information for pupils, first, to speak about, and then for writing. In teaching compositions the following exercises may be suggested:

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

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

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

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

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

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

Pupils may be given concrete assignments. For instance:

— Describe the place where the action takes place.

— Write what you have learned about ...

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

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

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

— Pick out sentences which express the main idea (ideas) in the text and then cross out those words which are only explanatory in relation to the main idea.

— A bridge the text by writing out only topical sentences.

— Write the contents of the text in 3—5 sentences.

5. A composition on a suggested topic. For example, "My family" or "Our town" or "The sports I like best". Pupils should be taught to write a plan first and then to write the story following the plan.

6. Letter writing. Pupils are usually given a pattern letter in English,¹ which shows the way the English start their letters and end them.

The following assignments may be suggested:

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

New words and names to describe New York

Manhattan [mæn`hætɪn] – *Манхэттен*

Brooklyn [ˈbrʊkɪn] – *Бруклин*

Queens [kwi:nz] – *Куинз*

Staten Island [ˈstætɪn`aɪlənd] – *Статен-Айленд*

the Bronx [brɒŋks] – *Бронкс*

the Hudson [ˈhʌdsən] - *Гудзон*

a skyscraper *небоскреб*

The Rockefeller Center [rɒkəfelə(r)] – *Рокфеллеровский центр*

Working on the presentation

Read and decide if the statements are true or false. Correct the false statements.

1. The Empire State Building is the tallest building in the world.
2. It took less than two years to build it.
3. The Twin Towers of the World Trade Center were destroyed by terrorists.
4. The Twin Towers of the World Trade Center used to be the tallest buildings in New York.
5. “Chicago” is the name of a theater.
6. Broadway is the main street in New York.

№ 2. Answer the questions.

Which of the sights ...

1. ... was designed by the famous architect Frank Lloyd Wright?
2. ... used to welcome millions of immigrants?
3. ... can be called the lungs of New York?

4. ... is famous for the largest Christmas tree in New York?
5. ... was done in art deco style in 1929?
6. ... contains a collection of modern art?
7. ... looks out on the sea?
8. ... is so huge that you can get lost there?

1.3. Designing speaking skills

Speech is a process of communication by means of language. For example, (1) a pupil tells the class a story about something which once happened to him;

(2) the teacher asks questions on the story read by the pupils at home and starts a discussion;

(3) pupils speak on the pictures suggested by the teacher, each tries to say what others have not mentioned;

(4) pupils listen to the story and get some new information from the text;

(5) they see a sound film and learn about something new from it, etc.

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

Oral exercises are quite indispensable to developing speech. However, they only prepare pupils for speaking and cannot be considered to be "speech" as some teachers are apt to think and who are often satisfied with oral exercises which

pupils perform following the model; they seldom use stimuli for developing pupils' auditing and speaking in the target language.

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

Speaking a foreign language is the most difficult part in language learning because pupils need ample practice in speaking to be able to say a few words of their own in connection with a situation. This work is time-consuming and pupils rarely feel any real necessity to make themselves understood during the whole period of learning a new language in school. The stimuli the teacher can use are often feeble and artificial. The pupil repeats the sentence he hears, he completes sentences that are in the book, he constructs sentences on the pattern of a given one. These mechanical drill exercises are, of course, necessary; however, when they go on year after year without any other real language practice they are deadening. There must be occasions when the pupils feel the necessity to inform someone of something, to explain something, and to prove something to someone. This is a psychological factor which must be taken into account when teaching pupils to speak a foreign language.

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

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

In teaching speaking the problem is what form of speech to begin with, and what should be the relationship between monologue and dialogue. This problem may be solved in different ways. Some methodologists give preference to dialogic

speech in teaching beginners, and they suggest that pupils learn first how to ask and answer questions which is mostly characteristic of a dialogue, and how to make up a short dialogue following a model. Others prefer monologic speech as a starting point. Pupils are taught how to make statements, how to combine several sentences into one utterance in connection with an object or a situation offered.

Match the beginning of each sentence with its end.

<p>1. New York is :</p> <p>2. The nickname of the city is :</p> <p>3. The Verrazano-Narrows Bridge, is :</p> <p>4. The most famous streets and avenues are located in :</p> <p>5. The Empire State Building is :</p> <p>6. The most popular rest place in the city is:</p> <p>7. The Statue of Liberty :</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • symbolizes a welcome to a land of freedom. • Central park • one of the world's best loved skyscrapers. • the financial and medial capital of the USA. • the longest suspension bridge in the world. • "a big apple". • Manhattan. • the headquarters of the United Nations • the national leader in fashion and entertainment. • was a gift to the USA from the people of France. • named after the first European explorer who saw Manhattan Island.
--	---

In the senior stage monologic speech must prevail since pupils take part in discussion and, therefore, express their thoughts in connection with a problem or retell a text read or heard. To sum it up both forms of speech (monologue and dialogue) should be developed side by side with preference for the one which is

more important for pupils' progress in learning a foreign language at a certain stage.

1.4. Designing listening tasks⁸

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

Techniques the Teacher Uses to Develop listening

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

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

These are the cases when the target language is used as a means of communication and a means of teaching. There is a great deal of listening in all the points of the lesson. This raises the problem of the teacher's speech during the lesson. It should be correct, sufficiently loud, clear, and expressive. But many of the teachers are too talkative. We can hear them speaking most of the time. Moreover, some teachers speak a great deal in Uzbek.

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

⁸ Nunan D. *Designing tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge University Press. 2001.

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

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

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

The first group of drill exercises for overcoming linguistic difficulties includes:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

I usually spent my holidays in the country. The United Kingdom is a large country.

(c) grammar exercises which help the teacher to develop pupils' skills in recognizing grammar forms and structures:

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

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

He can help you. I need his help.

The second group of drill exercises includes:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(c) exercises which develop pupils' visual imagination:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

— Listen and try to grasp the main idea of the story. You will be asked questions later on.

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

When pupils are ready to listen, the text can be read to them. If it is the teacher who reads or tells the story, he can help pupils to comprehend the text with gestures. If the text is recorded, a picture or pictures can facilitate comprehension. The pupils listen to the text once as is usually the case in real communication. Then the teacher checks their comprehension. If they have not understood it, they are told to listen to the text again. The teacher can use a dialogue to help pupils to understand the text after they have listened to the story for the first time, i. e., he may ask questions, make statements on the text for pupils to agree or reject them. Checking pupils' comprehension may be done in many ways depending on the stage of instruction, pupils' progress in the language, and other factors. In any case, however, it is necessary to proceed in order of complexity from mere recognition to reproduction.

The teacher checks his pupils' comprehension only:

- pupils' questions on the text
- making a plan
- telling the text according to the plan (it may be done in a chain-like way)
- reciting the text
- giving the gist of the text
- written reproduction of the text
- discussing the text

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

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

CONCLUSION

In the end, teachers must weigh up the benefits and costs of designing their own teaching materials and make their own decision as to whether it is worth the time and effort.

In conclusion, the advantages of teachers-designed materials can be summed up in the idea that they avoid the ‘one-size-fits-all’ approach of most commercial materials.

There are a number of potential pitfalls for teachers who would be materials designers. These can be considered under three headings, the first of which is organization. Coursebooks are usually organized around an identifiable principle and follow a discernible pattern throughout. While this can be rather dull and boring it does provide both teachers and students with some security and a “coherent body of work to remember and revise from”. In contrast, teacher-designed materials may lack overall coherence and a clear progression. Without some overall organizing principle, materials may be piecemeal and can result in poorly focused activities lacking clear direction. This is frustrating and confusing for learners who may not be able to see how their English is developing.

A further aspect of organization and storage of materials. Without a clearly thought and well-organized system, teacher-produced materials may be difficult to locate for ongoing use, or may end up damaged or with parts missing.

Possibly the most common criticism leveled against teacher-made materials is to do with their quality. At the surface level, teacher-made materials may “seem ragged and unprofessional next to those produced by professionals.”

In addition, a lack of experience and understanding on the part of the teacher may result in important elements being left out or inadequately covered. Teacher-made materials may be produced to take advantage of authentic text. However, if not guided by clear criteria and some experience, teachers may make inconsistent or poor choices of texts. A further problem may be a lack of clear instructions about how to make effective use of the materials – particularly instructions designed for students.

Yet another disadvantage of teacher-made materials, and perhaps the key factor inhibiting many teachers from producing their own teaching materials, is time. However passionately one may believe in the advantages of teacher-designed materials, the reality is that for many teachers, it is simply not viable – at least not all the time.

Inevitably there will be numerous constraints on any materials designer and compromises will be necessary. Materials that satisfy the guidelines proposed, though, could make the difference between a class of diverse learner in an excited “state of ‘expectancy’ rather than ‘expectation’”. A tantalizing proposition!

We’ve seen how teachers can select from a range of topics, materials and activities to make the best of their situation and themselves. It wasn’t until I had the privilege of seeing lots of teachers at work in their own classrooms, however, that I realized that, of course, every teacher has something they do, or something they are, that is unique to them. It’s their own special flair. Thinking of teachers now, we know such kind of teachers who make handouts which are attractive and instantly recognizable as theirs because of the hand-drawn artwork. The other ones work with students to create video projects on an ambitious scale. Another manages to get all the students interested in singing English songs. One colleague is a grand story teller. One wakes students up intellectually. Another bonds with the rather more isolated students in the school who could be so lost without this

contact. Every teacher we think of has something special, unconscious and uncontrived that they bring to their job. Perhaps this is the greatest freedom of all, the freedom to express our special gifts.

We think designing and evaluating teaching materials is not a simple job. It demands special knowledge, creation and skill from the teacher.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Islam Karimov “**On measures to further improve of foreign language learning system**”. “Ma’rifat”-Tashkent. December 10, 2012
2. Jo McDonough, Christopher Shaw. *Materials and methods in ELT*. Blackwell Publishing.2011.
3. Altan, M. Z. Culture in EFL contexts: Classroom and coursebooks. *MET*, 4(2). 1995.
4. Bell J., & Gower, R. *Writing course materials for the world: A great compromise*. 1998.
5. Hall D. *Materials production: Theory and practice*. Singapore: SEAMO Regional Language Center. 1995.
6. Harmer J. *How to teach English*. Harlow, Essex: Pearson Educational Ltd.
7. Nunan D. Principles for designing language teaching materials. *Guidelines*, 10(2),1-24. 1988
8. Nunan D. *Designing tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge University Press. 2001.
9. B.Tomlinson *Materials development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Language Teaching Library, Cambridge University Press.
10. Block, D. Some thoughts on DIY materials design. *ELT Journal*, 45 (3).1991
11. Cook, V. Spreading the influence of SLA research. Retrieved 29 January. 1998.
12. Demetron, G. *Communicative competence and second language teaching: Lessons learned from the Bangalore Project*. Retrieved 30 January. 2004

13. Susser B & TN Robb 'EFL Extensive Reading Instruction: Research and Procedure' JALT Journal Vol No.2. 1990.
14. Day RR & J Bamford 'Extensive Reading in the Second Language Classroom' Cambridge: CUP.1998.
15. Barnett, M.A. Reading through context: How real and perceived strategy use affects L2 comprehension. The Modern language Journal. 1988.
16. A process genre approach to teaching writing by Badger, Richards and White. *ELT Journal* Volume 54(2).
17. Writing by T Hedge. Oxford University Press.
18. Writing by C Tribble. Oxford University Press
19. Process writing by R White and V Arndt. Longman
20. Hedge T. Writing Oxford University Press. 1988.
21. Krashen S.D. Writing : Research, theory and applications Pergamon Press
22. Kroll B. Second Language Writing : Research insights for the classroom Cambridge University Press.1990
23. Raimes A. Techniques in teaching writing Oxford University Press
White R & V Arndt 1991 Process Writing Longman. 1983.