ТИЛЛАР ЎҚИТИШ МЕТОДИКАСИ ВА ТАЬЛИМ ТЕХНОЛОГИЯЛАРИ

ФАНИ БЎЙИЧА МАЪРУЗАЛАР МАТНИ

Тузувчи*:* **Лингвистика кафедраси ўқитувчиси Ш.Халилова**

ҚАРШИ – 2019

Theme-1: Theoretical principles of teaching foreign languages

Plan:

1. The principle of accessibility
2. The principle of durability
3. The principle of conscious approach
4. The principle of activity
5. The principle of visuality
6. The principle of individualization

Principle is defined as a guide to action, in our case as a guide to teaching. Methods of teaching foreign language are based on the fundamental principles of pedagogic (didactics). The seven didactic principles (consciousness, activness, visuality, consecutiveness, systematicness, accessibility, and durability) are interdependent and mutually complementary. In each subject those principles are applied specifically. For instance, the principle of visuality is differently realized in the teaching of mathematics, geography and foreign languages. different visual aids are used in teaching different subjects, and the purposes of their use vary.

Scientific approach in foreign language teaching implies

Careful determination of what and how to teach to achieve the aims set by the syllabus. There are 3 aims mainly; the leading role belongs to the practical aim. One of the main methodological principles is the principle of practical or communicative approach. It means pupils should be involved in oral and written communication throughout the whole course of leaning the foreign language. This principle is realized in modern teaching aids and teaching materials now in use in schools. Pupils are taught to use the target language as a means of communication for listening comprehension, speaking, and reading.

Each language activity has its own set of actions which are characteristic of this activity (4Language activities).The development of each activity requires certain techniques and exercises. Hence we have the following methodological principle-the principle of a differential approach in foreign language teaching-each activity requires special attention on the part of the teacher.

The principle of accessibility. In teaching of every subject including a foreign language, the principle of accessibility is realized through conformity with the following requirements:

1. The subject- matter of the instruction must correspond to the age and mental powers of the learners; be either too difficult, nor to easy or too childish for them.

2. be rightly closed, i.e. be neither overabundant, nor scarce ; this refers to the whole course as provided for in the program, to teach lesson, and each home – assignment; in terms of time relations this means that the rate of progress of the instruction must be neither too rapid nor too slow;

3. Be properly graded; each stage should be prepared by, and follow logically from, the preceding stages, without gaps or missing links in the previous instruction.

4. be so presented that the pupils have to grapple only with one difficulty at a time; graduation of difficulties is also an indispensable condition of accessibility.
For example, new grammar material should be introduced on familiar lexical material lest the pupils should be confronted simultaneously with two sets of difficulties. Or in teaching the Past Indefinite tense aspect form of the verb the affirmative form must be introduced first, then the interrogative and negative.

The Principle of Durability stands somewhat apart from the other didactic principles in so far as it determines the nature not of the teaching, but of the assimilation of the instruction.

To be exact, it (durability) means the ability of a pupil to keep in his memory linguistic and language material he learns of ready access, i.e. the pupil can use units of language semantic-patterns whenever he needs them for oral or written communication. The durability is ensured : by vivid presentation of the material, when pupils are involved in the act of presentation ,their thinking and senses are at work; by constant revision or drill pupils reproduce the material ,and review it throughout the course, their auditory, visual, kinesthetic and motor analyzers are at work;

By the use of the material on the part of the learners for communicative needs: pupils and read texts with various assignments to get information through hearing and reading, they carry on conversation within the topics and material covered;

By systematic control;

By constant supervision of pupils' habits and skills on the part of the teacher. Under these conditions pupils keep the material in their memory because it is constantly reviewed by them and revised by the teacher. Modern methodology pays much attention to this principle. The idea of intensive work of visual, auditory, and kinesthetic analyzers has been made real because of the use of various teaching aids and teaching materials.

The Principle of Conscious approach.

Consciousness as a principle of didactics, or in one of the two main senses of this word, (сознательность, сознание) is knowledge, and understanding by the learner (pupils) of what he or she is doing. Pupils understand both the form and the content of the material they are to learn, and they are aware of how they should treat the material while performing various exercises which aim at developing habits and skills in using it. Such an approach to language learning usually contrasts with "mechanical" learning through repetitive drill.

In teaching a foreign language therefore, it is reasonable to help pupils in assimilating language rules which function in this language by introducing the rules, rather tan to wait until the learners deduce these rules through speech activity. V.A. Artemov a prominent psychologist, B.V. Belyaev and others whose contribution to foreign language teaching is considerable insist, on a similar conscious approach to foreign language teaching.

Only language practice supported by the theory can develop language habits and skills in a desirable direction and lead to mastering of a foreign language.

A conscious approach to foreign language teaching implies the use of the learner's native language (mother tongue).Comparison contributes to the thorough understanding of the material studied, since it causes the learner to observe and analyze the linguistic phenomena. These may be compared with other phenomena of the mother tongue, or with their counterparts in the foreign language.

When a pupil begins to learn a foreign language the words of this language are often associated with the words of the mother tongue first. However, thanks to constant practice the intermediate link –native language –fades, and foreign language words come into the pupils consciousness directly in connection with the concepts they express. Mastery of the language means formulating one's thoughts within the foreign language. We should use mother tongue as a means of teaching whenever it helps pupils in acquiring knowledge necessary for developing habits and skills. In teaching and learning, the foreign language and the mother tongue are closely connected and influence each other. The pupil can transfer language skills acquired in the native language to those in the target language.

Historical comments on linguistic phenomena also contribute to the conscious assimilation of the language. For instance, information on the origin of the articles helps to understand their meaning, and this is true especially of the indefinite article. However, comparison with the mother tongue, and historical comments made in the mother-tongue, should not take up more than a very small part of the time allotted to the teaching of the foreign language. The pupil's mother tongue often interferes with the target language, i.e., the formation of new habits in hindered by habits already acquired. For instance, pronunciation habits in the mother tongue hinder the development of pronunciation habits in a foreign language. Habits and skills of connect speech, from grammar viewpoint, lead to constant mistakes in the foreign language as the pupils try to transfer the structure of one language to that of the other. In the studying English or French Karakalpak-speaking pupils often make mistakes in word-order. We believe that the best way to overcome interference is, on the one band, some comparison of language phenomena in both languages clearly showing the peculiarities of the foreign language its distinctive features, its characteristics, and, on the hand, constant practice in the foreign language that helps to overcome interference in developing pupils' habits and skills language it is necessary to cope with the mother tongue of pupils.

This means that teaching a foreign language, for example, English to Russian, Karakalpak, Bashkir, Arabic-speaking pupils should differ in the arrangement of language material and in the techniques of its presentation and retention. We cannot ignore pupils' native tongue in teaching a foreign language when searching for the shortest and most sound ways to the desired end. Indeed, Karakalpak-speaking pupils and Georgian speaking pupils have different troubles in learning English.

Internal of English-English comparison, also, should as a rule be preferred to external or English-Russian, or English-Karakalpak. For example, the pupils will

profit more if in explaining the words hand and arm, both of which correspond to the one Russian word *рука, кора* word *кол,* the teacher does not only speak Russian or Karakalpak, proceeding form the two meaning of the Russian word, but having first used direct demonstration.(This is my **hand,** this is my **arm**), further says, **we take things with our hands; a mother carries her baby in her arms; gloves are for the hands; the sleeves of a shirt or of a coat are for the arms; little children sometimes walk hand in hand; grown up people sometimes walk arm in arm;**

Conscious approach in the foreign language teaching implies that the pupil should understand the material they are to learn to be able to transform it and apply in communication in the target language. Transformation is connected with pupils' abilities to make the material fit new situations, new tasks.

Conscious approach in foreign language teaching implies pupils' comprehension of the material they study. For example, they can single out topical sentences while reading a text, main ideas while listening to a text; pupils can the material for practical needs.

Consciousness also implies the development of independent work in pupils at the target language, which in its turn ensures favorable conditions for extending their knowledge and perfecting habits and skills.

The Principle of activity (Activeness)

Activeness is largely dependent upon interest. We know that the chief psychological factor naturally conditioning interest is relatedness to self. In order to awaken or stimulate the pupils' interest in the English language the teacher will tell them at the very first lesson about the manifold possibilities that open out before each of them at the result of studying that language. The learner should feel a need to learn the subject and have necessary prerequisites created for satisfaction of this need; The main sources of activity are motivation, desire and interest in reading the original interesting and useful books written in English; corresponding with English schoolchildren; conversing with foreign guests to our republic, perhaps visiting or being sent on a mission to one of the countries of the English-speaking nations and converting with the residents in their own language. Exchange of pupils freedom support Act, ACCELS and others. Young people in our republic want to know foreign languages to illustrate this we may refer to the entrance examinations of language departments of higher schools where the competition is great. To the growing number of people who wish to study at various foreign language courses to the desire of parents to sent their children to specialized schools and etc. The great desire to study foreign language is observed among pupil of the 5 th , 6 th , form.

In other forms (классах) there is a tendency to the loss of interest in language learning. This shows that there is something wrong in teaching this subject. The teachers fall to sustain and develop the desire to learn which pupils have when they start the course. If the teacher wants to stimulate pupils' interest in the subject he should make them use their knowledge for practical needs while talking, reading, doing various exercises of a communicative character which are creative by nature.

Consequently in teaching a foreign language it is necessary to stimulate pupils activity by involving them in the act of communication in the target language either in its oral (hearing, speaking) or written (reading , writing) form. At all stages an Activeness should be coordinated with accessibility.

In our opinion ,from the viewpoint of activeness a lesson in a foreign language should be judged by the following criteria:

1) The relative extent of the use of the foreign and the native language a) by the teacher and b)by the pupils;

2) The relative duration of the part of the lesson taken up by speech in the foreign language by the pupils;

3) The relation between speech by the teacher and by the pupils;

4) The readiness and the quality of the pupils' answers to the teacher's questions;

5) The use by the pupils of their power of guessing;

6) The number and the contents of the questions asked by the pupils

   a) Of the teacher and   b) of their comrades.

7) Correction by the pupils and

   a) Their own and   b) of their comrades mistakes.

The principle of visuality in foreign language teaching is consistent with the psychological principle of associative memorization and with Pavlov's theory of the two signaling systems: A wide use of visuality in the teaching all the subjects is also as main requirement of didactics. Since the gaining of knowledge begins either with sense perception or with what has been formerly perceived that is with previous experience. In foreign language teaching the realization of the principle of visuality primarily finds expression in the direct or visual modes of semantizing, or explaining meanings i.e. the demonstration and naming by the teacher of objects, pictures and actions, wherefore the learners infer the meanings of the words and expressions used.

The use of visual aids develops the pupils habits of speech enhances the emotional influence of visual impressions causing the desire to speak. Visualization allows the teacher to create natural conditions for pupils' oral practice and "free conversation". И.Е.Аничков, В.Н Снакянц: Visuality as applied in foreign language teaching of two kinds: Material (предметная нач-ть), consisting in the demonstration of objects and actions, and graphic (изобразительная нач-нь), consisting in the use of pictures, tables, and diagrams. B.V Belyaev suggests the following classification for visualization (see p 57-Y.V.Rogova). In this connection V.A. Artemov writes...... Для классификации существующих и вновь возникающих видов начти при обучении иностранным языкам существенны следующиее различающие их признаки:

1)объектная - образная

2)предметная изобразительная

3) педцевитная-мнемическая

4) реальная- схематическая

5) однорецепторная-многорецепторная

6)чистая (синтетическая) - опосредованная (аналитическая 7)комплексно

языковая –аспектно языковая

7)театрализовано поступочная - кино поступочная

The use of visualization makes foreign language lessons emotionally colored, gets the pupils interested and awakens their thought. All these provide favorable conditions for the realization of the principle of conscious and active teaching and create natural situations for the use of language as a means of communication.

The principle of individualization in foreign language teaching is of great importance since this subject is an essential one in the curriculum in out schools therefore each pupil should habits and skills the syllabys sets. However some individuals in a class learn more rapidly than others. The teacher should access the progress of each individual in the class and find the way hoe to manage the classroom activity so that the slowest learners are not depressed by being left behind and the fastest and most able learners are not frustrated by being held back. Individualization in foreign language teaching is achieved:

1) through the use of so-called "individual cards"(раздаточный материал)

2) through the use of the programmed materials when each pupil can work at his own mplace;

3) By special selection of exercises for each group of pupils in the class: bright average and dull; the former can do more difficult exercises than the latter; by the use of additional material, for example: for reading for bright pupils. by arranging pupils communication in the target language so that each pupil can do his best as a participant of the work done in the classroom.

In conclusion it should be said that to apply the principle of individual approach in foreign language teaching the teacher should be familiar with the class, with its individuals.

The foreign language syllabus is the main document which lays down and the content of teaching foreign languages in schools.

Literature

1)Методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе / Сост. Гез А.И,Ляховицкий М.В, Миролюбов А.А ,Фоломкина С.К ,Шатилов С.Ф Москва высшая школа 1982.

2)Теоретические основы обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе/Под редакцией Клименко А.Д ,Миролюбова А.А Москва педагогика 1981

3) Rogova G.V "Methods of Teaching English" Moscow 1983

4)Жалолов Ж.Чет Тил Укитиш Методикаси

THEME-2: METHODOLOGY AND ITS RELATION TO OTHER SCIENCES.

Plan:

1. The main problems of methods of Foreign language Teaching.

2. Its relation to Pedagogies.
3. Its relation to Psychology.
4. its relation to Physiology.
5. Its relation to linguistics.

1. Methods of foreign language teaching is understood here as a body of scientifically tested theory concerning the teaching of foreign languages in schools and other educational institutions. It covers three main problems:

(1) aims of teaching a foreign language:
(2) content of teaching, i.e. what to teach to attain the aims;
(3) methods and techniques of teaching, i.e. how to teach a foreign language to attain the aims in the most effective way.

Methods of foreign language teaching is closely related to other sciences such as pedagogic, physiology, linguistics, and some others.

2. Pedagogic is the science concerned with the teaching and education of the younger generation. Since Methods also deals with the problems of teaching and education, it is most closely related to pedagogic. To study foreign language Teaching one must know pedagogic. One branch of pedagogic is called didactics. Didactics studies general ways of teaching in schools. Methods, as compared to didactics, studies the specific ways of teaching a definite subject. It may be considered special didactics. In the foreign language teaching, as well as in the teaching of mathematics, history, and other subjects taught in schools, general principles of didactics are applied and, in their turn, influence and enrich didactics.

3. Teaching a foreign language means first the formation and development of pupils' habits and skills in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. We cannot expect to develop such habits and skills of our pupils effectively if we do not know and take into account the p s y c h o l o g y of habits and skills, the ways of forming them, the influence of formerly acquired habits on the formation of new ones, and many other necessary factors that psychology can supply us with. At present we have much material in the field of psychology which can be applied to teaching a foreign language. For example, N.I. Zhinkin, a prominent psychologist in his investigation of the mechanisms of speech came to the conclusion that words and rules of combining them are most probably dormant in the kinetic center of the brain. When the ear receives a signal it reaches the brain, its hearing center and then passes to the kinetic center. If a teacher wants his pupils to speak English he must use all the opportunities he has to make them hear and speak it.

To master a second language is to acquire another code: another way of receiving and transmitting information. To create this new code in the most effective way one must take into consideration certain psychological factors.

Effectively learning of a foreign language depends to a great extent on the pupils memory. That is why a teacher must know how he can help his pupils to successfully memorize and retain in memory the language material they learn.

Here again psychological investigations are significant. For example, the psychologist,

P.K. Zinchenko, proved that in learning a subject both voluntary and in voluntary memory is of great importance. In his investigation of involuntary memory P.K. Zinchinko came to the conclusion that this memory is retentive. In teaching a foreign language we should create favorable conditions for involuntary memorizing. P.K. Zinchinko showed that involuntary memorizing is possible only when pupils' attention is concentrated on solving some material problems.

4. Methods of foreign language teaching has a definite relation to physiology of the higher nervous system. Pavlov's theories of "conditioned reflexes", of the "second signaling system" and of "dynamic stereotype" are the examples. Each of these interrelated theories bears a direct relation to the teaching of a foreign language. According to Pavlov habits are conditioned reflexes, and a conditioned reflexes is an action performed automatically in response to a definite stimulus as a result of previous frequent repetitions of the same action. If we thoroughly study the theory of conditioned reflexes we shall see that it explains and confirms the necessity for frequent repetitions and revision of material pupils study as one of the means of inculcating habits. Pavlov shoved that man's higher nervous activities - speaking and thinking - are the functions of a special system. This system is developed only in man. It enables the brain to respond to inner stimuli as it responds to outer stimuli or signals perceived through the sense organs. Pavlov named this the second signaling system.

Consequently one of the forms of human behavior is language behavior, i.e., speech response to different communication situations. Therefore in teaching a foreign language we must bear in mind that pupils should acquire the language they study as a behavior, as something that helps people to communicate with each other in various real situations of intercourse. Hence a foreign language should be taught through such situations.

Pavlov's theory of "dynamic stereotype" also furnishes the physiological base for many important principles of language teaching, e. g., for the topical vocabulary arrangement.

5. Methods of foreign teaching is most closely related to linguistics, since linguistics deals with the problems which are of paramount importance to Methods, with language and thinking, grammar and vocabulary, the relationship between grammar and vocabulary, and many others. Methods successfully uses for example, the results of linguistic investigation in the selection and arrangement of language material for teaching. It is known that structural linguistics has had a great impact on teaching. Teaching materials have been prepared by linguists and methodologists of the structural school. Many prominent linguists have not only developed the theory of linguistics, but tried to apply it to language teaching. The following quotation may serve as a proof of this:

"It has occurred to the linguist as well as to the psychologist that the foreign language classroom should be an excellent laboratory in which to test new theories of language acquisition."

Methods of foreign language teaching like any the science, has definite ways of investigating the problems which may arise. They are:

(1)   a critical study of the ways of foreign languages were taught in our country and abroad;

(2)   a thorough study and summing up of the experience of the best foreign language teachers in different types of schools;

(3)   experimenting with the aim of confirming or refuting the working hypotheses that may arise during investigation. Experimenting becomes more and more popular with methodologists have to deal with different data, that is why in arranging research work they use mathematics, statistics, and probability theory to interpret experimental results.

In recent years there has been a great increase of interest in Methods since foreign language teaching has many attractions as an area for research. A great deal of useful research work has been carried out. New ideal and new data produced as the result of research are usually developed into new teaching materials and teaching techniques.

It should be said that we need research activities of the following types: descriptive research which deals with "'what to teach"; experimental and instrumental research dealing with "how

combination of devices, various teaching aids, etc.

Questions for Discussion:

1.   Compare several viewpoints on methods as a science.

2,   Give reasons to confirm that methods is an independent science.

-      Methods possesses its own field of research. True or false?

-      Methods is interrelated with other sciences and is fed by them. In what way?

-      Methods utilized various kinds of scientific investigation. Consider the kinds you find justifiable.

Literature

1. Бим ИЛ. Методика обучения иностранным языкам как наука и проблема школьного учебника. МЛ 977
2. Гез Н.И. Ляховиский М.В. Миролюбов А.А. и др. Методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школею 1982.
3. Демьяненко М.Я. и др. Основы обшей методики обучения иностранным языкам. Киев 1976.
4. Jalolov J. J.Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi. T. 1996.
5. Rogova G. V. Methods of Teaching English. Moscow. 1983 Основы методики обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе М. 1981.
6. O'rta umumiy talim maktabida ingliz tili o'qitish bo'yicha o'quv dasturi. (5-9 sinflar) Toshkent 1999.
7. O'. H. Hoshimov, I.Y.Yoqubov Ingliz tili o'qitish metodikasi. T.1993.
8. O'rta maktabda chet tili o'qitish kursi. Prof. Сетлин B.C tahriri ostida. T. 1978.

THEME-3: AIM, CONTENT AND TENDENCY IN METHODOLOGY
Plan:

1. Aims of Teaching.
2. What is the practical aims?
3. What is the Educational aims?
4. What is the main ideas of Cultural Aims?
5. Content of Foreign language Teaching.

1. Aims are the first and most important consideration in any teaching. "Protsecc обучения   представляет собой переход учащихся из одного состояния в другое…Задачи обучения состоят в том, чтобы переместит обучающихся из их начального состояния в определенное состояние (или, точнее, во множество состояний), означающее наличие у них определенных знаний, навыков, умений”.

Hence the teacher should know exactly what his pupils are expected to achieve in learning his subject, what changes he can bring about in his pupils at the end of the course, at the end of the year, term, month, week, and each particular lesson, i.e., he should know the aims and objectives of foreign language teaching in schools.

The term "aims" and "objectives" arc clearly distinguished in this work in vaccordance with the suggestion given by R. Roberts. Here is what he writes: "The term' aims be reserved for long-term goals such as provide the justification or reason for teaching second languages ... the term 'objectives' be used only for short-term goals { immediate lesson goal } such as may reasonably be achieved in a classroom lesson or sequence of lesson." In this chapter we shall deal with long-term goals, that is, with the aims of foreign language teaching which dictate the teacher's approach to this subject. The changes the teacher must bring about in his pupils may be threefold: practical-pupils acquire habits and skills in using a foreign language: educational-they develop their mental abilities and intelligence in the process of learning the language;

Cultural-pupils extent their knowledge of the world in which they live. Therefore there are aims, at least, which should be achieved in foreign language teaching: practical, educational, and cultural.

2. Practical aims. The foreign language as a school subject differs from other subjects of the school curriculum. Whereas the teaching, for instance, of history is mostly connected with the imparting of historical laws and facts which pupils are to learn and the teaching of the mother tongue leads to the mastery of the language as a system (which is already used for exchanging thoughts and feelings) so that pupils will be able to use it more effectively in oral and written language, the teaching of a foreign language should result in the pupil's gaining one more code for receiving and conveying information; that is, in acquiring a second language for the same purpose as the native language: to use it as a means of communication. In this connection we should like to quote G. Perrent "Whatever a new language is being taught as a curricular extra... or as an essential medium for education it will be learned by the young child only if it obviously makes possible some purposeful activity other than language learning. If it does not do this, attempts to teach it may be largely a waste of time."

In modern society language is used in two ways: directly or orally, and indirectly or in written form. We distinguish oral language and written language. Direct communication implies a speaker and a hearer, indirect communication implies a writer and a reader. Hence the practical aims in teaching a foreign language are four in number: hearing, speaking, reading, and writing.

When adopting the practical aims for a secondary school- the following factors are usually taken into consideration: the economic-and political conditions of society, the requirements of the state; the general goals of secondary school education; the nature of the subject, and the conditions for instruction.

The nature of the language should also be taken into consideration in determining the aims of language teaching. Learning a living language implies using the language of sounds, that is, speaking. Scientific research gives more profound insight into the problem. It is not so much the ability to speak that is means here but rather the oral treatment; in other words, the language of sounds, not of graphic signs (which is usually the case when a dead language is studied) should serve as basic means of teaching.

The syllabus for the nine-year school concentrates on the development of speech proficiency. Pupils should be, able:
-to give a short talk and carry on a conversation on the topics included in the program;
-to read without a dictionary texts containing familiar grammar material and no more than 4-6 unfamiliar words (per 100 words) the meaning of which, as a rule, should be clear from the context or due to familiar word-building elements.

The syllabus for the eleven-year school requires that school-leavers should:
-read and understand a foreign text both with and without a dictionary;
-understand oral language and speak within the topics and material required by the syllabus; write a letter;

In foreign language learning all forms of work must be in close interrelation, otherwise it is impossible to master the language. However, attention should be given mainly to practice in hearing, speaking, and reading. Thus pupils must achieve a level in their knowledge of the language which will enable them to further develop it at an institute or in their practical work. At the present time, however, foreign language teaching in school does not quite meet the demands of our society; better results are desirable.

In conclusion it should be said that the achievement of practical aims in foreign language teaching makes possible the achievement of education and cultural aims.

3: Educational aims. Learning a second language is of great educational value.

Through a new language we can gain an insight into the way in which words express thoughts, and so achieve greater clarity and precision in our own communications. Even at the most elementary level learning a second language

1. Perrent G. new languages and younger children-English language Teaching. V.XXVI,1972, № 3, p238. teaches the cognizance of meaning, furnishes a term of comparison that gives us an insight into the quality of language.

When learning a foreign language the pupils understand better how language functions and this brings him to a greater awareness of the functioning of his own language. Since language is connected with thinking, through foreign language study we can develop the pupils' intellect. Teaching a foreign language helps the teacher to develop the pupils' voluntary and involuntary memory, his imaginative abilities, and will power. Indeed, in learning a new language the pupil should memorize words, idioms, sentence patterns, structures, and keep them in long-time memory ready to be used whenever he needs them in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Teaching a foreign language under conditions when this is the only foreign language environment, is practically impossible without appealing to pupils' imagination. The lack of real communication forces the teacher to create imaginary situations for pupils, to speak about making each pupil determine his language behavior as if he were in such situations.

Teaching a foreign language contributes to the linguistic education of the pupil, the latter extends his knowledge of phonic, graphic, structural, and semantic aspects of language as it is through contrastive analysis of language phenomena;

4. Cultural aims. Learning a foreign language makes the pupil acquainted with the life, customs and traditions of the people whose language he studies through visual material (such as post cards with the views of towns, countryside, and people, filmstrips, video for example, "Great Britain", "What. Tour Isis Can See in London", "Disney Land" films) and reading material dealing with the countries where the target language is spoken. Foreign language teaching should promote pupils' general educational and cultural growth by increasing their knowledge about foreign countries, and by acquainting them with progressive traditions of the people whose language they study. Through learning a second language the pupil gains a deeper insight into the nature and functioning of language as a social phenomenon.

In conclusion it should be said that practical, educational, and cultural aims are intimately related and form an inseparable unity. The leading role belongs to practical aims, for the other can only be achieved through the practical command of the foreign languageю

CONTENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

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

The first component of "what to teach" is habits and skills which pupils should acquire while learning a foreign language. According to the aims of learning this subject they are: hearing (listening comprehension), speaking, reading, and writing. The level of habits and skills is determined by the syllabus for each form. However, quantitative and qualitative characteristics of skills, or the so-called terminal behavior, is not defined yet for different types of schools and stages of instruction. This is one of the problems for methodologists to investigate

and solve. Nevertheless, some attempts have been made in this respect. Thus in school syllabus we can find some directions' as to the level of skills that should be reached in each particular form and their development from form to form For example, the requirements for hearing and reading skills differ in the 9th and 10th forms.

Questions for Discussion:
1. Speak about aims of teaching English?
2. What is the main features of Practical aims?
3. Speak about educational and Cultural aims?
4. What is the content of foreign language teaching?

Literature

1. Бим И.Л. Методика обучения иностранным языкам как наука и проблема школьного учебника. М.1977
2. Гез И.И.., Ляховиский М.В., Миролюбов А.А. и др.. Методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. 1982
3. Демьяненко М.Я и др.Основы общей методики обучения иностранным языкам.Киев 1970
4. Джалалов Дж.Дж.Проблемы содержания обучения иностранным языкам. Т. 1987.
5. Jalolov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. T. 1996.
6. Ляховищкий М.В. О некоторых базисных категориях методики обучуения иностранным языкам. ИЯШ. №1. 1973
7. Rogova G.V. Methods of Teaching English. Moscow. 1983
   Основы методики обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе.

Theme-4. TEACHING LANGUAGE MATERIALS
Plan:
1. Teaching aids : a) non-mechanical aids b) mechanical aids
2. Teaching materials: a) A teaching book b) Pupil's c) Programmed materials d) Visual materials e) Audio materials f) Audio-visual materials
3. The qualities of teaching materials
4. Implementing Teaching Aids and materials into school life

Teaching Aids and teaching Materials

To achieve effective classroom learning under the conditions of compulsory secondary education, the teacher must use all the accessories he has at his disposal in order to arouse the interest of his pupils and retain it throughout the lesson which is possible only if the pupils are actively involved in the very process of classroom learning.

To teach a foreign language effectively the teacher needs teaching aids and teaching materials. During the last few years important developments have taken place in this field. As a result there is a great variety of teaching aids and teaching materials at the teacher's disposal.

Teaching aids.

By teaching aids we mean various devices which can help the foreign language teacher in presenting linguistic material to his/her pupils and fixing it in their memory in testing pupils' knowledge of words, phrases and grammar items, their habits and skills in using them. Teaching aids which are at teachers' disposal contemporary schools may be grouped into:

a) Non-mechanical aids

b) Mechanical aids

Non-mechanical aids are: a blackboard is perhaps the most useful of visual aids and the majority of teachers would feel hammered in a classroom which did not have one.

It is the oldest aid in classroom; the teacher turns to the blackboard whenever he needs to write something while explaining some new linguistic material to his pupils, correcting pupils' mistakes, or arranging the class to work at some words and sentence patterns, etc.; the blackboard can also be used for quick drawing to supply pupils with "objects" to speak about; Unfortunately many teachers do not make full use of the blackboard or they use it badly. Some hints:

1) Turn to the students as you are writing and turn round frequently to face them.

2) ask them what they think this word picture is going to be

3) Get them to read things as you write them

4) Ask them to spell the difficult words for you

When writing try standing on the right of the board as the students see it. rd drawing, saying that they can't draw, often without ever having tried. However, simple stick figures are not beyond even the most hopeless artist, and with a little practice every teacher can learn enough to draw simple pictures for drills or picture compositions. The blackboard is probably the most useful visual aid available to use, but our lessons can be enlivened enormously if we have other aids at our disposal.

A flannel board (a board covered with flannel or other soft fabric for sticking pictures on its surface). It is used for creating vivid situations which would stimulate pupils' oral language; the teacher can have a flannel board made in a workshop or by one in a specialized shop; the use of a flannel board with cut-outs prepared by the teacher or by the pupils leads t active participation in the use of the target language as each pupil makes his/her own contribution to working out "a scene" on the flannel board;

A magnet board (a board which has the properties of a magnet, i.e., can attract special cards with letters, words, phrases, or pictures on it) used with the same purpose as a flannel board.

Mechanical aids are: the tape-recorder has come to be an invaluable aid to the language learner and teacher, and after the blackboard, is probably one of the most commonly used pieces of equipment in the classroom The tape-recorder allows the pupil to play back the tape listening to the speaker's voice and recording his own on the second tack (twin-track).

The tape-recorder is considered to be the most important aid in learning a foreign language. The tape-recorder can obviously be used for all the listening activities. Listening is a skill which requires a great deal of concentration so it is a good idea to limit the time spent on continuous listening. A very motivating activity for students is to let them write and record dialogues. You could also record students' telling a story.

Positioning the tape-recorder is also an important matter. Try to use a speaker which directs the sound at the students; after all, you're not teaching the ceiling. Some criteria for choosing tuned material should be taken into consideration

(see "A Training Course for TEFL" by Peter Hubbard).

A gramophone or record-player is also an audio equipment available in every school; the record-player is an indispensable supplement to contemporary textbooks and other teaching materials.

An opaque projector or epidiascope used for projection of illustrations and photographs.

A filmstrip projector which can be used in a partially darkened room.

An overhead projector used for projection of a table, a scheme, a chart, a plan, a map or a text for everyone to see on a screen. They can be used both in a daylight and artificial light.

Television and radio equipment: Television would make it possible to demonstrate the language in increasingly varied everyday situations; pupils are invited to look, listen and speak; television and radio programmes are broadcast, but it is not always easy for teachers using these programmes to synchronize their lesson time with the time of the television or radio transmission;

Teaching machines which can be utilized for present information to the pupils, for drilling, or testing; the teaching machine can provide an interaction between the pupil and the "programme"; the learner obtains a stimulus and a feed-back from his/her response; thus, favorable conditions are created for individual pupils to learn, for instance, vocabulary, grammar, reading, etc.

A language laboratory. This is a special classroom designed for language learning. It is equipped with individual seats or semi-private stalls. They are connected with a network of audio writing, the nerve centre of which is the monitoring console which has a Switch board and tape decks, making it to all possible to play tapes And send the programme to all or any combination of booths. The teacher at the monitoring console can listen in, or can have :i two-way conversation with any pupil. There are two main of language laboratories- library a broadcast system.

The language laboratory is used for listening and speaking. It is used for "structural drills" which usually involve rephrasing sentences according to a model, or effecting the substitutions. The language laboratory keeps a full class of pupils working and learning for the entire period, and thus enables the teacher to teach the foreign language more effectively The teacher must know about each aid described above, be able to operate it, and train pupils to use it. When used in different combinations teaching aids can offer valuable help to the teacher of a

foreign language in making the learning of this subject in schools more effective for pupils.

Teaching Materials

By teaching materials we mean the materials which the teacher can use to help pupils learn a foreign language through visual or audio perception. They must be capable of contributing to the achievement of the practical, cultural, and educational aims of learning a foreign language. The following teaching materials are in use nowadays: teacher's books, pupil's books, visual materials, audio materials, and audio-visual materials.

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

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

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

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

1. The textbooks should provide pupils with the knowledge of the language sufficient for developing language skills, i.e., they must include the fundamentals of the target language.

2. They ensure pupils activity in speaking, reading and writing, i.e., they must correspond to the aims of foreign language teaching in schools

3. The textbooks must arouse pupils' interest and excite their curiosity

4. The textbooks must extend pupils' educational horizon, i.e., the material of textbooks should be of educational value.

5. They should have illustrations to help pupils in comprehension and in speaking.

6. The textbooks must reflect the life and culture of the people whose language the pupils study.

Every textbook for learning a foreign language should contain exercises and texts. The textbooks should provide the revisions of words in texts, drills and speech exercises. Exercises for developing oral language should constitute 40-50 % of the exercises of the textbook. The other 50 % will be those designed for assimilating vocabulary, grammar, the technique of reading etc.

Manuals. It is a handbook which may be used in addition to the textbook.

Selected reading. There is a great variety of supplementary readers graded in forms and types of schools.

Dictionaries. For learning English there are some English-Russian, English-Uzbek, English-Karakalpak dictionaries available.

Programmed materials. They are necessary when programmed learning is used. The main features of programmed learning are as follows

1. Learning by small easy steps. Every step or frame calls for a written or an oral response which requires both attention and thought.

2. Immediate reinforcement by supplying a correct answer after each response. The pupil is aware that his response is right. The steps are so small and the their arrangement is so orderly that he is likely to make very few errors. When an error occurs, he discovers his mistake immediately by comparing his response with the one given in "the feed-back",

3. Progression at the learning rate of each individual pupil. Each pupil can work at his pace.

Visual materials. Objects (Realia). There are a lot of things in the classroom such as pens and pencils of different sizes and colours/ books, desks, and many other articles which the teacher can use in presenting English names for them and in stimulating pupils' activities to utilize the words denoting the objects they can see, touch, point to, give, take, etc. Toys and puppets may be widely used in teaching children of primary schools, which is the case in the specialized schools.

Flashcards. a) Picture flashcards b) word flashcards. A flashcarcl is a card with a letter, a sound symbol, or a word to be used for a quick showing to pupils and in this way for developing pupils' skills in reading and pronunciation. Picture flashcards have the advantage that the teacher can prepare them at his/her leisure at home. In this way, they can be made more attractive and colorful an can include details impossible to include in a hastily drawn blackboard picture. Although, they will probably be used in much the same sort of way and for much the same sort of purpose as blackboard drawings, they have the advantage of cutting down greatly on time as well as providing variety. One can also make double sided flashcards to use when drilling certain contrasting language items, e.g.

Side one: She usually drinks tea.

Side two: But now she is drinking champagne.

Wall-charts: A wall-chart is a big sheet of paper with drawing or words to be hung in the classroom and used for revision or generalization of some linguistic phenomenon, such as "English Tenses", "Passive Voice", "Rules of Reading" and so on.

Posters or series of illustrations portraying a story. They are used as "props" in retelling a story read or heard.

Pictures. a) Object pictures (a bed, a cat, a table)

b) Situational pictures (the picture of a boy lying in bed)

c) Topical picture (a picture of a bedroom)

Printed pictures, magazine pictures. Printed and magazine pictures are one of the most useful visual aids available to teachers. The students can be presented with completely unusual situations in magazine pictures, which at the same time are stimulating and colorful. Magazine pictures are also easily accessible to everyone-they are cheap and easy to find.

Photographs. They are of two kinds: black-and-white and colorful e.g. "Views of London" and etc.

Albums. An album is a book of pictures or photographs which is used for developing pupils' language skills.

Maps and plans. In teaching English the maps of Great Britain, the USA, and other countries where English is spoken may be used. The plans, for example, of a house, building.

Slides. A slide is glass or plastic plate bearing a picture.

Audio materials. Tapes and records or discs belong to audio materials. Tapes and records are used for teaching listening comprehension, speaking, and reading aloud.

Audio-visual materials. Sound film loops and films, are examples of visual materials.

Sound film loops are becoming popular with the teachers. They are short (1,5-1,7 min.) and the teacher can play the film loop back as many times as necessary for the pupils to grasp the material and memorize it.

Films. Specially prepared educational films for language teaching have appeared, e.g., "Australia", "New York", "Winter Sports 1 ' and other.

Teaching aids used in various combinations allow the teacher to develop his pupils' oral-aural skills: These materials are valuable for presentation, exercised, revision, testing. Visual materials have an important role to play in the development of hearing and speaking skills. Teaching materials can also be used to assist in the general development of the pupil's personality, and 'his is of great educational value. Teaching materials acquire special importance in gaining cultural aims. In this connection it is necessity to mention the qualities teaching materials should possess:

1. Authenticity
2. Clarity
3. Practicality
4. Appropriateness

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

Literature:

1) Методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе / Сост. Гез А.И, Ляховицкий М.В, Миролюбов А.А ,Фоломкина С.К ,Шатилов С.Ф Москва высшая школа 1982.
2) Теоретические основы обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе/Под редакцией Клименко А.Д ,Миролюбова А.А Москва педагогика 1981

Theme-5. TEACHING GRAMMAR
Plan:
1. Recognizing the importance of teaching grammar;
2. Establishing peculiarities in planning a Grammar teaching;

3. Involving students in practicing activities relating to planning a Grammar teaching;

4.Involving students Discussion "Features of Teaching Grammar".

The subject of grammar is the knowledge of how to construct a sentence. Grammar is concerned with the construction of written and oral sentences. Grammar describes a language device that uses a finite number of rules to generate all the sentences of a language. Grammar can also explain sentence construction and tell grammatical sentences from ungrammatical ones. Sentences can be perceived as grammatical despite possible language inaccuracies and slips (transposition, omission, redundancy, and overgeneralization) and language twists (ellipsis, tags and anaphoric starts).

Grammar knowledge can be declarative and procedural. Declarative knowledge is what can be demonstrated as the knowledge of rules and/or examples. Procedural knowledge is what can be applied in the process of communication.

According to some theories, declarative knowledge does not become procedural knowledge. Other views hold that "learned" knowledge can help in developing procedural grammar skills.

Knowledge of the items and rules that comprise the formal grammar system of the language is called linguistic competence. Within the theoretical framework developed by Chomsky it is necessary to distinguish competence and performance. "Competence" refers to what the language users know and "performance" to the use of this knowledge in communication.[1]   -

Procedural grammar knowledge that is formed in the language user's mind is called mental grammar. It consists of the rules that the learners have internalized and is not the "imprinting" of the normative grammar. That is why learners' utterances can be erroneous with the reference to the norms of the target language, but not to their own "mental grammar".

There are some rules for the teachers concerning teaching pupils in grammar.

Rule 1 for the teacher: Realize the difficulties the sentence pattern presents for your pupils, Comparative analysis of the grammar item in English, Uzbek and in Russian or within the English language may be helpful. Think of the shortest and simplest way for presentation of the new grammar item. Remember the more you speak about the language the less time is left for practice.

Rule 2 for the teacher: Teach pupils correct grammar usage and not grammar knowledge.

Rule 3 for the teacher: Furnish pupils with words to change the lexical (semantic) meaning of the sentence pattern so that pupils will be able to use it in different situations. Remember that pupils should assimilate the grammar mechanism involved in the sentence pattern and not the sentence itself.

Rule 4 for the teacher: Select the situations for the particular grammar item you are going to present. Look through the textbook and other teaching materials

and find those situations which can ensure comprehension and provide the usage of the item.

Rule 5 for the teacher: If the grammar item you are going to present belongs to those pupils need for conversation, select the oral approach method for teaching. If pupils need the grammar item for reading, start with reading and writing sentences in which the grammar item occurs.

Grammatical terms. If you do decide to do any formal, conscious teaching of grammar, it is useful to have at your fingertips the various common terms that are used in explanations of grammatical structures. If you are not familiar with them already, you may find the following definitions useful.

(Note, however that these definitions are based on English grammar, and may not be accurate representations of categories in some other languages; they are, moreover, only brief summaries, and not comprehensive.)

Units of language. Linguists usually define the largest unit of language as 'discourse' or 'text'; but for most practical teaching purposes, the sentence is probably the most convenient Tiase' unit Smaller units are the clause, the phrase, the word, the morpheme.

The sentence is a set of words standing on their own as a sense unit, its conclusion marked by a full stop or equivalent (question mark, exclamation mark). In many languages sentences begin with a capital letter, and include a verb.

The clause is a kind of mini-sentence: a set of words which make a sense unit, but may not be concluded by a full stop. A sentence may have two or more clauses *(She left because it was late and she was tired.)* or only one *(she was tired.).*

The phrase is a shorter unit within the clause, of one or more words, but fulfilling the same sort of function as a single word. A verb phrase, for example, functions the same way as a single-word verb, a noun phrase like a one-word noun or pronoun: *was going, a long table.*

The word is the minimum normally separable form: in writing, it appears as a stretch of letters with a space either side.

The morpheme is a bit of a word which can be perceived as a distinct component: within the word *passed,* for example, are the two morphemes *pass,* and - *eŭ.* A word may consist of a single morpheme

(book).

Parts of the sentence. We may also analyze the sentence according to the relationships between its component phrases: these are called parts of the sentence. The most common parts of the sentence are subject, verb and object, which may be combined into a basic pattern like / *saw the man: I* being the subject, *saw* the verb and *the man* the object. The object may be direct or indirect; thus in / *sent him a letter, him* is the indirect object, *a letter the* direct.

The complement looks like an object, except that it refers to the same thing as the subject; so that it would come after verbs like *be, become, seem;* in the sentence *She is a good doctor,* the phrase *a good doctor* is the complement

Finally there is the adverbial: another word or phrase which adds further information: words or phrases like *yesterday, at home, on his own.*

Parts of speech. Different parts of the sentence may be realized by various kinds of words (or phrases]: these are called parts of speech.

Nouns are traditionally characterized as naming a person, place or thing; but in fact they may refer to activities or events *(conversation, battle),* abstracts *(beauty, theory)* and various other kinds of things. They usually function, as do pronouns, as the subject, object or complement of a verb, or follow prepositions. They may be preceded by determiners *(the, some,* for example) or by adjectives, and may take the plural - s.

Most nouns are "common" *(finger, meeting);* "proper" nouns *(Queen Victoria, Syria)* signify the name of a specific person, place, event, etc., and are written in English with a capital letter. Another useful distinction is between "countable" nouns (items which can be counted and may appear in the plural: *horse, cup,* for example) and "non-countable" or "mass" nouns (certain uncountable substances or abstracts: *coffee, dust, wisdom).*

Verbs are often called words of "doing" *(swim, sit),* but they may also indicate a state of being, feeling, being in relationship to *(remain, regret, precede).* Verbs can be used in different tenses, and in active and passive voices.

It is useful to distinguish between transitive verbs (those that take a direct object: *hit, feed)* and intransitive ones (those that do not: *laugh, fall),* though many verbs can be either, depending on context *(fight, relax).*

Adjectives normally describe the things referred to by nouns or pronouns *(black, serious);* they may function as complements or be attached to a noun.

Adverbs describe the concepts defined by verbs *(quickly, alone),* adjectives or other adverbs *(extremely, quite)* or an entire sentence or situation *(unfortunately, perhaps).*

Pronouns usually function as substitutes for nouns or noun phrases *(he, him, who, those)* and like them may function as subject, object, complement or follow a preposition.

Auxiliary verbs may be attached to main verbs in a verb phrase: *is,* for example, in *is going,*

Modal verbs (such as *can, must, may)* are a particular type of auxiliary verb; they express ideas such as possibility, ability, compulsion, probability, willingness.

Determiners are (usually short) items that introduce a noun or a noun phrase *(the, a, all, some, many).*

Prepositions define time, space and more abstract relationships, and precede nouns or pronouns *(in, before, of, according to, despite).*

PART II. Grammar practice activities. The aim of grammar practice is to get students to learn the structures so thoroughly that they will be able to produce them correctly on their own. But it is unsatisfactory for students to be able to produce correct samples of a structure only when they are being specifically tested on it: many of us are familiar with the phenomenon of learners who get full marks on all the grammar exercises and tests, but then make mistakes in the same structures when they are composing their own free speech or writing. The problem in such a case is that the structures have not been thoroughly mastered; the learner still depends on a measure of conscious monitoring in order to produce them correctly.

One of our jobs as teachers is to help our students make the leap from form-focused accuracy work to fluent, but acceptable, production, by providing a "bridge": a variety of practice activities that familiarize them with the structures, in context, giving practice both in form and communicative meaning.

Look at the below table "Types of grammar practice: from accuracy to fluency", which consists of descriptions of a number of practice activities for various English structures. They are laid out in sequence: from a very controlled and accuracy-oriented exercise at the beginning to a fluency activity giving opportunities for the free use of the grammar in context at the end.

It is not suggested that such a sequence be rigidly followed in classroom teaching, though on the whole the more controlled procedures tend to come earlier; but rather that our lessons should include a fairly representative selection of activities that provide both form-focused and meaning-focused practice.

Types of grammar practice: from accuracy to fluency

Type 1: Awareness

After the learners have been introduced to the structure, they are given opportunities to encounter it within some kind of discourse, and do a task that focuses their attention on its form and/or meaning.

Example: Learners are given extracts from newspaper articles and asked to underline all the examples of the past tense that they can find. Type 2: Controlled drills

Learners produce examples of the structure: these examples are, however, predetermined by the teacher or textbook, and have to conform to very clear, closed-ended cues.

Example: Write or say statements about John, modeled on the following example: John *drinks tea* but he *doesn`t drink coffee, `f* like: ice cream/cake; ^ speak: English/Italian; ^ enjoy: playing football/playing chess. Type 3: Meaningful drills

Again the responses are very controlled, but learners can make a limited choice.

Example: In order to practice forms of the present simple tense: Choose someone you know very well, and write down their name. Now <u>compose true statements about them according to the following model:</u>

He/She *likes ice cream;* OR He/She *doesn't like ice cream.* ∎*S* enjoy: playing tennis; *V* drink: wine; *V* speak: Polish. Type 4: Guided, meaningful practice

Learners form sentences of their own according to a set pattern, but exactly what vocabulary they use is up to them.

Example; Practicing conditional clauses, learners are given the cue *If I had a million dollars,* and suggest, in speech or writing, what they *would do.* Type 5: (Structure-based) free sentence composition

Learners are provided with a visual or situational cue, and invited to compose their own responses; they are directed to use' the structure.

Example: A picture showing a number of people doing different things is shown to the class; they describe it using the appropriate tense. Type 6: (Structure-based) discourse composition

Learners hold a discussion or write a passage according to a given task; they are directed to use at least some examples of the structure within the discourse

Example: The class is given a dilemma situation ("You have seen a good friend cheating in an important test") and asked to recommend a solution. They are directed to include modals *(might, should, must, can, could,* etc.) in their speech/writing. Type 7: Free discourse

As in Type 6, but the learners are given no specific direction to use the structure; however, the task situation is such that instances of it are likely to appear. Example: As in Type 6, but without the final direction.

Creative grammar drill can be organized with chanting activities (the idea of using jazz chants in the classroom is developed by C Graham).[1]

Here is an example with "ought to", «should", «must", «have to", "can't". Practice it one by one and then arrange chanting in a canonical way (small group starts, while it continues the second small group starts from the beginning, etc). Reflect on the procedure.

I ought to be polite,
I know 1 should behave myself,
I must be honest,
I mustn't tell lies,
I have to study,
1 have to work...
I can't be all that good!
I tell you I can't be all that good!
But I ought to be polite... etc.

Communicative game. *The class is divided into groups of three or four. The object of the game is for each group to decide which implement (a tool or utensil) would be most useful in each situation. Grammar subject: "Comparisons": The... would be better/stronger... etc. The... is not as... as.... The... is not., enough to... Run the game and reflect on the procedure.*

Implements	Situations 1
• Pincers	• You have a bottle of wine but no cork-screw.
• Stone	• The cupboard door keeps swinging open.
• Twig	• The sink is blocked.
• Knife	• The neighbor's dog keeps squeezing through the hole in the fence.
• Fork	• Your ring has dropped into a saucepan of boiling water.
• Hammer	• You have dropped some money through a crack in the floorboards.
• Clew (ball of strings)	• You have accidentally just thrown an important letter onto the fire.
• Coat-hanger	• You can't get the lid off the pot of

	jam.
• Chewing-gum	• Your house is locked and you can't get in.
• Sheet of paper	• A water pipe is leaking and water is dripping onto the floor.

Communicative game can be **competitive.** An example of such a game is "Headless sentences".[1] The grammar material to be trained is Present Simple Passive. The learners are to compete in writing the beginnings of the "headless sentences" about sports activities.

Do the activity with your peers and reflect on the procedure.

Beginning of sentence	"Headless" sentences
	is played by two or four people often on grass.
	is dominated by black athletes.
	is/are played mainly in pubs.
	is played by rich people with a small, pitted ball.
	are betted on by all sorts of people.
	a man may not be hit below the belt.
	is banned in China.
	is stigmatized as gambling.
	is played by very tall men.

Grammar is very important in foreign language learning. Why? There are different viewpoints on grammar teaching. Analyze them and say which you consider justifiable in foreign language teaching in schools. Give your reasons.

Tell about the possible difficulties a pupil has to overcome when new grammar is presented. What is the **role** of the teacher here? Illustrate your answer with several examples.

The place of grammar in the teaching of foreign languages is controversial. Most people agree **that knowledge of a language means,** among other things, knowing its **grammar; but this knowledge may be** intuitive (as it is in our native language), **and** it is **not necessarily true** that grammatical structures need **to be taught as such, or that formal** rules need to be learned. **Or** is it? **In the below table "Opinions about the** teaching grammar" *are* some **extracts** from **the literature relating to the** teaching of grammar, which **express a variety of opinions on this** question. They are necessarily decontextualized and oversimplified versions of their writers' opinions: nevertheless the issues they raise are basic and interesting. Read the extracts in the table, and, if **you** are working in a group, discuss your reactions. If **you** are on your own, you may find it helpful to observe the following sequence for each extract: summarize in your own words what the writer is saying; state whether you agree or disagree in principle.

OPINIONS ABOUT THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

Extract 1

The important point is that the study of grammar as such is neither necessary sufficient for learning to use a language. [1]

Extract 2

The student's craving for explicit formulization of generalizations can usually be met better by textbooks and grammars that he reads outside class than by discussion in class. [2]

Extract 3

The language teacher's view of what constitutes knowledge of a language is...a knowledge of the syntactic structure of sentences... The assumption that the language teacher appears to make is that once this basis is provided, then the learner will have no difficulty in dealing with the actual use of language... There is a good deal of evidence to suggest that this assumption is of very doubtful validity indeed.[3]   **Extract 4**

The evidence seems to show beyond doubt that though it is by communicate in real "speech acts" that the new language "sticks" in the learner's mind, insight into pattern is an equal partner with communicative use in what language teachers now see as the dual process of acquisition / learning. Grammar, approached voyage of discovery into the patterns of language rather than the learning prescriptive rules, is no longer a bogey word.[4]

✓ Examine one of the lessons in Pupil's Book and Teacher's Book
  to deduce upon what principles grammar is taught.
✓ Select a grammar item and prepare the plan of a lesson to be used
  with a standard textbook.
✓ Give a contrastive analysis of one of the grammar items to
  determine the difficulties it presents to Russian/Uzbek-
  speaking pupils.
✓ Review the principles grammar teaching should   be based upon
  and show how you will utilize them in teaching some grammar
  item.
✓ Compile a grammar test. Select a grammar item   from a standard
  textbook.
✓ Examine given below the lesson sample and give a full analysis.
  What methods and forms are used in the plan? What advantages
  and disadvantages in that plan, in your opinion?
  The theme: "Babby J's forests and lakes".

Teacher's note. Aim: The aim of this lesson is to teach and practice the use of articles in English. The lesson is aimed at intermediate students who need more practice with articles. It is presumed that articles will have been taught before - this is reinforcement of what students already know. Articles are presented around the theme of geography and then move on to other uses of articles.

Step one:

Split the class into two teams (A and B). Draw a scoreboard and ask teams alternately questions from the Geography Quiz. One point is for each correct answer. The team with the most correct answers wins.

Key: 1. Paris. 2. The Nile. 3. South America (Brazil and Peru mostly). 4. Russia.5. Billion approx. 6. The Alps. 7. June. 8. Lake Baikal, Russia. 9. The Red Sea is surrounded by Egypt, Sudan and Saudi Arabia, (and also Yemen, Djibouti and Eritrea). 10. Africa (the west coast).

Step two:

Choose a couple an examples from the quiz to illustrate that we use articles with rivers, mountain ranges and sea but the zero article with countries, lakes and contain.

Step Three:

Ask the students to complete the article table using the categories given. Key: A/an: When we talk about smth. for the 1st time, one of smth., jobs. The: Previously mentioned things. When there is only one of smth., musical instruments, when we know what is being talked about, rivers, superlatives, oceans and seas, deserts, mountain ranges and national groups. Zero Article: Sports, institutions with certain verbs, lakes, towns/countries, continents, mountains, when we are talking generally about things.

Step Four: Get the students to correct the sentences. Key:

A. "Can I ask the a question?" "Of course."

B. You look very tired. You need a holiday

C "Where is Tom?" "He's in a the bathroom."

D. Enjoy your holiday and don't forget to send me a postcard.

E. We live in an old house near the station.

F. Peter and Mary have got two children. **The a** boy and the a girl. The boy is 5 and the girl is 3.

G. It's a nice morning. Let's go for a walk. H. What is the largest city in England?

I. Why are you sitting on the floor?

J. Amanda is a student When she finishes studying she wants to be **the a** journalist.

Step Five:

Split the class into groups of three or four. You need a game board, set of cards, die and counters for each group. Explain that the students want to get to the end of the board first and they do this by throwing the die and moving the correct number of squares.

If they land on a square with a question mark they must take a card and answer the question. It they get the question right, they can throw again and have another go. (Maximum of two goes) If they land at the BOTTOM of a ladder and they get the question right, they can go UP the ladder.

If they land on the HEAD of a snake, they must go DOWN to the square at the bottom of the snake. The first to the finishing square is the winner.

Step Six:

Put the students in pairs to discuss the questions. Pre-teach: exotic, tourist trap and romantic.

Babby J's Forest and Lakes

Student's worksheet

Do you know the answers to the geographical quiz?

1) What is the capital of France?

2) What is the longest river in the world?

3) Where is the Amazon?

4) In which country are the Urals?

5) What is the population of China?

6) What is the name of the mountains between Australia and Switzerland?

7) Which month is the coldest in Australia?

8) What is the deepest freshwater lake in the world?

9) Where is the Red Sea?

10) Where is Sierra Leone?

Do we use a/an, the or zero article with these things? Put thp topics in the right column.

When we talk about something **for the first time. One of smth** (e.g. one apple from lots of apples) jobs

Previously mentioned things

When there is only one of smth. (e.g. sun, moon)

Musical instruments

When we know what is being talked about

Rivers

Superlatives ' Oceans and seas ' Deserts

Mountain ranges ' National groups ' Sports ' Institutions (not buildings) with certain **verbs:** to **go, get, start,** finish, leave ' Lakes

Towns/Countries (most) ' Continents ' Mountains ' When we **are** talking **generally about things**

A/an The Zero article

Correct the sentences:

A. "Can **I** ask the question?" "Of course."

B. You look very tired. You need holiday. C "Where is Tom?" "He's in a bathroom."

D. Enjoy your holiday and don't forget to send me postcard.

E. We live in old house near the station.

F. Peter and Mary have got two children. **The** boy **and** the girl. **The** boy is 5 and the girl is 3.

G. It's nice morning. Let's go **for** walk. H. What is the largest city in England? I. Why are you sitting on **floor?**

J. Amanda is student. When she finishes studying **she** wants to be **the** a journalist.

Discuss with a partner:

What countries have you been to? What did you do there? Where

did you stay? Tell your partner as much you can/
If you could go anywhere in the world, where would you go and
why?
Which countries would you not like to go to? Why?
Which countries do you think are
a) romantic,
b) exotic,
c) dangerous,
d) tourist traps?

THEME-6. TEACHING PRONUNCIATION.

Plan:

1. The importance of correct pronunciation in language learning.
2. The difficulties in English pronunciation usually experienced by Uzbek speaking pupils.
3. The content of teaching pronunciation.
4. How to teach pronunciation.

1. The first impact of any language comes from the spoken word. The basis of all languages is sound. Words are merely combinations of sounds. It is in these sound sequences that the ideas **are** contained. Listening is the first experience; the attempt to understand accompanies it. The acquisition of good pronunciation depends to a great extent on the learners' ability of listening with care and discrimination. One of the tasks of language teaching consists in dividing ways to help the learner "aud" the unfamiliar sounds. The hearing of a given word calls forth the acoustic image of that word from which a meaning is obtained.

Therefore teaching pronunciation is of great importance in the developing of pupils' hearing and speaking habits and skills;

Teaching pronunciation is of no less importance in the developing of reading and writing habits and skills, since writing (or what is written) is **a** graphic representation of sound sequences. In reading the visual images become acoustic images. These are combined with kinesthetic images, resulting in inner speech.

Wrong pronunciation often leads to misunderstanding. For example, when a speaker or a reader replaces one phoneme with another he unintentionally uses quite a different word, in this way altering the sense of what he wanted to say. For example, white instead of wide; it instead of eat; pot instead of port, etc.

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

2. THE DIFFICULTIES IN ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION USUALLY EXPERIENCED BY UZBEK-SPEAKING PUPILS.

Any language has its specific phonic system, This is true for English as well. The sound of English are not the, same as the sounds of Russian and, though there

are, of course, some sounds which occur both in English and in Russian.There are many difficult sounds in English for Russian and Uzbek learners, [w], [ð], [θ], [r], [ə:],- [ou], [ɛə] for example. To Uzbek and Russian speaking pupils the combination of sound [θs], [ðz] which occurs in English at the end of a word (months, clothes) is strange and they find great difficulty in pronouncing a word with this sound combination. The same may be said about the sound [ŋ]. In English it comes in the middle or at the end of many words: *English, think, song, sitting, longer* and presents a lot of trouble to pupils to produce it correctly as there is no sound like this in the Uzbek and Russian languages.

The sounds of English may be arranged in three groups: vowels, double vowels or diphthongs, and consonants. There are twelve vowel sounds in English: [ɪ], [e], [æ],[ɔ],[u], [ʌ] and [ə] may be considered as short, but their actual lengths vary to a limited extent in the same way as those of [i:], [ɑ:],etc. For instance, the vowels of [bɪt] *bit*, [let] *let*, [fut] *foot* are shorter than those of [bɪd] *bid*, [led] *led, lead*, [wud] *wood*. There is a modern tendency in South-Eastern English to lengthen some or all of the traditionally short vowels [ɪ], [e], [æ], [ɔ], [u], and [ʌ] in many situations. Words like *fit* and *feet*, *cot* and *caught*, *wood* and *wooed* are, or may be, distinguished by vowel quality only, instead of by a complex of duration and quality.

"Some authorities, writes D. Jones, consider the state of tension of the tongue to be an important factor in the production of various vowel qualities, and they distinguish tense vowels from lax vowels; the [i:] of [li:p] *leap* has a tenser articulation than the [ɪ] of *lip*, and that the [u:] of [bu:t] *boot* has a tenser articulation than the [u] of [fut] *foot*. This can be tested by placing the finger against the outside of the throat about half way between the chin and the larynx. When pronouncing the vowel of [lɪp] this part feels loose, but when pronouncing the vowel of [li:p], it becomes tenser and is pushed forward."

Therefore such opposites as [i:]-[ɪ]; [u:]-[u]; [ɑ:]-[ɑ] are different in quality, not only in length.

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

There are double vowels and diphthongs in English. Some of these diphthongs are strange to pupils because they do not appear in their native language: [ou], [ɛə], [ɪə],[ɔə], [juə].

Pupils are tempted to substitute for them English monophthongs or sounds from their own language. The following vowel sounds have been found to be particularly difficult for pupils:[æ] which is often confused with [e]; [ɑ:] which is substituted- bv Russian,Uzbek [a]; [ə:] which is replaced by [ɔ:].

English consonant also present some trouble to Uzbek and Russian pupils, first because there are sounds which are quite strange to pupils, for example, [ð], [θ], [w], [h] then because their pronunciation changes depending on the position in the words. In final position voiceless consonants have strong articulation (white), voiced consonants - weak articulation (wide). Therefore in teaching pupils how to pronounce consonants in final position the teacher should emphasize the strength of articulation and tensity of voiceless consonants and weakness of voiced consonants. For example, in *Did you* ...? The second [d] differs from the first [d] in the weakness of articulation. The sound is hardly pronounced and heard.

Consonants may vary in length. In this connection D. Jones writes that when final they may be observed to be longer after short vowels than they are after long vowels. The [n] in *bent* is much shorter than that in *bend*; the [1] in *gulp* is shorter than that in *bulb*1. The teacher of English should know this to be able to help his pupils in pronouncing words as close to the pattern as possible.

[1] Jones D. The Pronunciation of English, Cambridge, 1967, pi 37.

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

In our schools we teach pupils literary pronunciation which is characterized by:

(a) clear stress in all the rhythmic groups;

(b) clear pronunciation of the sounds, for example, *give me* and not *gimme* admitted by colloquial English;

(c) typical abbreviations in auxiliary words: *it's, won't, doesn't, can't, shouldn't*, etc.

Proceeding from the aims and objectives the foreign language syllabus set's out, pupils must assimilate;

1. The sound of the English language, its vowels and consonants. They should be able to articulate these sounds both separately and in different phonetic contexts.

2. Some peculiarities of the English language in comparison with those of the Uzbek language, such as: English vowels differ in quality and in length, whereas in the Uzbek language the length of vowels is of no importance; there are no palatal consonants, and if some consonants may be pronounced slightly palatalized, this does not change the meaning of the word.

3. Stress in a word and in a sentence, and melody (fall and rise). Pupils must be able to divide a sentence into groups and intone it properly.

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

Only when pronunciation is correct, when all main phonic rules are strictly followed, can one

understand what one hears-and clearly express one's thoughts in English. The teacher therefore, faces the following problems in teaching pupils English pronunciation:

(1) the problem of discrimination; i.e. hearing the differences between phonemes which are not distinguished or used in the Uzbek language and between falling, rising, and level tones;

(2) the problem of articulation, i.e., learning to make the motor movements adequate to proper production of English sounds;

(3) the problem of intonation, i.e., learning to make right stresses, pauses and use appropriate;

(4) the problem of integration, i.e., learning to assemble the phonemes of a connected discourse (talk) with the proper allophonic variations (members of a phoneme) in the, months, hard times;

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

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

HOW TO TEACH PRONUNCIATION.

In teaching pronunciation there are at least two methodological problems the teacher faces:

(1) to determine the cases where conscious manipulation of the speech organs is required, and the cases where simple imitation can or must be used;

(2) to decide on types of exercises and the techniques of using them.

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

After they have found the position of the tongue for [n] they pronounce it as a single unit or as an isolated element. Then they pronounce the sound in the word *name* and in the sentence. My name is...
The sequence in the teacher's work with the sound and in that of pupils' differs:

Teacher

a sentence- My name is…	The book is thick.
a word-name	thick
a sound-[n]	[θ]

Pupil

a sound - [n]	[θ]
a word - name	thick.
a sentence- My name is...	The book is thick.

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

Exercises used for developing pronunciation skills may be of two groups: recognition exercises and reproduction exercises.

Recognition exercises are designed for developing pupils' ability to discriminate sounds, and sound sequences. Indeed the assimilation of correct English pronunciation by Uzbek- speaking pupils depends to a great extent on their ability to aud. In auding the reference is solely to language perception. The ability to aud is developed if the teacher uses the oral method and the oral approach method in teaching the language. In our schools we use both the aural- oral method when the oral introductory course is conducted and pupils are taught only hearing and speaking, and the oral approach and oral presentation mainly in the mine-year school when pupils get acquainted with linguistic material first by ear. Pupils should have amply practice in listening to be able to acquire the phonic aspect of the language, it can be done;

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

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

Questions for Discussion in seminars:

I.   Correct pronunciation is attainable when teaching a foreign language at school.

2.   What is meant by correct pronunciation?

3.   What does a teacher need for teaching pupils pronunciation successfully?

4.   Why is pupils' pronunciation for from being satisfactory?

5   What should a teacher do to improve pupils' pronunciation?

   Literature

1. Гез Н., Ляховиский М.В., Миролюбов А. А. и др. Методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. 1982
2. Миролюбов А. А. и др. Теоретические основы обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. М. 198Л.
3. Шатилов С.Ф. Методика обучения немеsкому языку в средней школе.М. 1986
4. Пассов Е.И. Основы методики обучения,; иностранным языкам. М. 1977
5. Rogova G. V. Methods of teaching English. Moscow. 1983
6. Бим Н. Л. Методика обучения иностранным, языкам как наука и проблема школьного учебника. М. 1977
7. Jalolov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. T. 1990.
8. O'.H.Hoshimov, l.Y.Yoqubov Ingliz tili o'qitish metod^tasi. T. 1993. ₛ
9. Н. И.Гез Некоторые проблемы начального этапа обучуния иностранным языкам. ИЯШ. 1963.№4
10. А.С.Граниsкая. Взаимоотношение анализа и иммиtаsии в проsecce обучения иностранному языку. Автореферат канд.диссер.. М. 1965.

Theme-7: TEACHING VOCABULARY
Plan:
1 Recognizing the importance of teaching vocabulary;
2 Establishing peculiarities in planning a Vocabulary teaching;
3 Involving students in practicing activities relating to planning a
4.Vocabulary teaching; involving students Discussion "Features of Teaching Vocabulary".

What is vocabulary? Vocabulary can be defined, roughly, as the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word: for example, *post office* and *mother-in-law,* which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea. There are also multi-word idioms such as *call it a day,* where the meaning of the phrase cannot be deduced from an analysis of the component words. A useful convention is to cover all such cases by talking about vocabulary "items" rather than 'words'.

The vocabulary, therefore, must be carefully selected in accordance with the principles of selecting linguistic material, the conditions of teaching and learning a foreign language in school.

Scientific principles of selecting vocabulary have been worked out. The words selected should be:

- frequently used in the language (the frequency of the word may be determined mathematically by means of statistic data); *S* easily combined *(nice room, nice girl, nice weather);* `*f* unlimited from the point of view of style *(oral, written);* included in the topics the syllabus sets; *S* valuable from the point of view of word-building *(use, used, useful, useless, usefully, user, usage).*

The first principle, word frequency, is an example of a purely linguistic approach to word selection. It is claimed to be the soundest criterion because it is

completely objective. It is derived by counting the number of occurrences of word's appearing in representative printed material comprising novels, essays, plays, poems, newspapers, textbooks, and magazines.

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

The other principles are of didactic value, they serve teaching aims. The words selected may be grouped under the following two classes:

Words that we talk with or form words which make up the form (structure) of the language. Words that we talk about or content words.

In teaching vocabulary for practical needs both structural words and content words are of great importance. That is why they are included in the vocabulary minimum. The number of words and phraselogical units the syllabus sets for a pupil to assimilate is 1100 words.

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

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

The teacher should bear in mind that a word is considered to be learned when:

- it is spontaneously recognized while auding and reading;
- it is correctly used in speech, i. e., the right word in the right place.

It is known, words are elements of the language used in the act of communication. They are single units, and as such cannot provide the act of communication by themselves; they can provide it only when they are combined in a certain way. There are some rules for the teachers concerning teaching vocabulary.

Rule 1 **for** the **teacher;** While teaching pupils vocabulary, introduce words in sentence patterns in different situations of intercourse. Present the words in keeping with the structures to be taught.

Information is composed of two kinds of elements: simple (words) and complicated (sentences).

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

Rule 2 for the teacher: Present the word as an element, i.e., in a sentence pattern first. Then fix it in the pupils' memory through different exercises in sentence patterns and phrase patterns.

Speech is taken in by ear and reproduced by the organs of speech.

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

Rule 3 for the teacher: While introducing a word, teacher must pronounce it her himrself in a context, and ask pupils to pronounce it both individually and in unison in a context, too.

Any word in the language has very complicated linguistic relations with other words in pronunciation, meaning, spelling, and usage.

Rule 4 for the teacher: For teaching words it is necessary to establish a memory bond between a new word and those already covered.

For instance: *see — sea; too—two; one—won* (in pronunciation); *answer — reply; answer — ask; small — little* (in meaning); *bought — brought; caught — taught; night-right* (in spelling); *to fight somebody - to doubt something - to mention something* (similar word combination).

Hence there are two stages in teaching vocabulary: presentation or explanation, retention or consolidation which are based on certain psycholinguistic factors (for that see works by Leontiev A. A.).[1]

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

Accordingly, the teacher's role in this process is: ' to furnish explanation, i. e., to present the word, to get his pupils to identify the concept correctly; ^ to get them to recall or recognize the word by means of different exercises; to stimulate pupils to use the words in speech.

Teaching and learning words are carried on through methods you are familiar with; the teacher organizes learning and pupils are involved in the very process of learning, i. e. in the acquisition of information about a new word, its form, meaning and usage; in drill and transformation to form lexical habits; in making use of the lexical habits in hearing, speaking and reading, or in language skills. Various techniques are used to attain the goal — to fix the words in pupils' memory ready to be used whenever they need them.

Presentation of new words. Since every word has its form, meaning, and usage to present a word means to introduce to pupils its forms (phonetic, graphic, structural, and grammatical) and to explain its meaning, and usage.

The techniques of teaching pupils the pronunciation and spelling of a word are as follows:

pure or conscious imitation;

analogy;

transcription;

rules of reading.

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

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

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

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

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

There are two ways of conveying the meaning of words: direct way and translation. The direct way of presenting the words of a foreign language brings the learner into direct contact with them, the mother tongue does not come in between, it establishes links between a foreign word and the thing or the concept directly. The direct way of conveying the meaning of foreign words is usually used when the words denote things, objects, their qualities, sometimes, gestures and movements, which can be shown to and seen by pupils, for example: *a book, a table, red, big, take, stand up,* etc. The teacher should connect the English word he presents with the object, the notion it denotes directly, without the use of pupils' mother tongue.

There a lot of different techniques for teaching vocabulary that the teacher can use in practice. Now let us stop at the some of them the teacher may exploit while working with English language.

1. **Brainstorming round an idea.**

Write *a* single word in the centre of the board, and ask students to brainstorm all the words they can think of that are connected with it. Every item that is suggested is written up on the board with *a* line connecting it to the original

word, so that the end result is *a* 'sun-ray' effect. For example, the word *tree* might produce something like the sketch below.

This activity is mainly for revising words the class already knows, but new ones may be introduced, by the teacher or by students. Although there are no sentences or paragraphs, the circle of associated items is in itself a meaningful context for the learning of new vocabulary. The focus is on the meaning of isolated items.
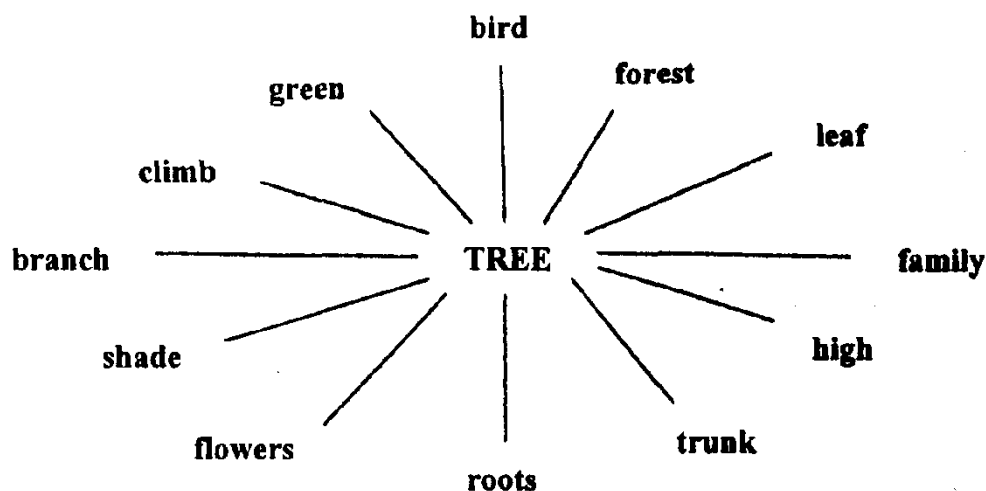
This kind of association exercise is useful when introducing a poem or other literature: a key concept can be placed in the centre, and the brainstorm used as a 'warm-up' to the theme, as well as a framework for the introduction of some new vocabulary.

You may, of course, use other sorts of stimulus-words or connections: put a prefix (say *sub-)* in the centre and invite the class to drink of words that begin with it; or a transitive verb (like *push)* and think of objects to go widi it; or any verb, and think of possible adverbs; or a noun, and think of adjectives; or vice versa. You can probably think of further possibilities: the basic technique is very versatile. 2. Identifying words we know.*As* an introduction to the vocabulary of a new reading passage, the students are given the new text and they are asked to underline or mark with fluorescent pens, all the words they know. They then get together in pairs or threes to compare: a student who knows something not known to their friend(s) teaches it to them, so that they can mark it in on their texts. They then try to guess the meaning of the remaining unmarked items.

Finally the teacher brings the class together to hear results, checking guesses and teaching new items where necessary.This activity tends to be morale-boosting, in that it stresses what the students know rather than what they do not; it encourages student cooperation and peer teaching; it also entails repeated exposure to the text and vocabulary items through individual, group and teacher-led stages. 3. Vocabulary drills. Vocabulary drills are useful indicators of a student's understanding of assigned words. The teacher who gives his/her students a list of words, then time to "memorize" correct spelling and definitions is using the most common format Having students apply these words (i.e. using the word correctly in an original sentence) in addition to spelling and defining correctly is a better

indication of a student's understanding. Vocabulary drills can also be an effective remedial exercise for students who use words incorrectly in reports and assignments.Students must first be motivated to learn new words. When students experience amusement in word-play, expanding of ones vocabulary comes easily. The teacher may want to introduce students to "fun" vocabulary building books like *The Insomniac s Dictionary* or *Word Power Made Easy.*If a given list of new words is required knowledge for a new topic then the vocabulary should be learned prior to content instruction. Once students have been given adequate time to learn correct spelling they are ready to be "drilled" or "quizzed". The vocabulary drill can be formal (the teacher recites a vocabulary list word by word, giving students time to write the word, define it and use it in a sentence). This format functions as a test It can also be informal, as in a game situatioa ^ The teacher should emphasize accuracy. The word must be spelled correctly and its usage in a sentence must be grammatically correct . Long, tedious vocabulary drills should not be given too frequently. Although it would be impossible to keep up with new developments in vocabulary even if studied daily, we do not want students to lose interest.

With the aforementioned suggestions in mind, the following steps could be followed:

• The teacher should determine the vocabulary to be learned.

• Students are asked to "memorize" correct spelling and definitions and are expected to apply the new vocabulary correctly.

• Students are tested for accuracy either orally or they take written tests. Students may also be timed.

• The test is evaluated and students are required to continue the process with words they were not able to spell, define and/or use correctly.

1. The teacher should periodically include interesting history of a word - its origin and derivations.

2. The teacher may wish to include sections on foreign vocabulary **for** fun.

3. Many words can be spelled more than one way, have more than one definition and have many correct applications. **The** teacher should be aware of this and be clear as to his/her expectations **of** the student. (Students should be required **to** know **ALL** correct definitions).

4. Vocabulary drills, though they provide immediate evaluation and progress information, should not be overused. They should not be the only technique used for building and evaluating vocabulary.5. The main purpose of the vocabulary drill is to build vocabulary. The teacher must be creative in his/her attempt to make students interested in words. Students must want to build their own vocabularies so they must have a reason for doing it, and it should be fun.6. Vocabulary drills can be oral as well as written. Word games should be used when appropriate.7. Students should have learning experiences which allow them to apply new vocabulary.

Questions for discussion on the teaching of vocabulary
Speak on the principles of selecting a minimum vocabulary.
What, in your opinion, is the soundest criterion?

Comment on the main rules in teaching vocabulary.

Speak on the possible difficulties a pupil has **to** overcome when new words are presented. What is the role of the teacher here?

Illustrate your answer with several examples.

Not all words require the same exercises for retention. Why?

Some techniques are more popular than others. What are they, and can you account for their popularity?

Are there techniques that are particularly appropriate for the presentation of certain types of words? *S* Are there techniques which are likely to be more, or less, appropriate for particular learner populations (young/adult, beginner/advanced, different background cultures)? ^ Do you, as an individual, find that you prefer some kinds of techniques and tend to avoid others? Which? And why? *S* Can you think of five or six further examples of vocabulary items, in any language you know, that consist of more than one word?

Select an item from the vocabulary taught in a foreign language textbook you know. Think how the meaning of this item would best be presented to learners who are encountering it for the first time, and note down some ideas. If you are working in a group, three or four participants then get together, share ideas and contribute new ones to each other.

Putting your practical suggestions aside for the moment, study a list of different techniques of presenting the meaning of new vocabulary. In a group, this list may be compiled by a brainstorm among participants, or derived from the below table; or a combination of the two.

Concise definition (as in a dictionary; often a superordinate with qualifications: for example, a cat is an animal which.,.); detailed description (of appearance, qualities...); examples (hyponyms); illustration (picture, object) ; demonstration (acting, mime); context (story or sentence in which the item occurs); synonyms; opposite(s) (antonyms) ; translation; associated ideas, collocations.

Identify which one or more of the techniques were used in your own idea(s) for presentation. If you are in a group: were there any techniques which tended to be more popular, others which were barely used? On second thoughts: would you/could you have used other techniques to supplement your original idea for presentation?

On the basis of your own reflection, discuss orally or in writing generalizations that can be made about the usefulness of the different techniques.

Each participant prepares a vocabulary activity which they think is effective. Teachers with some experience may bring activities they have used; others may recall ideas from their own language-learning experience or that they have observed, or find suggestions in books or simply create new ones.

The activities are presented to the group. Actually, this is best done by performing them, in role-playing the presenter is the teacher and the others are the students; in this way you get the 'feel' of the procedure and remember it well. But doing it this way is very time-consuming, so in a large group some people may have to simply describe their activities, or present them in written form.

A discussion should follow each presentation, on questions such as: What was the main objective of the activity (awareness-raising/presentation of new vocabulary/review and practice)? What particular aspects of vocabulary did the activity focus on? How effective was it, and why? How interesting/enjoyable was it? For what sort of class, or situation, is it appropriate? Were there any unusual or original aspects of it which you would like to discuss?

Prepare a lesson plan for teaching words of different types at the stage of presentation. Use any Pupil's Book you like.

Prepare a series of situations to stimulate pupils to use the words presented. Use two forms of speech: dialogue and monologue.

Prepare a test on vocabulary (a) for oral testing, (b) for written testing.

Produce a mind-map with the key word "food with a taste ". Possible list of tastes is "spicy, bitter, salty, sweet, sour, creamy, crunchy and greasy". One word has been written for you.

Lemon ———————— Food with a taste ————————
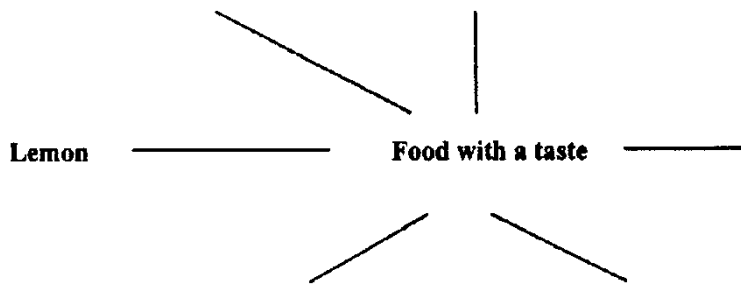
Lexical items can be practiced by **placing words in a table.**
Give the food that has the taste as shown in the table.

Spicy	Bitter	Salty	Sweet	Sour,	Creamy	Cruncby	Greasy

Theme-8: Classroom management and activities
Plan:

3. Your Classroom, Your Students, and You

Try to picture a classroom from the "olden days"—say, a room where a language lesson was in progress. Remember those rows of students obediently slouched over their texts, conjugating Latin verbs in unison or translating Greek? If you had asked them to say "Good-bye" in the language they were learning, they probably would not have been able to. But then, they did not really need to—learning for them was not about being able to communicate their own ideas.

Readers of this book will find no resemblance between this description and their own teaching environments. Today's programs and classrooms are intended to promote enjoyment in learning, to encourage collaboration and interaction, and to help students develop real skills they will need in real life. How you organize your physical space and the mood you create in it contribute to the success of that mission.

Your Classroom

Classrooms come in a multitude of colors, shapes, and sizes. Some were designed originally as settings for learning and teaching, with plenty of room and wall space, good ventilation, and good lighting. Quite often, however, instruction takes place in conditions quite removed from that ideal. Classes for adults, particularly, may be held in adapted offices or rooms in community centers or libraries, and in the worst-case scenario, these resemble broom closets more than classrooms. Some rooms are shared by many teachers working on staggered schedules and therefore cannot be claimed by anyone as his own. The result is bare walls and a cold, unfriendly, temporary sort of feeling. Other rooms accommodate oversize classes, and the clutter of furniture allows no possibility of rearranging desks to facilitate student interaction and mobility. Even worse, in some classrooms desks are bolted to the floor in rows ready for teacher-fronted instruction.

A teacher's wish list of what a classroom should be like would probably include the following:

- spacious and clean;
- lots of chalkboard and wall space;
- good lighting and ventilation;
- ample space for storage of instructional materials;
- windows that open, with sills for plants or displays;

- large tables (rather than small desks) for group work; and
- good climate control.

We spend so much time in our classrooms that quite often we stop noticing things that a casual visitor would immediately pick up. At one time or another, we have all had books or papers piled in inappropriate places, Christmas decorations still hanging in May, chalk dust everywhere (including on ourselves!), and faded samples of student work or obsolete posters drooping on the walls. The following tasks are intended to help you look at your classroom with fresh eyes.

Task 1

1. Use the following chart to create an objective account of what a visitor would see upon entering your classroom.

Item	What do you see?
My desk (and things on it)	
Students' desks	
Other furniture	
Storage space	
Chalkboard	
Shelves	
Floor	
Walls (and things on them)	
Other: _____ _____ _____ _____	

2. Identify what you like and dislike about your classroom.

_____

_____

3. Identify all the things that frustrate you about your classroom.

_____

_____

4. What would you like to change? Is it within your power to change these things?

_____

_____

5. If your classroom is far removed from the ideal or if you are not allowed, for example, to re-arrange furniture or post things on the walls, how do you make the most of what is available?

_____

_____

Task 2

In many cases, you can go a long way toward shaping your teaching environment. Reflect on the appearance of your classroom in general.

1. What do you do to make your classroom a pleasant, stimulating environment?

	Always				Never
	5	4	3	2	1
I organize classroom space and seating arrangements to facilitate interaction and learning.					
I display students' work in my room and elsewhere in the school.					
I display visual aids for topics currently being explored.					
I change classroom displays regularly and keep them neat.					
I involve students in decorating the room and keeping it tidy.					
Other: _____					
_____					
_____					
_____					

2. In your case, how true is the following statement: A visitor to my classroom would probably think that it looks nice, clean, and tidy.

True ❏   Somewhat true ❏   Not true ❏

3. Are there things you could improve upon? How will you do it?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Task 3

Most teachers are expected to be in class before the start of their lessons, since advance preparation of teaching aids, materials, items on the blackboard, etc., ensures that teaching time is maximized.

1. What happens in your classroom before and during each class?

	Always				Never
	5	4	3	2	1
The chalkboard is clean before the class starts.					
Materials are ready—handouts photocopied, tapes cued, and so on.					
My desk is well organized and clean.					
I set a good example by being on time myself.					
I discuss with students the cultural customs related to being on time.					
I respect break time (everyone needs it).					
Other:					

2. If an observer were asked to give an overall evaluation of your level of preparation for instructional time, what rating would he or she give?

5	4	3	2	1
Excellent				Poor

3. What could you improve in this area? What is your action plan for doing so?

_____

_____

_____

_____

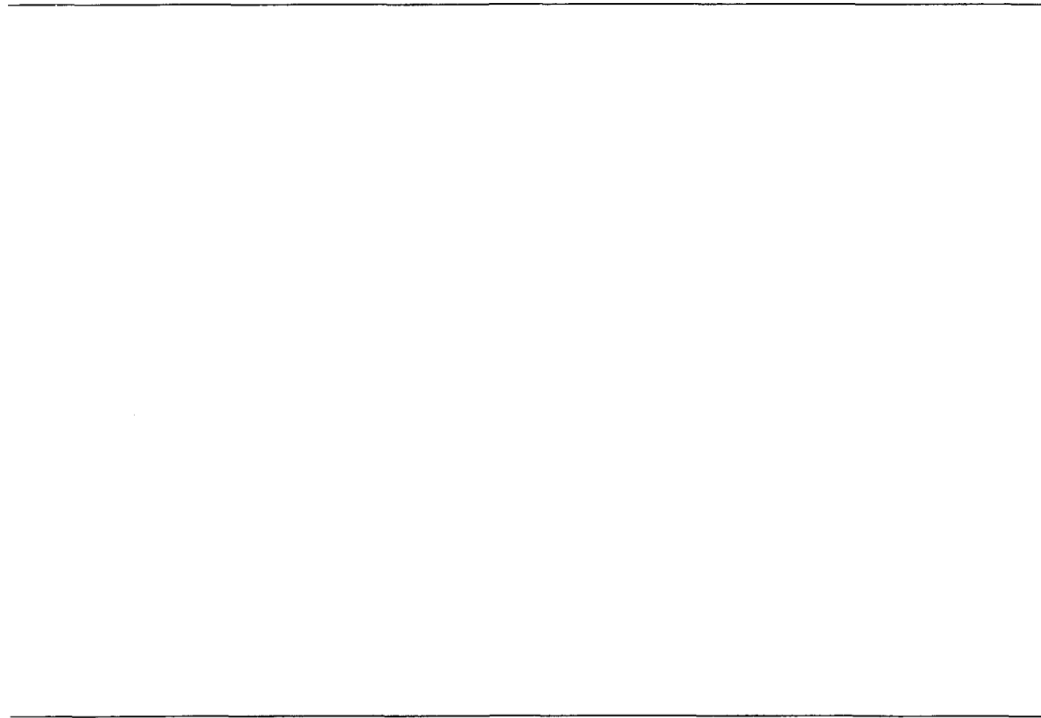## Seating Arrangement, Your Presence, and Eye Contact

Self-help is the best help.
AESOP, *HERCULES AND THE WAGON*

The physical classroom space can go a long way to establishing an atmosphere conducive to learning. But once your students are in the room and instruction has begun, there are other things that should be kept in mind. Different arrangements of desks promote different kinds of interaction, and the way you address your students contributes significantly to the learning environment.

Task 1

Draw and label the furniture, door(s), window(s), and chalkboard in your classroom in the box below (or create a differently shaped box if necessary).

1. Look at the seating arrangement depicted in your drawing. Are you content with it?

Yes ❑   No ❑

2. How are your students seated?

— Individually, at small desks.
— In pairs.
— Grouped around tables, facing one another.
— In a semicircle facing my desk.
— In a circle.
— In rows.
— Other: _____

3. Is the seating arrangement conducive to a variety of grouping possibilities—pair, small-group, or whole-class interaction, along with individual work? Can students see and hear one another easily?

_____

_____

4. If you do not have control over classroom seating, is there anything you could do to make the most of the existing arrangement?

_____

_____

5. If the seating arrangements can be changed, what could you do to improve them?

_____

_____

Task 2

Use the picture from the preceding task and mark on it the places you usually stand during class time—for example, "X1" would indicate where you stand most of the time, "X2" a place you stand somewhat less often, and so on. (If possible, confirm this through videorecording your class for a few days.)

1. To facilitate communication and keep students involved, do you stand at a spot where every-one can see and hear you easily? Sit in different students' seats and imagine how you would feel during class if you were those students.

_____

_____

2. Are there spots in the classroom where you stand more often than others? If yes, is there any particular reason?

_____

_____

3. Once your students start doing an activity, do you circulate?   Yes ❑   No ❑

4. Experiment with changing your usual spot(s) in the classroom. What impact does this have on class interaction and dynamics?

_____

_____

5. Devise an action plan for improving this aspect of your teaching practice.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Task 3

Analyze your classroom presence and the way you maintain eye contact. If possible, do this by watching a videorecording of yourself teaching.

1. Which students do you usually look at while talking? Where in the room do these students sit?

_____

_____

2. Do you have any specific reasons for focusing on these students and classroom positions? If so, what are they? If not, would you like to alter anything?

_____

_____

3. Do you tend to look over the students' heads? Yes ❑   No ❑

4. Do you feel that making eye contact benefits students? Yes ❑   No ❑

5. Are your students aware of the importance of eye contact in western cultures? Yes ❑   No ❑

6. Do you think that all your students feel they get a fair share of your attention?

_____

_____

7. Devise an action plan to improve this aspect of your teaching practice.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Task 4

While doing an activity with the whole class, a teacher asks one student to read aloud. As the student starts reading, the teacher moves to stand by the student's desk, anticipating that he will need help. The student begins to read more softly, concentrating on the teacher, with the result that some of his peers now cannot hear him. These students, realizing that the teacher is busy with this student, start talking among themselves. It takes the teacher quite a while to regain control of the class and to get students' attention.

1. The next time you are working on a whole-class activity and during it ask one student to read aloud, do an experiment by filling out this chart.

What do I do?	Insert a checkmark each time.	Why did I do that?
I remain in the same spot.		
I move closer.		
I stand beside the student who is reading.		

2. Do your different actions have different effects? If yes, what are they?

_____

_____

Task 5

One source of frustration in the classroom may be related to an inappropriate number of students.

1. How many students do you have in your class (or, on average, in each of your classes)?

2. Do you feel that the number is appropriate for the space and your obligations? If the number is high, how do you cope? If the number is low, what can you do to attract additional students?

_____

_____

3. If you have a continuous inflow of students, how do you cope?

— Do you help new students catch up with the class?
— Do you show new learners your course outline, telling them what they have missed and explaining how you might work together to cover this material?
— Do you assign a peer mentor to each new student?
— Do you teach more than one group within your class and assign the new learner to an appropriate group after assessment?
— Other: _____

4. Are you content with the way you are dealing with this situation? If not, what is your action plan?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Chalkboard Use and Organization

A teacher found an old jar in the corner of his classroom. As he picked it up, it fell out of his hands, breaking into pieces—and out came a genie (of course!) who granted the teacher three wishes. The first was for a new car. *Voilà*! Through the classroom window, the teacher saw a car waiting. His second wish was for a classroom equipped with everything that modern technology has to offer. Within seconds, he was surrounded by the latest and best equipment. "What is your third wish?" asked the genie.

The teacher looked around. "How about a chalkboard and a great big box of chalk?"

Task 1

Despite technological advances, a chalkboard is still one of the most useful and reliable teaching aids. Even in the most resource-poor programs, a board is usually available. Reflect on how you use the chalkboard by checking the appropriate column for each statement.

	Always				Never
	5	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
I begin with a clean board, if possible.					
I write legibly.					
I avoid mixing printing and cursive writing or upper- and lowercase letters.					
I start writing on the left-hand side.					
I keep my writing organized and neat.					
I use colored chalk.					
I erase as often as appropriate.					
I keep my back turned to the class for short periods only.					
I avoid talking while writing on the board with my back to the class.					
When I'm writing on the board, I turn around occasionally and talk about what I'm writing in order to address students who are not visually oriented.					
I ask students if they can read my writing.					
I ask students whether their perception of what needs to be written on the board matches my practice.					
I encourage students to write on the board.					
Other: _____					
_____					
_____					

Task 2

In her 1993 book *Classroom Observation Tasks* (p. 123), Ruth Wajnryb describes the board as an invaluable classroom resource and suggests the following organization of space to maximize its effectiveness:

Reference material (permanent)	Main section—developmental stages of lesson	Impromptu notes—"perishables"

42

1. How does this organization compare to the way you use the board?

_____

_____

2. Does this organization, along with what you learned by completing the preceding task, suggest any areas that could be improved? If so, what are they?

_____

_____

3. Create an action plan for making the improvement(s), and monitor progress for about a week. What happened?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Your Role in the Classroom

All the world's a stage.
WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, *AS YOU LIKE IT*

Task 1

Teachers assume a number of different roles, depending on their perceptions, methodology, and preferences. In *Classroom Observation Tasks*, Ruth Wajnryb explains that the role assumed also depends on the stage of the lesson.

1. Think of yesterday's lesson. Place a checkmark next to the descriptors that best fit the roles you took on during its various stages. Then circle the roles that you would *like* to see yourself in.

manager	conductor	stimulator	psychologist
controller	checker	motivator	actor/performer
authority	monitor	helper	presenter
organizer	lecturer	facilitator	assistant
assessor	informer	provider of services	consultant
initiator	explainer	entertainer	other:

2. Most of the time you see yourself as a(n) _____

43

3. You would most like to see yourself as a(n) _____

4. How can you come to fill the role selected in question 3?
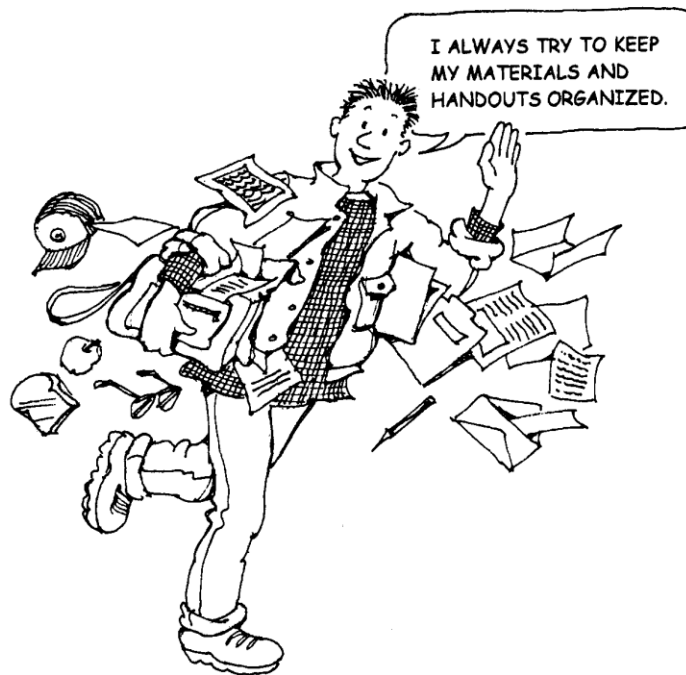
_____

_____

Task 2

In the 1995 article "Taming the Big 'I': Teacher Performance and Student Satisfaction," Jeremy Harmer discusses results of an interview conducted with a number of teachers from different countries. The primary question was "Are you a different person in the classroom than you are out of the classroom?" Many teachers responded that in the classroom they felt like performers on stage and that they exhibited more positive characteristics (humor, creativity, etc.) in class than they did in "real life."

How would you respond to the same interview question?

_____

_____

Task 3

Successful students are usually those capable of organizing the input they receive, keeping their class notes and handouts in order and referring to them on a regular basis. In order to help stu-

dents, our roles can extend beyond delivering input to showing students how that input can be managed.

1. To what extent do you feel that a well-organized student notebook or binder with different sections for different activities affects students' progress in the program?

_____

_____

2. Do any of your students carry their class handouts and papers in a disorganized, dog-eared pile? Do some of them lose their handouts or leave them behind? Do you think that your role as an organizer, controller, and helper forces you to intervene? If yes, what should you do? If no, why not?

_____

_____

3. In general, do you feel teachers should encourage students to keep well-organized notebooks and class materials? If so, how?

_____

_____

4. Do you encourage students to take down the date and objective for each lesson and to keep well-organized notes? How much control should the teacher exert in this area?

_____

_____

5. What factors influence your decisions on this aspect of teaching and learning?

_____

_____

THEME-9 HOW TO TEACH LISTENING
Plan:
1. Recognizing the importance of teaching listening
2. Establishing peculiarities in planning a Listening lesson
3. Involving students in practicing activities relating to teaching listening and planning a Listening lesson
4. Involving students into Panel Discussion "Features of Teaching Listening"

Tips on Planning the Listening Lesson:

1. Choose the text which meets all requirements - teaching goals, stage of learning, level of English proficiency, vocabulary knowledge, number of syllables in the text, time of sounding]. Adapt the text if it contains any difficulties for this lesson.

2. It has a sense, especially for beginning teachers, to transcribe the text. No hesitations as for using dictionaries! Don't forget to put the stress and intonation marks! Divide the text into 'ogical parts! It will be useful not only for mastering teacher's pronunciation but also for checking the fact that the text meets all the requirements: quantity of syllables, time of sounding, etc.

3. Make a list of unknown words used in the text and think about the appropriate techniques for their presentation. Remember that such text may include not more than 2-3% of unknown words.

4. Study grammar features of the text and prepare necessary aids for eliciting grammar difficulties in the shortest way or eliminate them by using appropriate structures.

5. Look through the text one more time in order to discover any discourse or culture peculiarities which require special interpretation by the teacher.

6. Set the goals for listening (to follow instructions, to evaluate information, for pleasure, to empathise).

7. Prepare special pre-while-post listening tasks in accordance with the set goals.

8. Prepare handouts and visual aids for ;he created tasks.

9. Re-read the text phrase by phrase keeping to a natural speed, rhythm etc. Mind the time!

10. Coincide the times of listening with the set goals and difficulties of the tasks!

1. The average tempo of text sounding is 240-250 syllables per minute. The lowest is - 200 syllables per minute, the highest
- 300 syllables per minute.

2. The volume of the text sounding not more than 3 minute is considered optimal. For II-IVgrades - not more than 1 minute, for V-Vlllgrades - 2-3 minutes, for V1II-XIgrades 3-5 minutes.

3. The number of listening times depends on:
- pupils'speech experience,
- communicative tasks, and
- the way of fixing listened materials.

The listening Process

It is important for the teacher to provide numerous opportunities for learners to practice listening skills and to become actively engaged in the listening process. The three phases of the listening process are: pre-listening, while listening, and after listening.

Pre- listening

Act of listening requires not just hearing but also thinking, as well as a good deal of interest and information that both speaker and listener must have in common. Speaking and listening entail ... three components: the speaker, the listener, and the meaning to be shared; speaker, listener, and meaning form a unique triangle. There are several strategies that learners and their teachers can use to prepare for a listening experience. They can:

Activate Existing Knowledge: Learners should be encouraged to ask the question: What do I already know about this topic? From this teachers and learners can determine what information they need in order to get the most from the message. Learners can brainstorm, discuss, read, view films or photos, and write and share journal entries.

Build Prior Knowledge: Teachers can provide the appropriate background information including information about the speaker, topic of the presentation, purpose of the presentation, and the concepts and vocabulary that are likely to be embedded in the presentation. Teachers may rely upon the oral interpretation to convey the meanings of unfamiliar words, leaving the discussion of these words until after the presentation. At this stage, teachers need to point out the role that oral punctuation, body language, and tone play in an oral presentation.

Review Standards for listening: Teachers should stress the importance of the audience's role in a listening situation. There is an interactive relationship between audience and speaker, each affecting the other. Teachers can outline the following considerations to learners:

Learners have to be physically prepared for listening. They need to see and hear the speaker. If notes are to be taken, they should have paper and pencil at hand.

Learners need to be attentive. In many cultures, though not all, it is expected that the listener look directly at the speaker and indicate attention and interest by body language. The listener should never talk when a speaker is talking. Listeners should put distractions and problems aside.

"Listen to others as you would have them listen to you."

Establish Purpose: Teachers should encourage learners to ask: "Why am I listening?" "What is my purpose?" Learners should be encouraged to articulate their purpose.

Am I listening to understand? Learners should approach the speech with an open mind. If they have strong personal opinions, they should be encouraged to recognise their own biases.

Am I listening to remember? Learners should look for the main ideas and how the speech is organised. They can fill in the secondary details later.

Am I listening to evaluate? Learners should ask themselves if the speaker is qualified and if the message is legitimate. They should be alert to errors in the speaker's thinking processes, particularly bias, sweeping generalisations, propaganda devices, and charged words that may attempt to sway by prejudice or deceit rather than fact

Am I listening to be entertained? Learners should listen for those elements that make for an enjoyable experience (e.g., emotive language, imagery, mood, humour, presentation skills).

Am I listening to support? Learners should listen closely to determine how other individuals are feeling and respond appropriately (e.g., clarify, paraphrase, sympathise, encourage).

Before a speaker's presentation, teachers also can have learners formulate questions that they predict will be answered during the presentation. If the questions are not answered, learners may pose the questions to the speaker. As well, learners should be encouraged to jot down questions during listening.

During listening

Learners need to understand the implications of rate in the listening process. Nichols (1948) found that people listen and think at four times the normal conversation rate. Learners have to be encouraged to use the "rate gap" to actively process the message. In order to use that extra time wisely, there are several things learners can be encouraged to do:

They can run a mental commentary on it; they can doubt it, talk back to it, or extend it They can rehearse it in order to remember it; that is, they repeat interesting points back to themselves. They can formulate questions to ask the speaker ... jot down key words or key phrases ... They can wonder if what they are listening to is true, or what motives the speaker has in saying it, or whether the speaker is revealing personal feelings rather than objective assessments. This kind of mental activity is what effective listeners do during listening.

Effective listeners:

Connect: make connections with people, places, situations, and ideas they know

Find meaning: determine what the speaker is saying about people, places, and ideas

Question: pay attention to those words and ideas that are unclear. Make and confirm predictions: try to determine what will be said next. Make inferences: determine speaker's intent by" listening between the lines"; infer what the speaker does not actually say. Reflect and evaluate: respond to what has been heard and pass judgement. Several strategies such as the following have been developed to help teachers guide learners through the listening process.

Teachers can use the Directed- listening Thinking Activity. A description of this activity follows.

Choose a story with clear episodes and action. Plan your stops just before important events. Two to four stops is plenty.

At each stop, elicit summaries of what happened so far, and predictions of "what might happen next".

Accept all predictions as equally probable.

Ask the learners to explain why they made particular predictions and to use previous story information for justification.

Avoid "right" or "wrong"; use terms like "might happen", "possible", or "likely".

After reading a section, review previous predictions and let the learners change their ideas.

Focus on predictions, not on who offered them.

Involve everyone by letting the learners show hands or take sides with others on predictions.

Keep up the pace! Do not let discussions drag; get back to the story quickly Teachers can create listening guides to focus learners' attention on the content, organization, or devices used by a speaker.

The following is an example:

Sample listening Guide

Name of learner:_____._____

Nature of spoken presentation:

Where heard:_____

Name of speaker:_____

• Speaker's expressed purpose:

• Qualifications of speaker:

• Main Ideafs] presented:

• Noteworthy features of presentation:

• In what ways was the talk effective? Ineffective? Why?

'Breathing' or 'Thinking' Space Between Listenings

Listening to a foreign language is a very intensive and demanding activity and for this reason it's very important that learners should have 'breathing' or 'thinking' space between listenings. It has a sense to ask learners to compare their answers between listenings as this gives them the chance not only to have a break from the listening, but also to check their understanding with a peer and so reconsider before listening again.

Authentic Materials

Appropriate authentic materials for the promotion of listening skills might include popular television programs, radio shows, public announcements (such as those you might hear while at an airport or shopping in a store), famous speeches and recorded phone calls made to customer service centers, though these might need to be edited to delete any inappropriate language.

Listening Tasks

To set up a listening task teacher should decide well in advance what he/she would like his/her learners to listen for, and then determine if further explanation or background material will be necessary for successful completion. An appropriate task might include listening to the description of a task and then selecting the correct picture to correspond with the description or holding a mock job interview.

Body Language

You can't hear body language but it does, however, play a key role, especially at the subconscious level, in communication and an awareness of it and how it can vary from culture to culture, can be particularly important in helping learners to develop their ability to understand in a real environment

The emphasis in EFL listening materials in recent years has been on developing top-down listening processes. There are good reasons for this given that learners need to be able to listen effectively even when faced with unfamiliar vocabulary or structures. However, if the learner understands very few words from the incoming signal, even knowledge about the context may not be sufficient for him/her to understand what is happening, and he/she can easily get lost Of course, low-level learners may simply not have enough vocabulary or knowledge of the language yet but most teachers will be familiar with the situation in which higher-level learners fail to recognize known words in the stream of fast connected speech. Bottom-up listening activities can help laarners to understand enough linguistic elements of what they hear to then be able to use their top-down skills to fill in the gaps.

Top-down strategies are listener based; the listener taps into background knowledge of the topic, the situation or context, the type of text, and the language. This background knowledge activates a set of expectations that help the listener to interpret what is heard and anticipate what will come next A List of Top Down Skills:

discriminating between emotions
getting the gist
recognizing the topic
using discourse structure to enhance listening strategies
•   identifying the speaker evaluating themes finding the main idea finding supporting details
•   making inferences
understanding organizing principals of extended speech.

Examples of common top-down listening activities include putting a series of pictures or sequence of events in order, listening to conversations and identifying where they take place, reading information about a topic then listening to find whether or not the same points are mentioned, or inferring the relationships between the people involved.

Bottom-up strategies

Bottom-up strategies are text based; the listener relies on the language in the message, that is, the combination of sounds, words, and grammar that creates meaning.

A List of Bottom Up Skills
discriminating between intonation contours in sentences
discriminating between phonemes
listening for word endings
recognizing syllable patterns
being aware of sentence fillers in informal speech
recognizing words, discriminate between word boundaries

picking out details

differentiating between content and function words by stress pattern

finding the stressed syllable

recognizing words with weak or central vowels

recognizing when syllables or words are dropped

recognizing words when they are linked together in streams of speech

using features of stress, intonation and prominence to help identify important information

Bottom-up listening activities can help learners to understand enough linguistic elements of what they hear to then be able to use their top-down skills to fill in the gaps.

Assessing Listening Proficiency

You can use post-listening activities to check comprehension, evaluate listening skills and use of listening strategies, and extend the knowledge gained to other contexts. A post-listening activity may relate to a pre-listening activity, such as predicting; may expand on the topic or the language of the listening text; or may transfer what has been learned to reading, speaking or writing activities.

In order to provide authentic assessment of learners' listening proficiency, a post-listening activity must reflect the real-life uses to which learners might put information they have gained through listening.

• It must have a purpose other than assessment

It must require learners to demonstrate their level of listening comprehension by completing some task

To develop authentic assessment activities, consider the type of response that listening to a particular selection would elicit in a non-classroom situation. For example, after listening to a weather report one might decide what to wear the next day; after listening to a set of instructions, one might repeat them to someone else; after watching and listening to a play or video, one might discuss the story line with friends.

Use this response kind of response as a base for selecting appropriate post-listening tasks. You can then develop a checklist or rubric that will allow you to evaluate each learner's comprehension of specific parts of the aural text (See Assessing Learning for more on checklists and rubrics.)

For example, for listening practice teacher makes learners listen to a weather report Their purpose for listening is to be able to advise a friend what

to wear the next day. As a post-listening activity, you ask learners to select appropriate items of clothing from a collection you have assembled, or write a note telling the friend what to wear, or provide oral advice to another learner (who has not heard the weather report). To evaluate listening comprehension, you use a checklist containing specific features of the forecast, marking those that are reflected in the learner's clothing recommendations.

Testing Listening

Testing Listening may include: general comprehension, main ideas summation, drawing conclusions, specific details, implications/inference, explicit/implicit information, listening between the lines. For testing listening

usually tasks as: Multiple Choice, True/False, Short Answer, Paraphrase/Summary/Dictation are used. Comment each activity in accordance with the grade.

The Directed-listening Thinking Activity

Teachers can use the Directed-listening Thinking Activity. A description of this activity follows: Choose a story with clear episodes and action. Plan your stops just before important events. Two to four stops are plenty. At each stop, elicit summaries of what happened so far, and predictions of "what might happen next". Accept all predictions as equally probable. Ask the learners to explain why they made particular predictions and to use previous story information for justification. Avoid "right" or "wrong"; use terms like "might happen", "possible", or "likely". After reading a section, review previous predictions and let the learners change their ideas. Focus on predictions, not on who offered them. Involve everyone by letting the learners show hands or take sides with others on predictions. Keep up the pace! Do not let discussions drag; get back to the story quickly. Teachers can create listening guides to focus learners' attention on the content organization, or devices used by a speaker. The following is an example:

Sample listening Guide

Name of learner:_____

Nature of spoken presentation:

Where heard:_____

Name of speaker:_____

• Speaker's expressed purpose:

• Qualifications of speaker:

• Main Idea(s) presented:

• Noteworthy features of presentation:

• In what ways was the talk effective? Ineffective? Why?

LISTENING LESSON SAMPLE (*this is a part of the lesson devoted to listening) Theme: Ground Hog Day Level - 79h form Time - 20 min Aims:

Teaching: developing listening skills, widening topic vocabulary, Educating: learning culture information about Ground Hog Day Moral training objectives are aimed at pupils' tolerant attitude to another culture celebrations and appreciating native culture holidays.

OUTLINE PRE- LISTENING ACTIVITIES

I. Teacher's explanation of the aims for teaching speaking today (*pointed above)

II. Topic Orientation

1. Brainstorming. Name all holidays around the world. Group them into International, National, Religious and Ethnic. You haven't mention such holiday as Ground Hog Day. Have you ever heard about it? Have you watched the movie with the same name?

III. Language Prompts

1. New vocabulary presentation. Reading and translation.

To dig to break up and move earth

to hibernate (verb)- to sleep through the winter

hibernation (noun)- comes from hibernate (long sleep through the winter)
legend - old story that is told from parents to children, and children's
children, and so on for many years
shadow - darkness made where the light can't go through (when the sun
shines you can see the dark outline of your body on the ground)
   IV. Motivation. Today you'll get information about interesting holiday and
then you'll try to find and describe such unusual holiday in Uzbek culture.
While listening
Ground Hog Day
   A ground hog is a small animal that digs and lives under the
ground. It is also called the woodchuck. Ground hogs live in many parts
of America. In the winter they hibernate like bears and some other
animals.
   There is a legend that says a few hundred years ago Europeans brought
Ground Hog Day to America. They said that the ground hog wakes up from his
hibernation on February 2. (February 2 is half way between winter and spring.) If
he comes up from his hole and it is sunny, he will see his shadow and be
frightened. If he sees his shadow, there will be 6 more weeks of winter weather.
But if he comes up and the sky is cloudy, he will not see his shadow and will not
be frightened. Then spring weather will come very soon.
Some people believe this legend and they watch the sky on February 2. Many
people are happy if it is cloudy on that day. They think spring will come soon. But
most people think it is. just a fun legend. What do you think?
1. First listening. Listen to the text and define its main idea.
2. Second Listening. Fill in the card.
LISTENING CARD "GROUND HOG DAY'
Questions   Answers
Who brought this tradition to country?
What is another name for ground hog?
Where do ground hogs live?
What does a ground hog do during the winter?
When does the ground hog wake up from his hibernation?
If a ground hog sees his shadow, what will happen?
Third listening. Check your answers in the card.
POST- LISTENING ACTIVITIES 1. Point out TRUE (T) & FALSE (F)
statements
___A ground hog is a small bird that lives under the ground.
___Ground hogs live in many parts of America.
___In the winter they hibernate like bears and some other animals.
____There is a legend that says a few hundred years ago Americans
brought Ground Hog Day to Europe.
___They said that the ground hog wakes up from his hibernation on
February 2.
___If the ground hog comes up and the sky is cloudy, he will not see his
shadow and will not be frightened. Then spring weather will come very

soon.

_____Many people are happy if it is cloudy on that day.

2. Culture Discussion.

Do you like Ground Hog Day?

What holiday in Uzbekistan has been brought from another culture?

Is there any holiday in Uzbekistan connected with birds, animals or

plants?

What do they symbolize?

3. Writing. Think of any special holiday connected with flora or fauna. Write a short essay "....Day".

PANEL DISCUSION "How to Teach Listening"

1. Main tips on Panel Discussion preparation

The panel discussion is a 1/2 hour session that takes place at the beginning/end of the lesson. There are typically five panelists and a moderator.

At the very beginning of the lesson the students discuss "teaching listening"-related topics. Then they write questions for the panel on slips of paper. The moderator poses these questions to the panel.

2. Tasks for Moderator

You can start the session by either saying a few words about each panelist or asking to say a couple sentences about her/him. Subjects the students like to hear about from each panelist: . how a panelist became a member of a group

• what a panelist's attitude to teaching listening

It is important to keep this portion of the panel session brief so you can pose many student questions to the panel.

About 10 min. before the panel is due to start, the questions the students have written down will be brought to you. Sort through them and decide how to pose them to the panel. Often they divide naturally among a few topics and you read several similar ones aloud before asking panelists to respond. Each panelist need not answer every question.

3. Suggestions for Panelists

A few days before the event, think about how you might briefly answer the following questions:

• What is the difference between hearing and listening process? . What listening skills are considered basic?

. What types of listening are differentiated?

. What stages in teaching listening must be observed?

. What listening activities are recommended for each listening stage?

. What aims may be suggested for listening?

. How many syllables are allowed per listening?

. How many times may the same text be repeated?

. What interactive methods may be suggested for developing listening skills?

. What exercises are used for developing listening skills? At the event, speak clearly and into the microphone (if there is one). Feel free to show emotion and

enthusiasm — it helps the student connect with you when you're way up on that platform. 4. Tasks for Panel Organizers

1. Find a panel moderator. It can be one of the best students (knowledgeable, easy going and sociable) in the group. Share the "tips for moderators" with her /him (those above or your own version).

2. Invite five panelists. It's preferable to have volunteers among the students of your group. In a case if there are more than 5 volunteers it is recommended to pass a special test on the subject of the discussion in order to appoint 5 members. Test should be prepared in advance.

3. As each panelist signs up, get her/him to fill out the sheet to provide a brief bio that you can send to the moderator. Share the "tips for panelists" with her/him (those above or your own version).

4. A week before the event, check that the panelists and moderator:
• know what time they are expected to come,
• understand the subject of the panel session.

5. On the day of the event, special seats will be reserved tor them.

6. Towards the beginning of Panel Discussion collect the students' question slips and help the moderator sort them.

7. After the event, thank every participant for taking part in it. 5. Tasks for Participants

1. Be a good listener, don' interrupt panelists' speaking. If you have something to add concerning the discussed matter do it by following the rules of order. Speak clearly briefly and eligibly that everyone could understand your opinion.

2. Prepare several questions reflecting main points of teaching listening at school. Be ready to answer them in the case no one understands your ideas.

3. Make questions without grammar mistakes.

Theme-10: TEACHING READING

Plan:
1. Reading as an aim and a means of teaching and learning a foreign language.
2. The content of teaching Reading.
3. Some difficulties pupils have in learning to read in the English language.
4. How to teaching reading.
5. Mistakes and how to correct them.
6. Silent reading.

1. Reading as an aim and means of teaching and learning a Foreign language.

Reading is one of the main skills that a pupil must acquire in the process of mastering a foreign language in school. The syllabus for foreign languages lists reading as one of the leading language activities to be developed. It runs: "To read, without a dictionary, texts containing familiar grammar material and no more than

4-6 unfamiliar words per 100 words of the text the meaning of which, as a rule, should be clear from the context or familiar word-building elements (in the nine-year school). Pupils are to read, with the help of a dictionary, easy texts containing familiar grammar material and 6-8 unfamiliar words per 100 words of the text (in the ten-year school)." Therefore reading is one of the practical aims of teaching a foreign language in schools.

Reading is of great educational importance, as reading is a means of communication, people get information they need from books, journals, magazines, newspapers, etc. Through reading in a foreign language the pupil enriches his knowledge of the world around him. He gets acquainted with the countries where the target language is spoken.

Reading develops pupils' intelligence. It helps to develop their memory, will, imagination. Pupils become accustomed to working with books, which in its turn facilitates unaided practice in further reading. The content of texts, their ideological and political spirit influence pupils. We must develop pupils such qualities as honesty, devotion to and love for our people and the working people of other countries, the texts our pupils are to read must meet these requirements. Reading ability is, therefore, not only of great practical, but educational, and social importance, too.

Reading is not only an aim in itself, it is also a means of learning a foreign language. When reading a text the pupil reviews sounds and letters, vocabulary and grammar, memorizes the spelling of words, the meaning of words and word combinations, he also reviews grammar and, in this way he perfects his command of the target language. The more the pupil reads, the better his retention of the linguistic material is. If the teacher instructs his pupils in good reading and they can read with sufficient fluency and complete comprehension he helps them to acquire speaking and writing skills as well. Reading is, therefore, both an end to be attained and a means to achieve that end.

2. The content of teaching reading.

Reading is a complex process of language activity. As it is closely connected with the comprehension of what is read, reading is a complicated intellectual work. It requires the ability on the part of the reader to carry out a number of mental operations: analysis, synthesis, induction, deduction, comparison.

Reading as a process is connected with the work of visual, kinesthetic, aural analyzers, and thinking. The visual analyzer is at work when the reader sees a text. While seeing the text he "sounds" it silently, therefore the kinesthetic analyzer is involved. When he sound the text he hears what he pronounces in his inner speech so it shows that the aural analyzer is not passive, it also works and, finally, due to the work of all the analyzer the reader can understand thoughts. In learning to read one of the aims is to minimize the activities of kinesthetic and aural analyzers so that the reader can associate what he sees with the thought expressed in reading material, since inner speech hinders the process of reading making it very slow. Thus the speed of reading depends on the reader's ability to establish a direct connection between" what he sees and what it means. To make this easier to understand it may be represented as follows:

Visual   thoughts
Analyzer
kinesthetic   aural
analyzer   analyzer

There are two ways of reading: aloud or orally, and silently. People usually start learning to read orally. In teaching a foreign language in school both ways should be developed. Pupils assimilate the graphic system of the target language as a means which is used for conveying information in print. They develop this skill through oral reading and silent reading.

When one says that one can read, it means that one can focus one's attention on the meaning and not on the form: the pupil treats the text as a familiar form of discourse and not as a task of deciphering. "The aim of the teacher is to get his pupils as quickly as possible over the period in which each printed symbol is looked at for its shape, and to arrive at the stage when the pupil looks at words and phrases, for their meaning, almost without noticing the shapes of the separate letters." A good reader does not look at letters, nor even at words, one by one, however quickly: he takes in the meaning of two, three, or four words at a time, in a single moment. The eyes of a very good reader move quickly, taking long "jumps" and making very short "halts".

We can call this ideal reading "reading per se". Reading per se is the end to be attained. It is possible provided:

(1)   the reader can associate the graphic system of the language with the phonic system of that language;

(2)   the reader can find the logical subject and the logical predicate of the sentences:

The man there is my neighbor.
 There were many people in the hall.
It was difficult for me to come in time.

(3)   the reader can get information from the text (as a whole).

These are the three constituent parts of reading as a process.

As a means of teaching reading a system of exercises is widely used in school, which includes:

1.   graphemic-phonemic exercises which help pupils to assimi¬late grapheme-phonemic correspondence in the English language;

2.   structural-information exercises which help pupils to carry out lexical and grammar analysis to find the logical subject and predicate in the sentences following the structural signals;

3.   semantic-communicative exercises which help pupils to get information from the text.

The actions which pupils perform while doing these exercises constitute the content of teaching and learning reading in a foreign language.

' French F.G. The teaching of English abroad. Oxford University Press. London. 1961. p58.

3. Some difficulties pupils have in learning to read in the English language.

Reading in the English language is one of the most difficult things because there are 26 letters and 146 graphemes which represent 46 phonemes. Indeed the English alphabet presents many difficulties to Russian-speaking pupils because the Russian and Uzbek alphabet differs greatly from that of the English language.

Obviously in teaching a pupil to read English words, much more attention should be given to those letters which occur in both languages but symbolize entirely different sounds. For example, H, p ... (Pupils often read How as [nau]. Therefore, in presenting a new letter to pupils the teacher should stress its peculiarity not only from the standpoint of the English language (what sound or sounds it symbolizes) but from the point of view of the Russian and Uzbek language as well.

It is not sufficient to know English letters. It is necessary that pupils should know graphemes, how this or that vowel, vowel combination, consonant, or consonant combination is read in different positions the words (window, down).

The teacher cannot teach pupils all the existing rules and exceptions for reading English words. Nor is it necessary to do so. When learning English pupils are expected to assimilate the following rules of reading: how to read stressed vowels in open and closed syllables and before r; how to read ay, oo, ou, ow; the consonants c, s, k, g, ch, sh, th, ng, ck, and tion, ssion, ous. The rules are not numerous, but they are important to the development of reading.

Pupils should learn the reading of some monosyllabic words which are homophones. For example: son-sun; tail-tale; too-two; write-right; eye-I, etc.
At the very beginning, the pupil is compelled to look at each printed letter separately in order to be sure of its shape.

He often sees words and not sense units. For instance, he reads: The book is on the desk and not (The book is) (on the desk).

The most difficult thing in learning to read is to get information from a sentence or a paragraph on the basis of the knowledge of structural signals and not only the meaning of words. Pupils often ignore grammar and try to understand what they read relying on their knowledge of autonomous words. And, of course, they often fail, e.g., the sentence.

He was asked to help the old woman is understood as Он попросил помочь старушке, in which the word he becomes the subject and is not the object of the action. Pupils sometimes find it difficult to pick out topical sentences in the text which express the main ideas.

To make the process of reading easier new words, phrases and sentence patterns should be learnt orally before pupils are asked to read them. So when pupils start reading they know to pronounce the words, the phrases, and the sentences, and are familiar with their meaning.

Consequently, in order to find the most effective ways of teaching the teacher should know the difficulties pupils may have.

4. How to teach reading.
.   The teacher can use the whole system of exercises for developing pupils' ability to read which may be done in two forms-loud and silent.

Reading aloud. In teaching reading aloud the following methods are observed: the phonic, the word, and the sentence methods. When the phonic method is used, the child learns the sounds and associates them with graphic symbols-letters. In the word method a complete word is first presented to the child. When several words have been learnt they are used in simple sentences.

The teacher can develop pupils' ability to read sentences with correct intonation. The combination of the three methods can ensure good reading.

Pupils are taught to associate the graphic symbols of words with their meaning already learned orally. All the analyzers are at work: visual, auditory, kinesthetic. The leading role belongs to the visual analyzer. It is necessary that the graphic symbols (images) of words should be fixed in the pupils' memory. In teaching English in schools, however, little attention is given to this. Pupils are taught how "to sound" words rather than how "to read" them. They often repeat words, combination of words without looking at what they read. They look at the teacher. The teacher does not realize how much he hinders the formation of graphic images (symbols) in the pupils' memory by teaching to read in this way.

Reading in chorus, reading in groups in imitation of the teacher which is practised in schools forms rather kinesthetic images than graphic ones. The result is that pupils can sound the text but they cannot read. The teacher should observe the rule "Never read words, phrases, sentences by yourself. Give your pupils a chance to read them."

For instance, in presenting the words and among them those which are read according to the rule the teacher should make his pupils read these words first. This rule is often violated in school. It is the teacher who first reads a word, a column of words, a sentence, a text and pupils just repeat after the teacher.

Teaching begins with presenting a letter to pupils, or a combination of letters, a word as a grapheme. The use of flash cards and the blackboard is indispensable.

Flash cards when the teacher uses them allow him:
(a)   to present a new letter (letters);
(b)   to make pupils compose a word (several flash cards are distributed among the pupils, for example, p, n, e; they compose pen);
(c)   to check pupils' knowledge of letters or graphemes;
(d)   to make pupils recollect the words beginning with the
letter shown (p-pen, pencil, pupil, etc.);
(e)   to make pupils show the letter (letters) which stand for the
sound [ou], [o], [a:] etc.

When teaching reading the teacher needs a set of flash cards at hand. It the teacher uses the blackboard instead he can write printed letters on it and pupils can recollect the words they have learnt orally which have this or that letter, compose a word, etc.

The same devices are applied for teaching pupils to read words, the task being different, however.
(a) pupils choose words which are not read according to the rule for example: lake, plane, have, Mike, give, nine;

(b)   pupils are invited to read the words which they usually misread:

Yet-let   cold-could
Form-from called-cold
Come-some wood-would
Does-goes walk-work.

(c)   pupils are invited to look at the words and name the letter (letters) which makes the words different:

Though-thought   since-science
Through- though   with-which
Hear- near   content-context
Hear-hare   country-count.

(d)   pupils in turn read a column of words following the key word (see: Fly high.)

(e)   pupils are invited to pick out the words with the graphemes oo, ow, ea, th,...

In teaching to read transcription is also utilized. It helps the reader to read a word in the cases where the same grapheme stands for different sounds: build, suit, or words which are not read according to the rule: aunt, colonel.

In modem textbooks for the 5th form translation is not used. It is given in the textbooks for the 6th and the 7th forms. Beginning with the 6th and the 7th forms pupils learn the phonic symbols so that they are able to read unfamiliar words which they look up in the word-list or a dictionary.

All the exercises mentioned above are designed to develop pupils' ability to associate the graphic symbols with the phonic ones.

Reading aloud as a method of teaching and learning the language should take place in all the forms. This is done with the aim of improving pupils' reading skills.

The teacher determines what text (or paragraphs) and exercises pupils are to read aloud.

In reading aloud, therefore, the teacher uses:

(a)   diagnostic reading (pupils read and he can see their weak points in reading);

(b) instructive reading (pupils follow the pattern read by the teacher or the speaker);

(c) control reading or test reading (pupils read the text trying to keep as close to the pattern as possible).

5. Mistakes and how to correct them.

In teaching pupils to read the teacher must do his best to prevent mistakes. We may, however, be certain that in spite of much work done by the teacher, pupils will make mistakes in reading. The question is who corrects their mistakes, how they should be corrected, when must be corrected.

Our opinion is that the pupil who has made a mistake must try to correct it himself. If he cannot do it, his classmates correct his mistakes. If they cannot do so the teacher corrects the mistakes. The following techniques may be suggested:

1.The teacher writes a word (e.g., black) on the blackboard. He underlines ck in it and asks the pupil to say what sound these two letters convey. If the pupil

cannot answer the question, the teacher asks some of his classmates. They help the pupil to correct his mistake and he reads the word.

2.One of the pupil asks: What is the English for "черный -qora"? If the pupil repeats the mistake, the "corrector" pronounces the word properly and explains the rule the pupil has forgotten. The pupil now reads the word correctly.

3.   The teacher or one of the pupils says: Find the word "черный - qora" and read it. The pupil finds the word and reads it either without any mistake if his first mistake was due to his carelessness, or he repeats the mistake. The teacher then tells him to recollect the rule and read the word correctly.

4.   The teacher corrects the mistake himself. The pupil reads the word correctly. The teacher asks the pupil to explain to the class how to read "ck".

5.   The teacher tells the pupil to write the word black and underline ck. Then he says how the word is read.

There are some other ways of correcting pupils' mistakes. The teacher should use them reasonably and choose the one most suitable for the case.
Another question arises: whether we should correct a mistake in the process of reading a passage or after finishing it.

Both ways are possible. The mistake should be corrected at once while the pupil reads the text if he has made it in a word which will occur two or more times in the text. If the word does not appear again, it is better to let the pupil read the paragraph to the end. Then the mistake is corrected. ,,
A teacher should always be on the alert for the pupils' mistakes, follow their reading and mark their mistakes in pencil.

6. Silent reading.

In learning to read pupils widen their eyespan. They can see more, than a word, a. phrase, a sentence. The eye can move faster than the reader is able to pronounce what he sees. Thus reading aloud becomes an obstacle for perception. It hinders the pupil's comprehension of the text. It is necessary that the pupil should read silently.   .   .

Special exercises may be suggested to develop pupils' skills in silent reading. For instance, "Look and say, read and look up." (M. West) To perform this type of exercises pupils should read a sentence silently, grasp it, and reproduce it without looking into the text. At first they perform such exercises slowly. Gradually the teacher limits the time for the pupils' doing the exercises. It makes them read faster and faster. All this lead to widening their eyes pan.

Teaching silent reading is closely connected with two problems:
(1)   instructing pupils in finding in sentences what is new in the information following some structural signals, the letter is possible provided pupils have a certain knowledge of grammar and vocabulary and they can perform lexical and grammar analysis;
(2)   developing pupils' ability in guessing.

Pupils should be taught how to find the logical predicate in a sentence. The teacher may ask his pupils to read a text silently and find the words conveying the new information in the text according to their position. There are signals which may be helpful in this respect. There are- the Passive Voice (The doctor was sent

for); the indefinite article (A man came up to me); the construction "It is was" (It was not difficult for him to finish his work in time), etc. Grammar and lexical analyses help pupils to assimilate structural words, to determine the meaning of a word proceeding from its position in the sentence, to find the meanings of unfamiliar words, and those which seem to be familiar but do not correspond to the structure of the sentence (e.g., I saw him book a ticket). Pupils' poor comprehension often results from their poor knowledge of grammar (syntax in particular).

The teacher should instruct pupils how to work with a dictionary and so that they can overcome some difficulties independently. Although in school the teacher often applies grammar and lexical analyses, however, he often does it not with the aim of the "actual division" or passing of the sentence and better comprehension of the sentence or of the text, but with the aim of checking or revision of his pupils' knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. This does not mean that the teacher should avoid grammar and vocabulary analyses for revision. However, much more attention should be given to teaching pupils how to carry out the actual division of sentence to get information from the text. Here are a few examples of structural-information exercises:

- Read the following sentences and guess the meaning of the words you don't know.
- Read the sentence An idea struck me and explain the use of the indefinite article.
- Find the logical predicates in the sentences with the words alone, even, so.
- Read the text. Stress the words conveying new information in each sentence. E.g., I have a bag. The bag is black. It is a new bag. I like my new bag.
- These sentences are too complicated. Break them into shorter sentences.
- By what words is the reader carried from sentence to sentence in this paragraph?
- What is the significance of the tense difference?
- What is the effect of the series of repetitions in the paragraph?

To read a text the pupil must possess the ability to grasp the contents of the text. The pupil is to be taught to compare, to contrast, to guess, and to forsee events.

One of the most frequently used methods by which children attack new words is through the use of picture.

The use of context is another word-getting technique.

The pupil discovers what a new word is when that particular word is needed to complete the meaning of the sentence.

In teaching pupils to read much attention should be given to the development of their ability to guess. One of the best ways to develop this skill is to give the pupil the text for acquaintance either during the lesson or as his homework.

Questions for discussion:
1. Compare different standpoints on various approaches to reading.

2. Which approach do you find justifiable? Give several arguments to confirm your statement.

3. The only way to teach reading is by making the pupil himself and not by his listening to.

4.What texts pupils read are different by nature. How does this influence the techniques used while working at a text?

Literature

1. .К.Фоломкина Методика обучения чтения на английском языке в средней школе. АДД М. 1974

2. И. Клычникова. Психологические особенности обучения чтению на ин.яз. М.1983

3. O'rta umumiy talim maktabida ingliz tili o'qitish bo'yicha o'quv dasturi. (5-9 sinflar) Toshkent 1999.

4. O'.H.Hoshimov, I.Ya.Yoqubov Ingliz tili o'qitish metodikasi. T. 1993

5. Гез Н.И., Ляховицкий М.В., Миролюбов А.А.и др. Мето-дика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. 1982

6. Демьяненко М.Я. и др. Основы обшей методики обучения иностранным языкам. Киев 1976

7. Jalolov J.J. Chettili o'qitish metodikasi. T. 1996.

8. Rogova G.V. Methods of Teaching English. Moscow. 1983

9. Теоретические основы методики обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. М. 1981 Под. ред. А.А. Миролюбов и др.

Theme-11: HOW TO TEACH SPEAKING
Plan:
1. Recognizing the importance of teaching Speaking
2. Establishing peculiarities in teaching Speaking
3. Involving students in practicing activities relating to planning Speaking lessons
4. Engaging students into Panel Discussion "Specific Features of Teaching Speaking "

Speaking is a productive speech activity. Speaking is a skill of oral communication in sending an oral message.

The main goal of teaching to speak is developing learners' abilities in accordance with their real needs and interests to communicate orally in different social and culture situations.

Some Activities for Teaching to Speak

Traditional classroom speaking practice often takes the form of drills in which one learner asks a question and another gives an answer. The question and the answer are structured and predictable, and often there is only one correct, predetermined answer. The purpose of asking and answering the question is to demonstrate the ability to ask and answer the question. The purpose of real

communication is to accomplish a task, such as conveying a telephone message, obtaining information, or expressing an opinion. In real communication, participants must: manage uncertainty about what the other person will say. Authentic communication involves an informal inn gap; each participant has information that the other does not have. In addition, to achieve their purpose, participants may have to clarify their meaning or ask for confirmation of their own understanding. That's why every time teacher has to organize special teaching materials like cards, tables, posters etc. which contain various models of conversational formulas. At the same time well-prepared spoken models may become good facilities for broadening learners' vocabulary. Some of conversational formulas which may be suggested for developing speaking skills are presented in the table below.

Conversational Formulas

Topic Formula   Response

Making an Apology   I do apologize.

    I really must apologize for letting you down. I really must apologize for not letting you know. It's quite all right. That's quite all right. Please,   don't   worry about it. There's no need to apologize.

    Exclamations: Expressing Delight, Admiration, Horror Isn't   it   lovely! delicious! horrible!

    Yes, isn't it.

    Meeting People. Introductions How are you?

    How are you getting on?

    How's your father, mother?   Quite well, thank you. And how are you? Very   well,   indeed, thank you.

    To create classroom speaking activities that will develop communicative competence, teachers need to incorporate a purpose and an information gap and allow for multiple forms of expression. However, quantity alone will not necessarily produce competent speakers. Teachers need to combine structured output activities, v^hich allow for error correction and increased accuracy, with communicative output activities that give learners opportunities to practice language use more freely. Example 1. Very useful and popular activity is to fill the gaps in a schedule or timetable: School timetable (in the form of cards) with some lessons missing may be suggested for filling. Any number of learners may be involved in this activity. Cards should have different blank spaces but all of them contain total number of the subjects. Participants are not allowed to see each other's timetables and they must fill in blanks only by asking each other appropriate questions. Some conversational formulas and key words may be suggested when the task is introduced   first time.

    Question   Answer

When do we have English on   It's period I at eight, thirty.

At ten twenty it's period 3,

Yes and no, we have English on

Monday but at ten sharp.

Yes, of course, we have Spanish at

11.45

Friday?

At what time is Math on Monday?

Do we have English at twelve thirty on Tuesday?

Is there any language lesson on Saturday?

Key words: geography, history, literature, biology, chemistry, English, PE (physical exercises), mathematics (math). Example 2. Completing picture. Two partners are suggested similar pictures. Each one has missing details, and learners cooperate in order to find all missing details.

Example 3. Completing picture in another variation. No items are missing, but similar items differ in appearance. For example, in one picture, a man walking along the street may be wearing an overcoat, while in the other the man is wearing a jacket. The features of grammar and vocabulary that should be practiced are determined by the content of the pictures and the items that are missing or different. Differences in the activities depicted lead to practice of different verbs. Differences in number, size, and shape lead to adjective practice. Differing locations would probably be described with prepositional phrases. The use of cues or prompts to build up dialogues is a commonly used technique. The cues or prompts determine the content of what is said, and dialogue building activities can range from being highly controlled to very free. Dialogue building is not a substitute for fluency work, but used carefully it allows the possibility of giving weaker learners a chance to say something.

Jigsaw Activities in Teaching to Speak

Jigsaw activities are more elaborate information gap activities that can be done with several partners. In a jigsaw activity, each partner has one or a few pieces of the "puzzle," and the partners have to cooperate in order to define all the pieces into a whole picture. The puzzle piece may take one of several forms. It may be one panel from a comic strip or one photo from a set that tells a story; or one sentence from a written narrative; or a tape recording of a conversation, in which case no two partners hear exactly the same conversation.

In one fairly simple jigsaw activity, learners work in groups of four. Each learner in the group receives one panel from a comic picture. Partners may not show each other their panels. Together the four panels present this narrative: a man takes a container of ice cream from the freezer; he serves himself several scoops of ice cream; he sits in front of the TV eating his ice cream; he returns with the empty bowl to the kitchen and finds that he left the container of ice cream, now melting, on the kitchen counter. These pictures have a clear narrative line and the partners are not likely to disagree about the appropriate sequencing. You can make the task more demanding, however, by using pictures that lend themselves to alternative sequences, so that the partners have to negotiate among themselves to agree on a satisfactory sequence. More elaborate jigsaws may proceed in two stages. First learners' work in groups A, B, C, and D. The task is to receive information. Each group receives a different part of the total information. Learners then reorganize

into groups of four with one learner each from A, B, C, and D, and use the information they received to complete the task. Such an organization could be used, for example, when the input is given in the form of a tape recording. Groups A, B, C, and D each hear a different recording of a short text. The four recordings contain the same general information, but each has one or more details that the others do not. In the second stage, learners reconstruct the complete story by comparing the four versions. The last stage includes presentation of information by the groups. The winner is considered the group presented the information without missing details.

How to Organize Conversation? Conversation is such a natural part of our lives that many people are not conscious of what happens within it. Before starting the conversation teacher should explain that conversation follows certain rules which can help to keep order in class:

- usually one person speaks at a time;
- the speakers change;
- the length of any contribution varies;
- there are techniques for allowing the other party or parties to speak;
- neither the content nor the amount of what we say is specified in advance.

Many learners have great difficulty in getting into a conversation, in knowing when to give up their turn to others, and in bringing a conversation to a close. In order for conversation to work smoothly, all participants have to be alert to signals that a speaker is about to finish his or her turn and be able to come in with a contribution which fits the direction in which the conversation is moving. Teachers need to train learners to sense when someone is about to finish. Falling intonation is often a signal for this. Besides, learners often lose their turn because they hesitate in order to Find the right word. Teaching them expressions like Wait, there's more or That's not all as well as fillers or hesitation devices such as Erm..., Well..., etc will help them to keep going. If teachers find that lessons where discussion took place were not successful as the teacher did most of the talking, consider if the learners were prepared for the discussion or fluency activity. Preparation is a vital ingredient for success in teaching speaking. Learners need to be orientated to the topic. Some simple techniques which can be used to prepare learners for a particular topic are the following: the use of audio/visual aids to arouse interest; a general orientation to the topic: a short text, questionnaire, a video extract. (This pre-speaking task must never be too long but it is recommended); Culture Aspect in Teaching to Speak

Teachers organizing speaking lesson must keep in mind that different cultures talk about different things in their everyday lives. That Is why both teachers and learners need to develop a sense of taboo subjects if they are to avoid offence.

If we accept the fact that language is embedded in culture, then some elements of cross-cultural training are inevitable and the inclusion of some cross-cultural work in the teaching of communicative skills would seem to offer the following advantages: cross-cultural issue can generate discussion in their own

right; knowledge of why people in the English culture behave in certain ways should make native speakers easier to interpret; a sensitivity to the ways social norms operate in other languages should make the learning of certain areas of language (sudh as politeness formulae) easier.

If learners become aware of issues such as social taboos, they are less-likely to cause offence by breaking them. Besides, they would begin to fall into the category of foreigner that native speakers find easy to talk to.

Topic Orientation Stage

Learners may need to be orientated* to the speaking task. The general rule is to formulate tasks in terms learners can understand and make sure that the instructions are clear.

Before the lesson teachers should record themselves while they are giving instructions for a speaking activity. Then they should listen for checking if the instructions are clear and how instructions may be modified. One possible paradigm for teaching instruction-giving is as follows:

- Teacher should think through instructions from the point of view of the learner.
- Teacher should include only the essential information in simple, clear language.
- Teacher should insist on silence and make sure he/she can be seen.
- Teacher should make eye-contact.
- Teacher should use demonstration and gestures where possible to go with your explanation.

Teacher should make sure the learners have understood what to do. Teacher should do this by asking for a demonstration or for an answer to a question which proves understanding. A yes/no answer to a question like Do you understand? Are you with me? is not particularly revealing.

Motivation for Speaking

A great deal of motivating language practice can be generated by asking learners to talk about themselves, to share their private store of experience with one another, providing they have a framework in which to do so. The framework, especially in the early stages, should limit the exchanges to quite simple factual information. Such exchanges constitute a natural information- gap activity in which all learners are able to participate.

Last but not least is the choice of the topic to discuss. Learners are sometimes not motivated to talk they feel lack of involvement in the topic. However, even where learners admit interest, they may be unwilling to talk about it in English because they lack the linguistic resources. It is a good idea to talk about things which are within the learners' experience or which they think they might influence their future lives or attitudes. One idea to help learners go is finding the topic to discuss but instead of discussing it under a general perspective, teacher could try setting a specific related problem. It is important for teachers to correct mistakes made by learners during speaking activities in a different way from the mistakes made by them during a study exercise. When learners are repeating sentences trying to get their pronunciation right, then the teacher will often correct

(appropriately) every time there is a problem. But if learners are involved in a passionate discussion about whether smoking should be banned anywhere, the effect of constant interruption from the teacher will destroy the conversational flow, thus mining the purpose of the speaking activity.

Evaluation of Speaking Skills

When dealing with speaking activities, it is important to ensure that the learners develop a sense that they are making progress. Often learners do not realize just how much more confident and fluent they are becoming. One reason may be that they may rarely get the opportunity to take a leading role in conversation; it is well worth trying, then, to programmed activities and pair works in which brilliant learners have to sustain a conversation with those at lower level, in order to give them the experience of being the driving force in a conversation.

Evaluation of the success or failure of conversational performance is not an easy job. In conversation a variety of factors, including the speaker's accent, control of grammar and vocabulary, as well as overall fluency, all contribute to any impression of the performance. The objective of feedback is to give learners the information they need to improve on their performance. Areas for feedback in activities aiming at the development of communicative skills include: grammar; appropriacy of vocabulary and expressions; fluency; pronunciation; non-linguistic factors affecting communication.

Feedback needs to be staged and selective if it is to avoid demoralizing the learners. To achieve this, teachers need to decide on the areas of communicative performance most relevant to their learners. Once the decision is made, it is a question of focusing on the chosen areas ill turn until the learners reach the required performance level. To assist this process, teachers need to be continually aware of learner performance and progress. One way of doing this might be to keep a record card for each learner similar to the one below:

Model of the JE valuation Card

Points for Evaluation   SCORE & COMMENTS

Name Date Nature of task (short talk etc.]

Grammatical correctness

Appropriacy of vocabulary

Fluency and pronunciation

Overall performance

Another way of evaluation might be to use a tape recorder during speaking activities. This way it gets easier for the teacher to identify areas of weakness which can form the basis of subsequent lessons focusing on accuracy, the presentation of new language, etc. Other advantages of using tape recordings of learners at work include:

-       the opportunity for learners to hear again their own performance;

-       the opportunity to look objectively at how learners develop over a period of time. What do you think about using tape recording in your class?

It is important for teachers to correct mistakes made during speaking activities in a different way from the mistakes made during a study exercise. When learners are repeating sentences trying to get their pronunciation right, then the

teacher should often correct (appropriately) every time if there is a problem. But if learners are involved in a passionate discussion about whether smoking should be banned anywhere, the effect of constant interruption from the teacher will destroy the conversational flow, thus mining the purpose of the speaking activity.

It is a good idea to watch and listen while speaking activities are taking place, noting down things that seemed to go well and times when learners couldn't make themselves understood or made important mistakes. At the end of the speaking activity the teacher can write the mistakes on the board or on an OHT asking learners to correct them. As with any kind of correction, it is important not to single learners out for particular criticism. Explain your thoughts about this method of mistakes correction

Using LI in Speaking Class

In class learners very often revert to using LI in the execution of fluency activities if they are not under scrutiny by the teacher. Some of the reasons for this problem include:
- social unease at using a foreign language with their peers;
- perceiving the task as being difficult to complete in any language;
- becoming affectively involved, that is perceiving a genuine need to use the easiest way of communicating about the solution to the task.

For avoiding using LI it is useful - first teacher must give a reason for using English in the completion of a task, not simply telling them to do it in English, but making it purposeful. Then at an early stage tasks must be short and relatively easy. The activity should never appear stressful to the learners. Teacher should praise the learners who make the effort to use English and make clear that for this particular type of exercise errors are not so important.

Guilty- Fun Classroom Conversation Game

Guilty" is a fun classroom game which encourages learners to communicate using past tenses. The game can be played by all levels and can be monitored for varying degrees of accuracy. The game gets learners interested in detail which helps to refine learners' questioning abilities. "Guilty" can be used as an integrated game during lessons focusing on past forms, or just to have fun while communicating.

Aim: Communicating with Past Forms
Activity: Question and Answer Game
Level: All Levels
Outline:

Start by describing a crime which happened last night. Each learner pair will be interrogated by the rest of the class and will create alibis to prove they are innocent.
• Have learners get into pairs.
• Have the learners develop their alibis for where they were when the crime was committed. Encourage them to go into as much detail as possible when discussing their alibis.
• Go around the classroom getting an alibi statement from each group (e.g. We were away for a weekend trip to the countryside).

• Write the individual alibis on the board.
• Once each group has developed their alibis, ask them to write down 3 questions about the other alibis on the board.
• To begin the game, ask one learner from the beginning pail to leave the room. The other learners ask the first learner the questions,
• Ask the other learner to return to the classroom and have the learners ask the same questions. Take note of how many differences there were in the learners' responses.
• Repeat the same with each learner pair.
• The "guilty" pair is the pair with the most discrepancies in their story.

Bingo In Your Classroom

Bingo is a wonderful teaching tool to have at your fingertips no matter what you are teaching. You can even make it up as you go along! The basic premise of Bingo is simple: players start with a grid filled with answers and they cover up spaces as the corresponding item is called from the Bingo "caller." Winners make a complete line going vertically, horizontally, or diagonally. Or, you can play "Black Out" which means the winner is the first person who covers all of the spots on the card.

Preparation

There are a few ways you can prepare for playing Bingo in your classroom.
1. Buy a Bingo set from a teacher supply store. Of course, this is the easiest way, but we teachers don't make too much money so this option may not make too much sense.
2. A cheaper option requires you to prepare all of the Bingo boards ahead of time, making sure that all of the boards are configured differently from each other.
3. For older learners, you can hand over some of the preparation to them. Prepare one Bingo board with all of the options filled in. Also, keep a copy of a blank board. Make copies of each page, one per learner. Give the children time to cut apart the pieces and paste them wherever they want on the blank boards.
4. The most teacher-friendly way to do Bingo is give each child a blank piece of paper and have them fold it into sixteenths. Then they get to write the terms into their bingo sheet from your list (on the chalkboard or overhead). Everyone has his/her own unique Bingo board!

ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHING SPEAKING

Ex.1. Fill in the table. Set up aims for Speaking Lesson. The topic is "The National Holidays in Uzbekistan", 8th grade.

AIMS FOR SPEAKING

WORKS	AIMS		
Teaching/Learning	Developing	Moral Training	
Dialog			
Monolog			

Ex.2. Prepare some situations for developing dialog skills devoted to the celebrations of Independence Day in Uzbekistan. What factors influence on your choice?

SITUATIONS FOR DIALOGS
GRADE SITUATIONS
6 th7 th8 th 9th

Ex.3. Suggest pre-speaking activities for developing monolog skills "The National Parks of Uzbekistan" - 8"1 grade. What interactive methods may be used on this stage?
Pre-Speaking Activities
COMPONENTS   ACTIVITIES
Aims
Topic Orientation
Language Aspects
Motivation

Ex.4. Prepare conversational phrases for expression an opinion, a supposition, or a wish for the 7th grade. What teaching methods will you use for their presentation in class?
Conversational Phrases for Expression an Opinion, a Supposition, or a Wish
Expression of Opinions   Supposition Wish

Ex.5. You have to prepare discussions in your classes on one of the following topics below. What are the main requirements to conducting discussion? How may these topics be divided among different grades?
Questions for the Discussion
1.   Have you ever had, or would you like to have, a pet?
2.   How does your family usually celebrate Chinese New Year?
3.   Have computers improved our lives?
4.   What motivates you to study?
5.   What do you like about China?   •
6.   What kinds of books do you like?
7.   In what ways are you similar to, or different from, your parents?
8.   What do you do in your spare time?
9.   What kind of movies do you dislike?
10.   What do you plan to do during the next vacation?

Ex.6. Take this joke for role play in your class. Make all necessary preparations (choosing role-playing participants; distributing the roles; acting out the role play; etc.) for using it in class. Create criteria for evaluation.
The Three Deaf Ladies
Three deaf ladies were traveling on the top of an open bus.
" Windy, isn't it?" said one of the ladies.
"No, it isn't Wednesday, it's Thursday", said the second.
"Yes, I'm very thirsty too. Let's all get off and have something to drink",
said the third.

Ex.7. Analyze Speaking Lesson Sample below. Fill in the table. In your recommendations point out teaching strategies and techniques which may be useful for teaching speaking at this lesson.

ANALYZING SPEAKING LESSON

Stages	Activities	Recommendations
Pre-speaking		
Speaking		
Post-speaking		

8. Plan Speaking Lesson of your own.

SPEAKING LESSON SAMPLE

(*this is a part of the lesson devoted to teaching speaking) Theme: Asking for Instructions or Advice Level - 7lh form Time - 20 min Aims:

Teaching: developing dialog skills, widening vocabulary aimed at asking instructions or advice; grammar - the pattern "shall I (smb.) do smth.?"; phonetics - the rising tone in question phrases (tags) added on to the statements when the speaker wants information.

Educative: presentation of polite communicating manners in other countries.

Moral training is to develop pupils' skills concerning polite manners for communication

LESSON OUTLINE PRE-SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

I. Teacher explains the aims how they improve speaking skills today (*pointcd above)

II. Topic Orientation

* Teacher's explanation of the aims for developing speaking skills (Today, we'll learn how to ask instructions or advice in English. How do you ask advice in your native language? What special words or phrases do you use? In English special phrases must be used also. That's why we'll learn special grammar structures which help you communicate in a correct way).

III. Language Prompts

1. Grammar (* teacher should explain the rules using special tables)

IV. Motivation. At the end of this lesson each of you can ask instructions or advice without any help, Further when you communicate in English asking instructions or advice won't be a problem for you.

SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

Ex.1 Listen to the dialog and define the word for expressing polite asking.

1. Man: Shall 1 take the table out into the garden?

Woman: Yes, please. And the chairs too.

M: Right. Where shall 1 put them?

W: Oh anywhere. I'll bring tea.

2. M: I'm going to the baker's. Shall 1 get anything for you?

W: Yes, please. Will you buy some cakes for me, please?

Ex.2 Ask the other speaker if it is advisable to do the following. Use a rising tone all through. Listen to the model:

1. To switch on the computer. Shall I switch on the radio?

2. To wait for the next train.

3. To bring the notebook.

4. To open the window.

5. To leave the door unlocked.

6. To let them know beforehand

7. To keep the key.

Ex.3 Ask about the time the other speaker wants the action to be done.

Listen to the model:

1. I'd like Ann to make a call to Tashkent. When shall Ann make a call to Tashkent?

2. I'd like you to let me know.

3. We'd like them to show us round.

4. I'd like Lisa to stark work.

5. They'd like you to fill in the form

Ex.4 Each time the other speaker says something to you, you miss some words (the place, the time, etc.). Ask him/her special questions to make sure that you understand him in the right way. Listen to the model:

1. Will you please call me at five? Sorry, I missed the time. When shall I call for you?

2.1 want you to wait for me in my office.

3.1 want you to contact Susan.

4.   Could you pay twenty soms for the books?

5.   We must do it tomorrow.

Ex.5 Listen and repeat. Use a rising tone for the question phrases

to show that you want information.

1.   The climate rather hot, isn't it?

2.   You would live rather here than in Africa, wouldn't you?

3.   You'll take me around and show me some of the sights of Samarkand?

4.   We met at the festival, didn't we?

5.   You remember my name, don't you?

Ex.6 Disagree with the other speaker's view. Say your answers with a falling-rising tone. Listen to the model:

1. You are on holiday, aren't you? No, I'm not.

2.   But you don't live here permanently, do you?

3.   It's nearly time for lunch, isn't it?

4.   He needn't take the book back to the library, need he?

II.   Read the dialog and point out statements with instructions or opinions

Ann: Well here we are! This is our hotel, isn't?

Lisa: Yes, there is the name: Prince's Court Hotel. Shall I look after the luggage or will you?

Ann: Well, if you see to the luggage and pay the driver, I'll go in and see about rooms.

Lisa: All right. Where shall I find you? Ann: I'll wait for you in the hall. Don't be long. Lisa: I'll come as soon as possible.

III. Work in pairs. Make a dialog on the following situations:

1. Planning a holiday with your family. Ask your parents for instructions as to the place, the accommodation, the transport, etc.

2. Learning photo. Asking your friend to instructions or help.

POST - SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

1. Discussion.

L. What information have you got from this lesson?

2. How have you improved your speaking skills today? What can you do now?

3. In what life situations do people need asking instructions or advice? Give your examples.

4. What body language is used for asking instructions or advice in your native culture?

2. Brainstorming. Name, taking turns words and phrases which are used for asking instructions or advice which you have learned at this lesson.

3. Home task. For the next lesson you have to make a dialog aimed at asking instructions or advice. Learn by heart special conversational phrases for asking instructions or advice and use them in your dialog.

QUESTIONS FOR PANEL DISSCUSSION "FEATURES OF TEACHING SPEAKING"

(*Follow the Panel Discussion rules)

What is a Speaking process?

What is the role of speaking skills in teaching English at school?

What is the main goal of teaching to speak at school?

How are speaking skills connected with other speech skills (reading, writing, and listening)?

What are linguistic difficulties in teaching to speak?

What are extra linguistic difficulties in teaching to speak?
What are the ways of overcoming difficulties in teaching to speak?

What language aspects are basic for developing speaking skills?

What communicative strategies are used for teaching to speak?

What communicative games are useful for teaching to speak?

Why should teaching to speak be organized in special framework?

What activities does pre-speaking stage include?

What tasks may be suggested for while-speaking stage?

What should post-speaking activities provide?

What is a body language?

What is the role of body language in teaching to speak?

Theme-12: TEACHER`S SPEECH AND OTHER MEANS IN TEACHING SPEAKING

Plan:

1. Teaching Speaking in English
2. Problems for Discussion
3. General Remarks
4. The Most Difficulties of Teaching Speaking a Foreign Language
5. The Content of Teaching Speaking in English
6. Techniques for Teaching Speaking

The knowledge of each of the aspect of the language is of great importance to learners. However, when we say a person knows the language we first of all mean he understands the language spoken and can speak it himself.

Speaking in English is also one of the language skills. By speaking information is given. Language came into life as a means of communication. It exists and is alive only through speech. When we speak about teaching a foreign language, we first of all have in mind teaching it as a means of communication. Speech is a bilateral process. It includes hearing, on the one hand, and speaking, on the other. When we say "hearing" we mean auditing or listening and comprehension.

Speaking exists in two forms: dialogue and monologue. Speaking is closely interacted with other language skills. If the pupil acquires listening and understanding (Comprehension) skills well his speaking abilities also develops in a quick tempo.

Reading is also interrelated with speaking. The pupil gives information, can speak according to the material he reads. reading is the material base for speaking. The language learner (pupil) can express (write) the information in written form through reading, speaking, and listening.

The secondary school syllabus requirement is to carry on a conversation and to speak a foreign language within the topics and linguistic material. Thus, speaking is the practical aim in teaching oral language. Finally, it is use for developing pronunciation habits and skills and, therefore, for reading and writing since they

are closely connected with pupils' ability to pronounce correctly what they read and write. Thus speaking is the most important part of the work during the lesson.

Consequently oral language is:

• an aim when pupils make use of the target language as a means of communication, i.e. the target language is used for:

(1) Teacher-pupils communication in the classroom;

(2) pupils' communication when talking on a topic under Teacher's supervision;

(3) pupils' communication when working at a text-discussing the problems touched in it;

(4) pupils' communication during out-of-class activities in the target language;

• a means of teaching and learning a foreign language when it is used:

(1) within the methods of acquisition of new information about a linguistic or language phenomenon and drill and transformation to form pronunciation, lexical, grammar, etc. habits in pupils;

(2) for checking pupils' comprehension.

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 respects the sentence he hears, he completes sentences that are in the book he constructs sentences on the patterns 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 practise 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.

Difficulties of Teaching Speaking a foreign language may be divided into 2 groups:

A) Extralinguistic Difficulties   B) Linguistic Difficulties

1. Speech (speaking) may be addressed to someone, or to be devoted to some events, things, some life situations.

2) Creating speech situations, speaking a union (a Group of people) when speaking.

3) The existence of various aids (visual and etc.), means and so on.

4) The necessity of speaking

5) The peculiarities of the conditions where speaking is carried out (the division of the class (form) into 2 parts or not classroom placement and etc.

6) Using various kinds thetic movements, mime and so on while speaking. Besides, there are some psychological difficulties of speaking. 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.

B. Linguistic difficulties of Speaking

1. the right selection of lexical and grammatical items (material), speech patterns necessary for speaking.

2. the difficulties in the usage , meaning and content of the lexical and grammatical (item) necessary for speaking.

3. the difficulties in the correct pronunciation, tone (tune) and rhythm affecting the speaking process.

4. the difficulties in the usage of speech patterns, phrases

Besides speaking has the following difficulties too:

a) speaking not in a literary standard language but in a colloquial style

b) sentences, phrases are made very short: Have you? and you? How many books have you? - One. and the like.

c) shortened forms are widely used: don't, won't, I've, shan't and so on.

d) shortened words are widely used: laboratory - lab; microphone-mike; mathematics-maths.

e) making remarks: Well, Hello, why not, Hey, etc.

Speaking exists in two forms: dialogue and monologue. There are some peculiarities of the monologue and dialogue speaking. Speech may also be divides into: prepared (ready -made) and spontaneous (unprepared). It is considered prepared when the pupil has been given time enough to think over its content and form. He can speak on the subject following three plan made either independently at home or in class under the teacher's supervision. His speech will be more or less correct and sufficient fluent since plenty of preliminary exercises had been done before. In schools, however, pupils often have to speak on a topic when they are not yet prepared for it. As a result only bright pupils can cope with the task. The teacher should encourage each pupil to speak on the subject in his own way and thus develop pupils initiative and thinking. The pupils' speech is considered unprepared when, without any previous preparation, he can do the following:

- speak on a subject suggested by the teacher (E.g. winter holidays, or Football match).

- speak on the text read. For example, pupils have read two or three chapters of Robin Hood.

-speak on the text heard: - Discuss a problem or problems touched upon in the test read or heard.

- have an interview with "a foreigner".

-Help "a foreigner', for example, to find the way to the main street or square of the town; or instruct him as to places of interest in the town.

This may be done directly or with the help of "an interpreter." There are, of course, other techniques foe stimulating pupils' unprepared speech. The teacher chooses the techniques most suitable for his pupils since he knows their aptitudes,

their progress in the language, the time he has at his disposal for developing speaking skills, the concrete material at which pupils are working.

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

3. The content of teaching speaking in English comprises the following three aspects: Linguistic, Psychological and methodological.

Linguistic Aspect (chapter) consists of the language materials and speech materials, sentence structures, speech patterns and so on necessary for speaking. These materials must be selected on the base of certain topics. Besides, some extralinguist elements such as mime, actions and some other means must be kept in mind. Psychological Aspect of speaking includes speech skills (language skills). That is reproduction, putting in the right place, transformation, extension, adding and mixing. Reproduction means reproducing (saying aloud, repetition) of what he (she) heard from the mouth of a teacher or recording.

Methodological Aspect includes the usage of methods, techniques of teaching speaking.

`It is important that pupils should use the means of basement (опора, таянч). That is the means (опора) of listening, seeing, words and etc.

4. As it was mentioned above there are 2 forms of speaking; monologue and dialogue. Each form has its peculiarities, In teaching monologue we can easily distinguish three stages according to the levels which constitute the ability to speak:

(1) the statement level; (2) the utterance level; (3) the discourse level.

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

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

For example:

a) I can see a ....

b) I am fond of...

c) We are proud of...

Pupils are invited to perform various drill exercises within the sentence patterns given:

- substitution: L have a book (pen).
- extension: I have an interesting book. I have an interesting book at home.
- transformation: He has a book; He has no book.
- completion: If I have time I will....

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

- Give it a name. Teacher: We write with it.

Pupil: it is a pen (pencil).

- make statements on the picture

- say the opposite. - I live in Berdakh Street. I do not live in Berdakh Street.

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

Teacher: Say a few words about it. (He points to an object)

Pupil: This is a pencil. The pencil is green. It is on the table. I like the pencil.

Get information and sum up

What you have learnt from your classmate?

Teacher: She cut her finger.

Pupil: Who cut her finger?

Class: Ann.

- When did she cut it? - Yesterday.- What did she cut it with? - With a knife.

- Why did she cut her finger? - Because the knife was sharp.

This exercise is useful both for developing dialogue and monologue speech. At this stage pupils learn to express their thoughts, their attitude to what they say using various sentence patterns. Thus they learn how to put several sentences together in one utterance about a subject, an object, etc.

3. After pupils have learned how to say a few sentences in connection with a situation they are prepared for speaking at discourse level. At this level pupils are asked to speak on a picture, a set of pictures, a film-strip, a film, comment on a text they have read or heard, make up a story of their own.

The three levels in developing pupils' speaking should take place throughout the whole course of instruction, i.e., in junior, intermediate, and senior forms.

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

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

In teaching dialogue we should use lead-response units as a teaching point and pattern-dialogues as they involve all features which characterise this form of speech. (see pp. 189-193, Rogova).

When a pattern dialogue is used as a unit of teaching there are three stages in learning a dialogue: (1) receptive; (2) reproductive; (3) constrictive (creative).

Rule for the teacher: In teaching dialogue use pattern dialogues; make sure that your pupils go through the three stages from receptive through reproductive to creative, supply them with the subject to talk about. As to the relationship between monologues and dialogues, it should be vary from stage to stage in teaching speaking in schools. In the junior stage (4-6) dialogue speech, the one which allows the teacher to introduce new material and consolidate it in conversation, must prevail; in the intermediate stage (7-8-9) dialogue and monologue must be on an equal footing. In the senior stage (10-11) monologic speech must prevail since pupils either take part in discussion and, therefore, express their thoughts in

connection with a problem or retell 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 foreigner language at a certain stage.

Prepared and unprepared speech.

Pupils' speech in both forms may be of two kinds: prepared and unprepared. It is considered prepared when the pupil has been given time enough to think over its content and form. The pupils' speech is considered unprepared when, without any previous preparation, he can do the following: speak on a subject suggested by the teacher. (E.g.: Winter Holidays). Speak on the text read; speak on the text heard. Have an interview with a foreigner and etc.

It should be said that prepared and unprepared speech must be developed simultaneously from the very beginning. In the junior stage prepared speech takes the lead, while in the senior stage unprepared speech should prevail.

LITERATURE

1. Методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе Составители Гез А И и др М 1982

2. G.V. Rogova. "Methods of Teaching English", Moscow, 1978

3. Зимняя И А Психологические аспекты обучения говорения на иностранном языке М 1978

4. Жалолов Ж Чет тил укитиш методикаси Ташкент 1996 Пр

THEME-13: TEACHING WRITING.
Plan:

1. Writing as a skill.
2. Difficulties pupils have in learning to write English
3. How to teach writing.
4. Spelling difficulties.

1. 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 might means of teaching a foreign language."

Writing includes penmanship, spelling, and composition.

The latter is the aim of learning to write. The school syllabus states: "Pupils are expected to be able to write a letter in the foreign language within the material learnt."

Since writing is a complicated skill it should be developed through the formation of habits such as:

(1)   the habit of writing letters of the English alphabet;

(2)   the habit of converting speech sounds into their symbols-letters and letter combinations;

(3)   the habit-of correct spelling of words, phrases, and sentences;

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

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

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

2.   Articulation of a sound and pronunciation of a word, a phrase, and a sentence by the pupil who writes.

3.   Visual perception of letters or letter combinations which stand for sounds.

4.   The movements of the muscles of the hand in writing.

The ear, the eye, the muscles and nerves of the throat, and tongue, the movements of the muscles of the hand participate in writing. And the last, but not the least, factor which determines progress in formation and development of lasting writing habits is pupils' comprehension of some rules which govern writing in the English language.

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

2. Difficulties pupils have in learning to write English.

Since pupils should be taught penmanship, spelling, and composition it is necessary to know the difficulties Russian and Uzbek pupils find in learning to write English.

The writing of the English letters does not present much trouble because there are a lot of similar letters in both languages.

Pupils find it difficult to make each stroke continuous when the body of the letter occupies one space, the stem one more space above, the tail one more space below. Pupils should know that the small letters are all made with an unbroken movement of the pen.

The most difficult thing for Russian and Uzbek pupils in learning to write is English spelling.

The spelling system of a language may be based upon the following principles:

1.   Historical or conservative principle when spelling reflects the pronunciation of earlier periods in the history of the language.

For example, Russian: кого, жил; English: busy, brought, daughter.

2.   Morphological principle. In writing a word the morphemic composition of the word is taken into account. For example, in Russian: рыба, рыбка; the root morpheme is рыб; in English: answered, asked; the affixal morpheme is ed.

3.   Phonetic principle. Spelling reflects the pronunciation.

For example, in Russian: бесконечный -безграничный; in English: leg, pot.

Different letters or letter combinations in different words are read in the same way: I-eye; rode-road; write-right; tale-tail.

Many letters are pronounced in some words and are mute in other words: build [bild] - suit [sju:t]; laugh [la:f]-brought [brɔ:t]; help [help]-hour [auə].

The discrepancy that exists in the English language between pronunciation and spelling may be explained by the fact that there are more sounds in the language than there are letters to stand for these sounds. Thus, there are 23 vowel sounds in English and 6 letters to convey them.

In teaching English spelling special attention should be given to the words which present much trouble in this respect. The spelling of the words, for example, busy, daughter, language, beautiful, foreign, and others, must be assimilated through manifold repetition in their writing and spelling. In conclusion it should be said that it is impossible to master accurate spelling without understanding some laws governing it. Pupils should know;

(1)   how to add:

-s to words ending in y: day-days, stay-he stays, but city-cities, study-he studies;

-ed to verbs: play-played; carry-carried;

-ing to verbs: write-writing; play-playing; stand-standing;

-er, -est to adjectives in the comparative and the superlative degrees: clean-cleaner-   cleanest; large-larger-largest;

(2)   when the consonant should be doubled: sit-sitting; thin-thinner; swim-swimming;

(3)   the main word-building suffixes:

-      ful: use-useful; -less: use-useless; and others.

Writing a composition or a letter, which is a kind of a composition where the pupil has to write down his own thoughts, is another problem to be solved. The pupil comes across a lot of difficulties in finding the right words, grammar forms and structures among the limited material stored up in his memory. The pupil often does not know what to write; he wants good and plentiful ideas which will be within his vocabulary and grammar.   3 . How to teach writing

Teaching writing should be based on such methodological principles as a conscious to forming and developing this skill, visualization and activity of pupils. Pupils learn to write letters, words, arid 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.

Training in penmanship should proceed by steps.

I. The teacher shows the learners a letter or both a capital and a small letter, for example, B b. Special cards may be used for the purpose. On one side of the card the letters are written. On the other side there is a word in which this letter occurs. For example:

                              Bb   bed

2.   The teacher shows his pupils how to write the letter.

He can use the blackboard. For example, V and W are made with one continuous zigzag movement. Q is made without lifting the pen except for the tail, which is an added stroke. L is also made without lifting the pen. The first stroke in N is a down-stroke; the pen is not lifted in making the rest of the letter. Care should be taken that r is not made to look like a v; the branching should occur about two-thirds (r) from the bottom of the letter.

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

3.   The teacher asks pupils to write first the letter, then (lie word in their exercise-books. When pupils are writing he walks round looking at the work they are doing arid giving help to the pupils who need it. Since habits are formed and developed through performing actions, pupils are told to practise 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 and Uzbek pupils, and he need not show them how to write and 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.

4.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.

1. C o p y i n g. The aim of this exercise is to allow the pupils to practice what has been taught in listening and speaking. Writing does this because the movements of the muscles of the hand are now called in to help the ear, the eye, and the muscles and nerves of the throat and tongue.

The "look" and the "feel" of the word are used to help the memory .

For better assimilation of the spelling of words, it is recommended that various associations should be established, such as:

(a)   associations by similarity in spelling:

Within	room	thought	night
The English	spoon	bought	right
language	moon	brought	light.
Between			

English and биография патриотизм энтузиазм.
Russian words   biography   patriotism   enthusiasm.
associations by contrast in spelling:

two-too

see-sea

one-won   Spelling alone distinguishes these homophones.

The teacher shows his pupils how to rely on grammar in spelling the words. The more the pupils get acquainted with grammar, the more will they rely on it in their spelling.

For example, the pupils have learned the plural of nouns in the English language. Now they know that the ending s is added, though it sounds either [s] as in maps or [z] as in pens; in both cases they must write s.

In the words famous, continuous it is necessary to write ous, as it is adjective-forming suffix. In the words dislike, disadvantage it is necessary to write I and not e as the negative prefix is dis.

Copying applies equally well to the phrase pattern and the sentence pattern with the same purpose to help the memory, for pupils should not be asked to write, at least in the first two years, anything that they do not already know thoroughly through speech and reading. Every new word, phrase or sentence pattern, after it has been thoroughly learnt, should be practised by copying.

Copying may be carried out both in class and at home.
In copying at home the pupils must be given some additional task preventing them from performing the work mechanically. The following tasks may be suggested:

(a)   underline a given letter or letter combination for a certain sound;

(b)   underline a certain grammar item;

(c)   underline certain words depicting, for example, the names of school things.

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. D i c t a t i o п. This kind of writing exercises is much more difficult than copying. Some methodologists think that it should never be given as a test to young beginners. "It is a means of fixing of what is already known, not a puzzle in which the teacher tries to defeat the pupil" (F. French).

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 / together.

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

Dictation drill aims at consolidating linguistic material and preparing pupils for spelling tests. The teacher dictates a sentence. A word with a difficult spelling either is written on the blackboard, or is spelt by one of the pupils.

Then the pupils are told to write the sentence. The teacher walks about the class and watches them writing. He asks one of the pupils who has written correctly to go to the blackboard and write the sentence for the other pupils to correct their mistakes if they have any. The dictation drill may be given for 10-12 minutes depending on the grade and the language material.

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

3. Writing sentences on a given pattern.

This kind of writing exercise is more difficult because pupils choose words they are to use themselves. The following exercises may be suggested:

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

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

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

Practice of this kind can lead pupils to long sentences.

4. Writing answer to given questions.

The question helps the pupil both with the words and with the pattern required for the answer.

Preparation may include:' '

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

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

auding an extract or a story which can stimulate pupils' thought; after auding there should always be some questions on the content; silent reading which can 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. Abridge 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, 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.
Write a letter to a boy (a girl) you do not know but you want to be your pen-friend.

In testing pupils' skills in writing the teacher should use those kinds of work pupils get used to and which they can do because they must be well prepared before they are given a test. Every pupil should feel some pride in completing a test and be satisfied with the work done. Tests which result in mistakes are very dangerous. They do no good at all. They do a very great deal of harm because pupils lose interest in the subject and stop working at their English. Indeed, if the results of the test are poor, for example, 50% of the pupils have, received low marks, they testify not only to the poor assimilation of the material by the pupils, but to the poor work of the teacher as well. He has given an untimely test. He has not prepared the pupils for the test yet. This is true of all kinds of tests in teaching a foreign language.

In teaching writing the following tests may be recommended to measure pupils' achievements in penmanship, spelling, and composition.

1. The teacher measures his pupils' achievements in making English letters in the right way by asking individuals to write some letters on the blackboard. Or else he may ask the pupils to write some letters which he names in their exercise-books. Then he takes the exercise- books for reaction.

2. The teacher measures his pupils' achievement in penmanship and spelling by administering dictation tests or spelling tests. The teacher dictates a word, a phrase, or a sentence standing in front of the class for the pupils to hear him well. If the teacher a sentence, it is not recommended to repeat it more than twice.

Constant repetition of the sentence prevents pupils from keeping it in memory. If the dictation is based on a text whose sentences are logically connected it is necessary to read the whole text first and then dictate it sentence by sentence. When the pupils are ready with writing, the teacher reads the text once more for them to check it.

Since writing is a mighty means in learning a foreign language pupils should write both in class and at home.

For this they need (I) two exercise-books for class and homework (the teacher collects the exercise-books regularly for correcting mistakes and assigns marks for pupils' work in the exercise-books); (2) a notebook for tests (the teacher keeps the notebooks in class and given them to the pupils for a test and corrections).

The exercise-books must meet the general school requirements established by unified spelling standards.

Questions for discussion:

1. Teaching English penmanship is not difficult. What is your opinion on the matter?

2. Spelling is one of the most difficult problems in teaching English. Do you agree? Give some examples to substantiate your opinion.

3. Why is writing an effective means in language learning? Give a few arguments to prove your answer.

Activities:

1.Analyse one of the lessons in Pupil's Book and Teacher's Book (any level you like) to state the role and place of writing.

2.State the difficulties in the spelling of the following words...

3.Prepare a short drill lesson practising the spelling of...

4.Prepare a spelling test on the lesson you have chosen for analysis.

5.Prepare a test to measure pupils' achievements (a) in answering questions in written form; (b) in writting a composition on a picture.

Literature

1.Kadrlar tayyorlash milliydasturi. Toshkent I997

2.Yangi tipdagi o'quv muassasalari uchun namunaviy nizom va o'quv rejalari. T. 1993 y.

3. Umum talim maktabJari dasturi. Chet tillar. T. 1993 y.

4. O'rta maktablar uchun ingliz tilidan dastur. T. 1993 y. Iqtisodiyot litseylari uchun horijiy tillardan o'quy dasturi. T. 1997 y.

5.Теоретические основы методики обучения иностранным

языкам в средней школе. M- 1981

6.Гез Н.И., Ляховицкий М.В., Миролюбов А.А.и др. Методика

7.Wright, Andrew, Pictures for language learning. Cambridge University Press, 1989.

8.Lee, W. R. Language Teaching Games and Contests. Oxford University Press, 1979.

9.Five minute activities. A resource book of short activities. Penny Ur and Andrew Wright, Cambridge University Press, 1999.