МИНИСТЕРСТВО НАУКИ И ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РЕСПУБЛИКИ КАЗАХСТАН КАСПИЙСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ТЕХНОЛОГИЙ И ИНЖИНИРИНГА им. Ш. ЕСЕНОВА

ИНСТИТУТ ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКИХ ТЕХНОЛОГИЙ

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Methods of Foreign Language Teathing
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Учебное пособие предназначено для студентов специальности «Английский язык: два иностранных языка» дневного и заочного отделений. Учебное пособие включат два раздела по общей и специальной методике обучения иностранному языку, глассарий наиболее употребительных методических выражений, вопросы для обсуждения лекционных тем, список рекомендуемой литературы.

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Introduction

Formation of a competitive space, conditions for development of the foreign languages would be one of the strategic objectives of strengthening and further development of our country as a legal, democratic and social state.

The concept of expanding the functioning of the foreign languages, to improve its competitiveness for 2007-2010 is designed in accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan, the Republic of Kazakhstan Law "On languages in the Republic of Kazakhstan from 11, July, 1997, the State program of functioning and development of languages for 2001-2010, approved by Decree of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan from February 7, 2001 № 550"

In these circumstances it is necessary to conduct ongoing work to improve the organization of study the foreign languages, should become more stable, their structure, which provides levels of language proficiency - from beginner classes to courses in-depth study, which is expected not only learning a language at the elementary level of communication but also self-study documents.

So far, there is a shortage of specialist teachers of the Kazakh language, as well as professional teacchers.

In Kazakhstan, at the present time, it's necessary to conduct an ongoing scientific monitoring of the functional relationships of languages, a real assessment of their relevance in social, interpersonal relations.

First of all, we should overcome the stereotype, when the definition of the functional purpose of language is made dependent on the extent of its prevalence, the number of carriers and other factors.

The implementation of democratic, political, economic reforms, improving the socio-economic life offers new ways to improve the quality of training and education, ensuring an optimal mix of languages in schools. If the 90-ies, in times of economic difficulty has been reduced the number of preschool institutions, boarding schools, vocational technical schools, was carried out optimization of many primary schools, upgraded schools, at this time to have a full opportunity for the stable development of secondary and higher education, a full recovery system kindergartens with the foreign languages learning.

Criteria for assessing the quality of education should not only depend on the language of instruction, but also on other parameters of the preparation of future professionals in all branches of knowledge. Therefore, to overcome the existing imbalance in the training of specialists at the state and foreign languages, it is necessary, first of all, to improve the quality of education, improve the scientific and methodological support of educational process, which depends on their competitiveness. Before the educational system task - to achieve the implementation of the principle of continuity of the educational process, based on the highest level of quality, international standards, an essential element of which is language training. The period of early childhood education in general education schools are considered best suited for mastering the language.

To master a foreign language, students must be engaged in activities which are characteristic of the language: they should hear the language spoken, speak, read and write it. To achieve effective learning of foreign language 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.

A student who starts studying Methods of Foreign Language Teaching will be puzzled by the variety of "methods" he may come across in books and journals and, of course, there are good grounds for this. At different periods, depending on the aims of teaching and learning a foreign language, new methods sprang up.

At interpretation of each subject the following principles are taken into account:

- oral language is the principal means of teaching a foreign language to achieve any objective the teacher sets;
- the method is based on the following sequence of language activities: pupils assimilate the material orally before they read and write it;
- active teaching techniques are widely used;
- a special emphasis is laid on definite sequence in forming language skills;
- the method strives for the constant increase of active time for each pupil to practice in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing.

This schoolbook presents itself lectorium, containing all main sections of syllabus, which requires so much mental and physical activities because of the complexity of language learning. On the one hand, the teacher must provide his pupils with the knowledge of different aspects of the language; on the other hand, he should equip them with habits and skills in hearing, speaking, reading and writin

Part One GENERAL PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Lecture I. *Methods of Foreign Language Teaching and Its Relations to Other Sciences*

Language education is the teaching and learning of a language. It can include improving a learner's mastery of her or his native language, but the term is more commonly used with regard to second language acquisition, which means the learning of a foreign or second language and which is the topic of this article. Some scholars differentiate between acquisition and learning.

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:

- aims of teaching a foreign language;
- content of teaching, i.e. what to teach to attain the aims;
- 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 pedagogics, psychology, physiology, linguistics, and some others.

Pedagogics 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 pedagogics. To study foreign language teaching one must know pedagogics. One branch of pedagogics 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. Thus, 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. For example, the so-called *"principle of visualization"* was first introduced in teaching foreign languages. Now it has become one of the fundamental principles of didactics and is used in teaching all school subjects without exception. Programmed instruction was first applied to teaching mathematics. Now through didactics it is used in teaching many subjects, including foreign languages.

Teaching a foreign language means first and foremost 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 *psychology* 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 Soviet 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. Thus, if a teacher wants his pupils to speak English he must use all the opportunities he has to make them hear and speak it. Furthermore, 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.

Effective 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 involuntary memory is of great importance. In his investigation of involuntary memory P.K. Zinchenko came to the conclusion that this memory is retentive. Consequently, in teaching a foreign language we should create favourable conditions for involuntary memorizing. P K. Zinchenko showed that involuntary memorizing is possible only when pupils' attention is concentrated not on fixing the material in their memory through numerous repetitions, but on solving some mental problems which deal with this material. To prove this the following experiment was carried out. Students of group A were given a list of words to memorize (voluntary memorizing). Students of group B did not receive a list of words to memorize. Instead, they got an English text and some assignments which made them work with these words, use them in answering various questions. During the next lesson a vocabulary test was given to the students of both groups. The results were approximately the same. A test given a fortnight later proved, however, that the students of group B retained the words in their memory much better than the students of group A. This shows that involuntary memorizing may be more retentive under certain circumstances. Experiments by prominent scientists show that psychology helps Methods to determine the role of the mother tongue in different stages of teaching; the amount of material for pupils to assimilate at every stage of instruction; the sequence and ways in which various habits and skills should be developed; the methods and techniques which are more suitable for presenting the material and for ensuring its retention by the pupils, and so on.

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 signalling 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's habits are conditioned reflexes, and a conditioned reflex 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 showed that man's higher nervous activities - *speaking and thinking* - are the functions of a special system of organic structures within the nervous 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 signalling system.Consequently one of the

forms of human behaviour is language behaviour, 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 behaviour, 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.

Methods of foreign language 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 language 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.

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

- a critical study of the ways foreign languages were taught in our country and abroad;
- a thorough study and summing up of the experience of' the best foreign language teachers in different types of schools;
- experimenting with the aim of confirming or refuting the working hypotheses that may arise during investigation. Experimenting becomes more and more popular with methodologists. In experimenting 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 ideas 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 to teach". More research is now needed which compares different combination of devices, various teaching aids, etc.

Recommended Literature:
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3.Зимняя И.А. Психологические аспекты обучения говорению на иностранном языке. - М., 1985.

4. Зимняя И.А. Психология обучения иностранным языкам в школе. - М., 1991.

5. Алхазишвили А.А. Основы овладения устной иноязычной речью. - М., 1998.

6. Колкер Я.М., Устинова Е.С., Еналиева Г.М. Практическая методика обучения иностранному языку, М., 2000.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Compare several viewpoints on Methods as a science.

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

   - Methods possess its own field of research. True or false?
   - Methods is interrelated with other sciences and is fed by them.
     In what way?
   - Methods utilizes various kinds of scientific investigation.
     Consider the kinds you find justifiable.

Lecture II.   A Brief Review on Foreign Language Teaching

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

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

On the theoretical side are, for example, Francois Gouin, M.D. Berlitz, and Elime de Sauzé, whose rationalist theories of language acquisition dovetail with

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

Language education may take place as a general school subject or in a specialized language school. There are many methods of teaching languages. Some have fallen into relative obscurity and others are widely used; still others have a small following, but offer useful insights.

A student who starts studying Methods will be puzzled by the variety of "methods" he may come across in books and journals and, of course, there are good grounds for this. At different periods, depending on the aims of teaching and learning a foreign language, new methods sprang up. In each case the method received a certain name; sometimes its name denoted logical categories, for example: the synthetic method (synthesis), the analytic method (analysis), the deductive method (deduction), the inductive method (induction), sometimes the method was named after the aspect of the language upon which attention was focused as in the cases of the grammar method, the lexical method, the phonetic method. A third set of methods received their names from the skill which was the main object of teaching. Among these are the translation method (translation), the oral method (oral language). Sometimes the method got its name from the psychology of language learning: in this category the following names occur: the intuitive method, the conscious method, the direct method. Finally, the method was sometimes named after its inventor. Thus we find: the Amos Comenius method, the Jacotot method, the Gouin method, the Berlitz method, the Palmer (West, Fries) method.

In some cases the methods bear coupled names: they represent two sides of teaching, for example, the leading aspect of the language and the skill the pupils acquire (the grammar-translation method), or the name of the author and the language activity which is the main aim in teaching - "Fries oral method", "the method of teaching reading by West". We may find even such names as "hear-say-see-say-read-write method" and others.

It would be impracticable in a short chapter such as this one to give a classification of methods. All that one can hope to do is to select for comment those methods which have had a long history and have influenced the contemporary methods of foreign language teaching, and live on in them. This brief review will deal with:

1. the grammar-translation method, the oldest method of teaching foreign languages which had its origin in Latin schools;

2. the direct method which began to be widely used in schools in the 1870's;
3. contemporary methods.

The Grammar - Translation Methods

The grammar translation method instructs students in grammar, and provides vocabulary with direct translations to memorize. It was the predominant method in Europe in the 19th century. Most instructors now acknowledge that this method is ineffective by itself. It is now most commonly used in the traditional instruction of the classical languages, however it remains the most commonly practiced method of English teaching in Japan.

At school, the teaching of grammar consists of a process of training in the rules of a language which must make it possible to all the students to correctly express their opinion, to understand the remarks which are addressed to them and to analyze the texts which they read. The objective is that by the time they leave college, the pupil controls the tools of the language which are the vocabulary, grammar and the orthography, to be able to read, understand and write texts in various contexts. The teaching of grammar examines texts, and develops awareness that language constitutes a system which can be analyzed. This knowledge is acquired gradually, by traversing the facts of language and the syntactic mechanisms, going from simplest to the most complex. The exercises according to the program of the course must untiringly be practiced to allow the assimilation of the rules stated in the course.[citation needed] That supposes that the teacher corrects the exercises. The pupil can follow his progress in practicing the language by comparing his results. Thus can he adapt the grammatical rules and control little by little the internal logic of the syntactic system. The grammatical analysis of sentences constitutes the objective of the teaching of grammar at the school. Its practice makes it possible to recognize a text as a coherent whole and conditions the training of a foreign language. Grammatical terminology serves this objective. Grammar makes it possible for each one to understand how the mother tongue functions, in order to give him the capacity to communicate its thought.

The grammar-translation method was widely used in teaching the classics, namely Latin, and it was transferred to the teaching of modern languages when they were introduced into schools, first as an optional and then as a compulsory subject. In teaching a foreign language by means of the grammar-translation method attention was paid to the assimilation of grammar rules of the foreign language that pupils studied. The vocabulary was "tuned up" to grammar. Translation was extensively utilized both as a means of explanation of new words, grammar forms, and structures, and as a means of mastering the foreign language, all exercises for assimilating the language material being limited to translation from the mother tongue into the foreign language and from the foreign language into the mother tongue.

The distinguishing features of the grammar-translation method are 1) insistence upon grammatical analyses and 2) the assumption that grammatical categories can be defined in general terms with reference to meaning, the grammatical categories being the common denominator of all languages. According to the grammar-translation method the best way to say a sentence in a foreign language is to start with a sentence

in the mother tongue, analyze it grammatically into such components as subject, i. e., one who performs the action, predicate, that which denotes the action, object, that which receives the action, etc. If necessary pupils go on with the analyses, for example, they name tense, mood, etc. Then the pupil is told to find the corresponding forms in the foreign language. Sounds, morphemes, words are always considered peculiar to one language alone, but the syntax, the patterns of language are thought of as universals that will allow the pupil to pass from one language to another. It is well known that many patterns of a foreign language do not conform to those of the native language, and these contrasting patterns have to be learned as "exceptions", i. e., exceptions of the one language from the stand point of the other language.

The grammar-translation method in its orthodox form was practised in schools in the 18th and 19th centuries. The development of pedagogics, psychology and linguistics brought changes in the grammar-translation method. It was greatly modified at the end of the 19th century and in the 20th century, and, first of all, these modifications dealt with the approach to the, relationship of "two grammars". Instead of forcing the target language into the mold of the learner's native language, the "grammars" are compared with the result of better comprehension and retention in all points of difference and interference.

The grammar-translation method is often mentioned even nowadays when one wants to emphasize a traditional approach to foreign language teaching. The textbook is the essential teaching aid. The assumption is that proficiency in the language can be acquired by learning a set of grammatical rules, to which the language is supposed to conform, and that by mechanically applying these rules speed and fluency will grow with the use of the language. Primary objectives are mastery of the graphic skills, i. e., reading and writing, with secondary attention to hearing and speaking. Language performance in the classroom takes the form of reading, translating, and the working out of various exercises which require the application of grammar rules to selected data.

The Direct Methods
The direct method, sometimes also called natural method, is a method that refrains from using the learners' native language and just uses the target language. It was established in Germany and France around 1900 and is best represented by the methods devised by Berlitz and de Sauzé although both claim originality and has been re-invented under other names. The direct method operates on the idea that second language learning must be an imitation of first language learning, as this is the natural way humans learn any language - a child never relies on another language to learn its first language, and thus the mother tongue is not necessary to learn a foreign language. This method places great stress on correct pronunciation and the target language from outset. It advocates teaching of oral skills at the expense of every traditional aim of language teaching. Such methods rely on directly representing an experience into a linguistic construct rather than relying on abstractions like mimicry, translation and memorizing grammar rules and vocabulary.

According to this method, printed language and text must be kept away from second language learner for as long as possible, just as a first language learner does

not use printed word until he has good grasp of speech. Learning of writing and spelling should be delayed until after the printed word has been introduced, and grammar and translation should also be avoided because this would involve the application of the learner's first language. All above items must be avoided because they hinder the acquisition of a good oral proficiency.

The method relies on a step-by-step progression based on question-and-answer sessions which begin with naming common objects such as doors, pencils, floors, etc. It provides a motivating start as the learner begins using a foreign language almost immediately. Lessons progress to verb forms and other grammatical structures with the goal of learning about thirty new

The direct method appeared as a reaction against the grammar-translation method. The prerequisites that brought about the appearance of new method are as follows. The rapid development of various branches bf industry and the tremendous development of international trade and colonial expansion required plenty of officials who had a practical mastery of the language, people who could speak and write a foreign language and be able to communicate with foreigners. Therefore practical mastery of a foreign language becomes the main purpose of teaching this subject at school. The rapid development of pedagogics, psychology, namely, apperceptive psychology, and linguistics promoted the appearance of new methods.

The characteristic features of the direct method' are as follows:

- the practical direction in the teaching of foreign languages which is understood as teaching language skills and speaking in particular, therefore spoken language becomes the basis of teaching;
- the ignoring of the existence of the mother tongue as it is assumed that learning the mother tongue and learning a foreign language are similar processes, merely undertaken at different ages;
- restricted application or very often complete elimination of translation as a means of teaching a language which plays a leading part in the grammar-translation method; instead of translation, visual aids and various oral and written exercises are recommended on a large scale;
- the inductive approach to teaching grammar, i. e., the learner may discover the rules of grammar for himself after he has become acquainted with many examples (in the grammar-translation method the rule is first stated, and then sentences embodying the rule are studied; later the rule is put into practice by writing new sentences, generally by translating sentences from the mother tongue into the foreign language);
- great care in teaching pronunciation throughout the course, and especially the first weeks and months; correct pronunciation must be constantly practised since comprehension and speaking is possible if the learner has adequate pronunciation in the target language;
- great attention to the subjects of the texts, especially a topical arrangement of the material with the purpose of ensuring speech development.

The method is called direct because in teaching a foreign language an attempt is made to establish a direct connection between a foreign word and the thing or notion it denotes without the aid of the native language.

At the end of the 19th and in the beginning of the 20th century there appeared several varieties of the direct method which differed only in some details. The most orthodox advocates of the direct method were F. Gouin, M. Berlitz, M. Walter, and B. Eggert.

The teachers, who accepted the method, involve the pupil from the first step of learning a new language in conversation and supply meaning by referring directly to objects and picture charts; they act out the meaning of sentences in order i. to make themselves understood.

The direct method found ready supporters. It stimulated enormously the pupil's curiosity to learn and make progress. But there were too many difficulties in the use of the method, the main of them being the following:

1. No scientific principles were applied to selection of study material and vocabulary in particular. The only principle applied was the topical one, i. e., the material was arranged in topics. As a result of such arrangement of vocabulary, the pupil had to assimilate a great number of words. For example, in textbooks compiled according to F. Gouin system the vocabulary listed 8 000 words.

2. School conditions did not favour the development of pupils' speech habits (too few periods a week, overcrowded classes, lack of visual materials, etc.).

3. In the hands of inexperienced and ill-equipped teachers the direct method did not work and the teachers had to return to the old grammar-translation method.

However during the period between the two wars it became possible to revive the main principles of the direct method: (a) by careful experimentation; (b) by taking note of the new developments in the field of linguistics (Ferdinand de Saussure) and psychology (Thorndike); (c) by insisting that clear statements be made as to the aims and objectives of teaching. This was done by H. Palmer and M. West, prominent English methodologists.

Variation of Direct method

His course was organized on elements of human society and the natural world. He estimated that a language could be learned with 800 to 900 hours of instruction over a series of 4000 exercises and no homework. The idea was that each of the exercises would force the student to think about the vocabulary in terms of its relationship with the natural world. While there is evidence that the method can work extremely well, it has some serious flaws. One of which is the teaching of subjective language, where the students must make judgments about what is experienced in the world (e.g. "bad" and "good") as such do not relate easily to one single common experience. However, the real weakness is that the method is entirely based on one experience of a three-year-old. Gouin did not observe the child's earlier language development such as naming (where only nouns are learned) or the role that stories have in human language development. What distinguishes the series method from the direct method is that vocabulary must be learned by translation from the native language, at least in the beginning.

The series method is a variety of the direct method (above) in that experiences are directly connected to the target language. Gouin felt that such direct "translation" of experience into words, makes for a "living language". Gouin also noticed that children organize concepts in succession of time, relating a sequence of concepts in the same order. Gouin suggested that students learn a language more quickly and retain it better if it is presented through a chronological sequence of events. Students learn sentences based on an action such as leaving a house in the order in which such would be performed. Gouin found that if the series of sentences are shuffled, their memorization becomes nearly impossible. For this, Gouin preceded psycholinguistic theory of the 20th century. He found that people will memorize events in a logical sequence, even if they are not presented in that order. He also discovered a second insight into memory called "incubation". Linguistic concepts take time to settle in the memory. The learner must use the new concepts frequently after presentation, either by thinking or by speaking, in order to master them. His last crucial observation was that language was learned in sentences with the verb as the most crucial component. Gouin would write a series in two columns: one with the complete sentences and the other with only the verb. With only the verb elements visible, he would have students recite the sequence of actions in full sentences of no more than twenty-five sentences. Another exercise involved having the teacher solicits a sequence of sentences by basically asks him/her what s/he would do next. While Gouin believed that language was rule-governed, he did not believe it should be explicitly taught.

The main points in Palmer's method are:

1. In learning a foreign language the pupil must tread the path he has followed in acquiring the mother tongue, i.e., starting with oral language.

2. The teaching of a foreign language must be based upon carefully selected material.

H. Palmer was one of the first methodologists who tried to work out the principles of vocabulary selection on a scientific basis. A special Research Institute was established in Tokyo and H. Palmer headed this Institute. The results of the work was a 3 000 word minimum vocabulary list.

3. Great attention should be given to the rationalization of study material to make the assimilation of a foreign language easier.

H. Palmer compiles a series of study guides for teaching oral language:

English Through Actions - where a system of excercise drills based upon the concrete showing of things and actions is given.

100 Substitution Tables - in which typical English sentences (sentence patterns) are arranged in tables for pupils to make up their own sentences, following the pattern. Since Substitution Tables is one of the innovations introduced by H. Palmer and they are widely used in contemporary methods, it is relevant to mention what such tables allow the learner to do while using them:

1. To present the most frequently used English words and word groups in such a manner as to form the greatest number of useful sentences of general application.

2. To serve as practical ear-training exercises, by the use of which the student will come to understand the most rapid speech.

3. To serve as a series of pronunciation exercises, by the use of which the student will acquire fluency and rapidity of expression with the appropriate stress and intonation.

4. To provide a simple context for each word in such a way as to encourage the student to learn words not as isolated elements but as component parts of sentences.

5. To serve as a simple scheme for analysis in which the function of the various parts of speech and the nature of group-words are clearly shown.

6. To offer an extensive choice of model sentences to be memorized providing a simple means for converting each memorized sentence into a vast number of others

7. To enable the teacher to react against five of the ten vicious evils, to which most of all language students are subject, namely:

a) literal translation from the mother tongue

b) artificial separation of words,

c) non-recognition of group-words,

d) preference for strong forms,

e) over-reliance on visual memory.

8. To form the basis of a series of progressive exercises in the grammar inflexions and semantics of spoken English.

9. To serve as vocabulary and phrase-book, to be used with a key in the mother tongue for those who find it necessary or more convenient to study without a teacher.

Here is an example from the tables:

I	saw	two	books	here	yesterday
You	put	three	letters	there	last week
We	left	a few	keys	on the table	on Sunday
They	foung	some	good ones	in the box	this morning

This table will yield 4 096 perfectly rational sentences.

Systematic Exercises in English Pronunciation. In this book a graded system of exercises in pronunciation is presented.

Standard English Reader contains easy material which gradually becomes more complicated and interesting to read. The material is based on selected vocabulary.

English Through Questions and Answers is attached to these readers.

The books present a gradual transition from simple to complex questions on every text. Later on the books *Graded Exercises in English Composition* are added. These books contain various grammar and vocabulary exercises on each text of the Standard Readers.

Teaching is a long chain of stimuli applied by the teacher and a response chain of students' reactions. In learning a foreign language the students pass through the following stages.

1. Receptive work when the students only assimilate the teacher's speech:

a) *Subconscious comprehension.* The teacher speaks. The students listen to his speech. There is no reaction on the part of the learners. They are plunged into a sea of foreign language sounds. For example, the teacher speaks pointing to objects and moving about the classroom.

This is a book and that is a box. - Look at the book. Look at the box. - I am going to put the book on the table and the box on the chair. - Where's the book now? - It's on the table. - And the box? - It's on the chair. Is the book on the table? - Yes, it is. Is the book on the chair? - No, it isn't. The box is on the chair. - Now look at me; I am going to open the book and to open the box. - There! The book's open and so is the box. Now I am going to open the door.

b) *Conscious comprehension*. The teacher speaks; the pupils are given a definite assignment, for example, "Pay attention to intonation".

c) *Exercises in fulfilment of instructions*. The teacher orders a pupil to do something. The pupil does it silently. In this way he shows that he has understood the teacher's order or request in the English language.

Get up. Sit down. Get up. Come here. Go there. - over there. - to the door. - to the window. - to the blackboard. - to the table. Go back to your place. Sit down.

At first the teacher accompanies his verbal command by gestures. Then he stops the gestures so that the pupil reacts to the verbal signals without visual props.

d) "*Yes" and "No" work*. The teacher asks a question, the students answer "yes", or "no". In this way the students' comprehension is checked.

In all the exercises mentioned above comprehension is ensured by vivid and visual presentation of the material by the teacher, by his demonstration where necessary of the actions required, and by arranging the pupil's activity in using material.

2. Receptive-imitative work. The teacher speaks. The students repeat certain speech units after him (parrot work, as H. Palmer calls it). These may be:

a) exercises in repetition of separate sounds and sound combinations;

b) exercises in repetition of words and sentences;

c) simple substitution tables. The teacher does his' best to create conditions in which the students will not make mistakes in their speech.

3. **Conventional conversation**. The students learn how to ask and answer questions of the following three types: general, alternative and special. For better assimilation of the material, teaching is conducted in consecutive order, i.e., they are taught how to ask questions of one type at a time. Finally, questions are asked at random.

For example: *What can I do if I have'a pen? knife? piece of chalk? etc.*

4. **Normal conversation.** The teacher and the pupils carry on a conversation in the foreign language.

Palmer distinguishes four stages in teaching and learning a foreign language: elementary, intermediate, advanced, and subsequent life, as H. Palmer says: *"Learning a language has a beginning, but no end".* H. Palmer gives much attention to methods of teaching in the first two stages. He says: *"Take care of the initial stage, and the rest will take care of themselves".*

Since, in his opinion, it is necessary to begin by teaching oral langage, he works out most carefully the methods and techniques of teaching this aspect of speech activity.

In contrast to H. Palmer, M. West proposes to begin by teaching to read. In support of such a sequence in foreign language teaching: from reading - reception, to speaking - reproduction,

M. West advances the following arguments:

1. In a country where the child must be bilingual and be brought into easy contact with world culture it is necessary o begin by teaching to read. The essential need of the average bilingual child of a minor language is simply that of Reading ability in one of the major languages to supply the nformational and scientific deficiency of his national literature.

2. Reading is the easiest aspect of the language to acquire, for reading involves no active use of grammar and idioms and the memory of the vocabulary is merely recognition. M. West says it is necessary to begin with reading because *"We need not begin by teaching the child to speak for that would be to teach something easy by means of something more difficult."*

3. In teaching reading it is easier to develop a sense of the language and a feeling of what is idiomatic which would very greatly diminish the child's liability to errors and very greatly accelerate his progress.

4. In learning reading the child will sooner feel his progress in language knowledge and enjoy it. Besides, he can improve his knowledge independently without the teacher's aid.

5. In teaching reading the teacher's qualifications, and his command of the language is of no great importance (as the reading book teaches the child while the teacher is a mere master of ceremonies), nor is the size of the class of significance, as all the pupils can read simultaneously. M. West compiled a series of teaching material for teaching reading: ten readers, supplementary readers, exercise books, and blank companions.

He has developed methods of teaching oral language and compiled special teaching material for the purpose. These are: *Learn to Speak by Speaking, Improve Your English, Easy English Dialogues, Book One and Book Two.* His book *Teaching English in Difficult Circumstances* was translated into Russian.

We greatly appreciate H. Palmer and M. West for their contribution to Methods. These English methodologists have enriched the technology of foreign language teaching:

1. They have raised the problem of careful selection of language material, worked out criteria of selection, and selected the material.

2. They have raised the problem of the necessity for rationalizing teaching materials and worked out systems of foreign language teaching: H. Palmer - speaking, M. West - both reading and speaking,

3. They have compiled series of guide books: H. Palmer for teaching speaking; M. West for teaching reading and speaking.

4. They have introduced a lot of new and effective exercises: H. Palmer for the development of speaking skills, M. West for the development of reading skills and comprehension of a foreign text as well as for the development of speaking.

Contemporary Methods

All the points mentioned above are undergoing further development in contemporary Methods abroad.

There are many methods of language teaching and a considerable amount of controversy as to the best way of foreign languages teaching abroad at present. However it is possible to group them into (1) traditional methods which have their origin in the grammar-translation method, and (2) audio-lingual methods which are considered to be a further development of the direct method line.

The traditional approach to foreign language teaching is characterized by (1) the use of the native language for explanation, retention and checking; (2) the deductive explanation of grammar and the use of grammar exercises; (3) the development of all the language skills, i. e., hearing, speaking, reading, and writing from the beginning of the course. This approach is called *traditional* because it has been prevalent in schools for a long time. The traditional methods, although they are adopting some kinds of innovation in teaching techniques and teaching materials, still retain hose distinguishing characteristics which were mentioned bove. Since these methods are often contrasted with *audio - lingual* methods, and the latter are considered to be contemporary ones, we shall dwell upon the audio- ingual methods more thoroughly.

The main features of the contemporary methods are:

1. The development of audio-lingual skill first, i.e., listening comprehension and speaking, that is why the methods are called audio-lingual. The justification of the priority of spoken language in foreign language learning is found in the observation that a language is first of all a system of sounds used for social communication; writing is secondary derivative system people use for the recording of spoken language. Children normally learn spoken language before they learn written language. Even if the learner's aim is only to read or write the language he can attain a surer mastery of the foreign language if he passes through a substantial stage of work with the spoken language. It is thought that reading and writing might, at least in the beginning, interfere with the development of audio-lingual skills, and that especially the use of writing may lead to spelling pronunciation. The amount of delay between presentation of the spoken and the written material may vary from a short time to a very long time which depends on the aim of teaching, the student's age, the organization of the course, the conditions of instruction, etc.

2. Great care in teaching speaking so that the learner could use the spoken forms as accurately as possible, that is, with native-like sentence patterns and pronunciation. For this purpose the student should have some adequate model of speech - preferably in the person of a native or near-native speaker of the language, or in the form of a faithfully recorded voice of such a speaker. This is now becoming possible because of modern teaching equipment such as radio, television, language laboratories, and teaching machines.

3. The rejection of translation as the main tool of instruction. All the exercises performed by the student are usually within the target language. The use of the student's native language is minimized. It is admitted to supply meaning to the student, although, even in this case the target language supported by whatever props, pictorial materials, or pantomimic gestures, is preferred.

4. Teaching grammar through pattern practice. The gram matical exercises usually take the form of drills in which the student is asked to substitute words for other words, or to make changes in sentences, e. g., from singular to plural, from past to present, from active to passive, following the model. Grammatical descriptions of patterns are taught only after the patterns are well on the way to being mastered at a purely oral level, and then only when it is felt that such descriptions will hasten the learning process or help ensure retention. Pattern practice with varying elements provides drill in the conscious application of structural elements and leads the student to the "automatic" use of the structural patterns. Such an approach to teaching grammar is justified on the basis of theories and observations as to how children learn their mother tongue, and how they use well-practised patterns of their native language.

5. Extensive use of "real-life" communication situations for stimulating the student's language activity. This is done to involve the student in the act of communication in the target language, and in this way to arouse his interest in language learning and increase his motivation. Modern teaching aids and teaching materials make such situations accessible, e. g., a filmstrip with foreign language sound track can represent realistic situations and context and "engage" the student in conversations.

6. The development of reading and writing first using the linguistic material the student has learned orally, and then the material characteristic of written language with the aim of getting information (reading) and sending information (writing).

These features of contemporary methods may be illustrated by *Voix et images de France* and Fries' *American English Series.*

Voix et images de France is a French course which has been worked out by the Research Centre in Saint Cloud in France. The method is known as the Saint Cloud audio-visual method. The situations and speech patterns have been carefully selected. All these are reproduced by native speakers. Students "receive" the material through audio and visual perception, i.e., they see a picture (a series of pictures) on a screen or in the book and listen to the conversation from a tape-recorder. They assimilate the material by memorizing the language and the situations in which this material can be used. The work takes the student through the following stages:

(1) receptive stage: the student listens to the conversation 2-3 times and tries to grasp it;

(2) reproductive stage: the student reproduces the phrases and sentences said by the speakers. Typically the material memorized consists of dialogues that the student can act out. The whole course includes a lot of conversations within a set of everyday situations. Students are taught reading and writing after they have acquired habits and skills in hearing and speaking. The method is popular with foreigners who come to France. The course has been created for adult learners. It is an intensive

course, i.e., students learn a foreign language for 3-6 months 20-25 hours a week; therefore it cannot be utilized in schools.

Fries' *American English Series* is a course of English as a foreign language. The material, carefully selected for easy assimilation, is distributed throughout the six textbooks. Each book is supplied with a guide book for teachers. There are many interesting exercises of a creative character which contrast favourably with H. Palmer's exercises. Palmer's exercises are known to be mechanical and they require "parrot work" on the part of the learner. Here are some of the exercises from Book One and Book Two which pupils can do after they have learned the material orally.

The series method

In the 19th century, Francois Gouin went to Hamburg to learn German. Based on his experience as a Latin teacher, he thought the best way to do this would be memorize a German grammar book and a table of its 248 irregular verbs. However, when he went to the academy to test his new language skills, he was disappointed to find out that he could not understand anything. Trying again, he similarly memorized the 800 root words of the language as well as re-memorizing the grammar and verb forms. However, the results were the same. During this time, he had isolated himself from people around him, so he tried to learn by listening, imitating and conversing with the Germans around him, but found that his carefully-constructed sentences often caused native German speakers to laugh. Again he tried a more classical approach, translation, and even memorizing the entire dictionary but had no better luck.

When he returned home, he found that his three-year-old nephew had learned to speak French. He noticed the boy was very curious and upon his first visit to a mill, he wanted to see everything and be told the name of everything. After digesting the experience silently, he then reenacted his experiences in play, talking about what he learned to whoever would listen or to himself. Gouin decided that language learning was a matter of transforming perceptions into conceptions, using language to represent what one experiences. Language is not an arbitrary set of conventions but a way of thinking and representing the world to oneself. It is not a conditioning process, but one in which the learner actively organizes his perceptions into linguistics concepts

Audio-lingual method

The audio-lingual method was developed around World War II when governments realized that they needed more people who could conduct conversations fluently in a variety of languages, work as interpreters, code-room assistants, and translators. However, since foreign language instruction in that country was heavily focused on reading instruction, no textbooks, other materials or courses existed at the time, so new methods and materials had to be devised. For example, the U.S. Army Specialized Training Program created intensive programs based on the techniques Leonard Bloomfield and other linguists devised for Native American languages, where students interacted intensively with native speakers and a linguist in guided conversations designed to decode its basic grammar and learn the vocabulary. This

"informant method" had great success with its small class sizes and motivated learners.

The U.S. Army Specialized Training Program only lasted a few years, but it gained a lot of attention from the popular press and the academic community. Charles Fries set up the first English Language Institute at the University of Michigan, to train English as second or foreign language teachers. Similar programs were created later at Georgetown University, University of Texas among others based on the methods and techniques used by the military. The developing method had much in common with the British oral approach although the two developed independently. The main difference was the developing audio-lingual methods allegiance to structural linguistics, focusing on grammar and contrastive analysis to find differences between the student's native language and the target language in order to prepare specific materials to address potential problems. These materials strongly emphasized drill as a way to avoid or eliminate these problems.

This first version of the method was originally called the oral method, the aural-oral method or the structural approach. The audio-lingual method truly began to take shape near the end of the 1950s, this time due government pressure resulting from the space race. Courses and techniques were redesigned to add insights from behaviorist psychology to the structural linguistics and constructive analysis already being used. Under this method, students listen to or view recordings of language models acting in situations. Students practice with a variety of drills, and the instructor emphasizes the use of the target language at all times. The idea is that by reinforcing 'correct' behaviors, students will make them into habits.

The typical structure of a chapter employing the Audio-Lingual-Method (ALM - and there was even a text book entitled ALM) was usually standardized as follows:

1. First item was a dialog in the foreign language to be memorized by the student. The teacher would go over it the day before.
2. There were then questions in the foreign language about the dialog to be answered by the student in the target language.
3. Often a brief introduction to the grammar of the chapter was next, including the verb and conjugations.
4. The mainstay of the chapter was "pattern practice", which were drills expecting "automatic" responses from the student as a noun, verb conjugation, or agreeing adjective was to be inserted in the blank in the text (or during the teacher's pause). The teacher could have the student use the book or not use it, relative to how homework was assigned. Depending on time, the class could respond as a chorus, or the teacher could pick individuals to respond. It was really a sort of "mimicry-memorization".
5. There was a vocabulary list, sometimes with translations to the mother tongue.
6. The chapter usually ended with a short reading exercise.

Recommended Literature:

1. Алхазишвили А.А. Основы овладения устной иноязычной речью. - М., 1998.
2. Козлов П.Г. Интегративная роль результата в технологии обучения иностранному языку. // Новые технологии в учебном процессе в вузе. - Алматы, 1995.
3. Концепция развития иноязычного образования Республики Казахстан. - Алматы, 2004 г.
4. Пальмер Г. Устный метод обучения иностранным языкам. М,. 1960, с.5-7.
5. Уэст М. Обучение английскому языку в трудных условиях. М., 1966,с.3-10.
6. Щукин И.Н. Обучение иностранным языкам. М., 2004.

Questions for Discussion:
1. The Gramma-translation method.
   - Mention the main do's of the method
   - Principles of the Gramma-translation method can be applied nowadays. Give reasons to support your statement/
2. The Direct method.
   - Recall the distinguishing features of the method. Compare the grammar-translation with the direct and state the difference.
   - Express your own opinion on the direct method.
3. H. Palmer is the prominent advocate of the direct method. Do you agree with it?
4. Make a servey of the main points in M. West's method and recall the argument he advances to justify them.
5. H. Palmer and M. West have enriched methods of teaching foreign languages. In what way?
6. Make a review of the main features of the contemporary methods. Illustrste your statements with some concrete examples.

Lecture III.   Aims, Content and Principles of Foreign Language Teaching

Aims of Teaching

Aims are the first and most important consideration in any teaching.

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 terms "aims" and "objectives" are clearly distinguished in this work in accordance 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 rea-*

son 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 lessons". In this lecture 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 losing a foreign language; educational - they develop their mental abilities and intelligence in the process of learning the foreign language; cultural - pupils extend thein knowledge of the world in which they live. Therefore there are three aims, at least, which should be achieved in foreign language teaching: **practical, educational, and cultural.**

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 modern society language is used in two ways: *directly or orally*, and *indirectly or in written form*. Thus 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 course 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 a more profound insight into the problem. It is not so much the ability to speak that is meant 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 length of the course, the frequency of the lessons, the size of groups should also be taken into consideration in adopting practical aims. The amount of time for language learning is one of the most decisive factors in mastering and maintaining language proficiency since learners need practice. The more time is available for pupils' practice in the target language, the better results can be achieved. Moreover, for the formation of speech habits frequency of lessons is a more essential condition than the length of the course. It is not necessary to prove (it has already been proved) that intensive courses are more effective than extensive ones, for example, six periods a week for three years are more effective for language learning than three periods a

week for six years. In our secondary schools, however, we cannot afford an intensive course because school curriculum includes a lot of essential subjects and the foreign language is one of many which should be taught.

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.

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

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 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 pupil understands 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 pupil's intellect. Teaching a foreign language helps the teacher 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-term memory ready to be used whenever he needs them in auding, 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 behaviour 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.

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 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 others can only be achieved through the practical command of the foreign language.

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.

The first component of "what to teach" is habits and skills which pupils should acquire while learning a foreign language. According to the aims of learning this subject they are: *hearing (listening comprehension), speaking, reading, and writing*. The level of habits and skills is determined by the syllabus for each form. However, quantitative and qualitative characteristics of skills, or the so-called terminal behaviour, is not defined yet for different types of schools and stages of instruction. This is one of the problems for methodologists to investigate and solve. Nevertheless, some attempts have been made in this respect. Thus in school syllabi we can find some directions as to the level of skills that should be reached in each particular form and their development from form to form.

The second component of "what to teach" is language (textual) material, arranged in topics and serving as starting points for the development of oral language and written language, which allows the teacher to reach the practical, educational, and cultural aims set by the syllabus.

The third component of the content of foreign language teaching is linguistic material, i.e., phonology, grammar, and vocabulary carefully selected for the purpose. The selection of linguistic material, the compiling of the so-called minima, for instance, minimum vocabulary and minimum grammar, has always been one of the most important and difficult problems to be solved and, although a great deal of work has been done in this respect, we are still on the way to its solution. A limited body of linguistic material is required by pupils who have about 600 class hours at their disposal spread over six years (extensive course), and at the same time it must be large enough to serve as a sound basis for developing pupils' language skills.

To sum up what has been said above, the content of foreign language teaching involves:

- language skills: hearing, speaking, reading, and writing;
- language (textual) material;
- linguistic material; vocabulary; grammar, phonological minima.

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

Principles of Forign Language Teaching

Methods of foreign language teaching are based on the fundamental principles of didactics; among them, a conscious approach to language learning, activity, visualization, and others. However, in foreign language teaching, due to the specific

features of the subject in which means and ends are equally essential, these principles are used in a particular way.

There are three principal views at this level:

The structural view treats language as a system of structurally related elements to code meaning (e.g. grammar).

The functional view sees language as a vehicle to express or accomplish a certain function, such as requesting something.

The interactive view sees language as a vehicle for the creation and maintenance of social relations, focusing on patterns of moves, acts, negotiation and interaction found in conversational exchanges. This view has been fairly dominant since the 1980s.

The principle of conscious approach to language learning implies comprehension of a linguistic phenomenon of language material by the pupil usually through the medium of the native language, or the arrangement of the material in sentence patterns graded in difficulties with the emphasis on some elements which are singled out as "teaching points". In all cases 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. A great deal of research work has been carried out in Soviet psychology and Methods, and it has been proved that conscious approach to learning a foreign language promotes the acquisition of the subject. V. A. Artemov, a prominent psychologist, puts forward a theory of the unity of the language rule and the speech activity (language behaviour) in foreign language teaching.

In teaching a foreign language therefore, it is more reasonable to help pupils in assimilating language rules which function in this language by introducing the rules, rather than to wait until the learners deduce these rules through speech activity. V. A. Artemov warns the teacher against putting this hard work on the learner's shoulders.

Preceding from this consideration it becomes obvious that in learning a foreign language the pupil should acquire the rules of the language to be able to follow these rules in the act of communication; and the teacher's task is to help the pupil in this respect. From the definition given by the author it is clear that he does not mean "rules" in their traditional interpretation, but in the form of algorithms that can direct the pupil's learning and lead him along the shortest way to the desired end.

A conscious approach to foreign language teaching implies the use of the learner's native language. Methods has devoted much attention to the problem of the mother tongue in teaching and learning a foreign language. If a man knows only his native language his concepts are directly associated with the expression of these concepts in this tongue. The associations which arise, extremely complicated in nature, are very lasting due to systematic speech practice. The aquisition of a foreign language means the transition to thinking in a second language. For this purpose, it is necessary to acquire the ability to establish direct associations between concepts and their means of expression in the second language. Indeed, 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 - the native language - fades, and foreign language words come into the pupil's consciousness directly in connection with the concepts they express. Mastery of the language means formulating one's thoughts within the foreign language.

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. For instance, in teaching the English alphabet the teacher need not drill pupils in writing such letters as *a, c, e* and some others which our pupils can write because the alphabet includes these letters. In teaching reading and pronunciation, the pupils easily cope with sound-and-letter analysis of words, as they are acquainted with that kind of work from learning the mother tongue. Studies of transfer show, however, that such a psychological phenomenon as transfer is not automatic. Pupils should be taught to transfer. Bright pupils transfer learning more rapidly than-slow pupils. Transfer is increased when the situation to which transfer is made is similar to the original learning. A proper utilization of transfer can undoubtedly increase the effectiveness of learning.

The pupil's mother tongue often interferes with the target language, i.e., the formation of new habits is 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 correct speech, from grammar yiewpoint, lead to constant mistakes in the foreign language as the pupils try to transfer the structure of one language to that of the other.

Consequently, from the analysis of the didactic principle of the conscious approach to foreign language teaching, we may formulate a specific methodological principle which reads as follows:

In teaching a foreign language it is necessary to cope with the mother tongue of pupils.

This means that teaching a foreign language, for example, English to Russian, Kazakh-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, Russian-speaking pupils and Arabic-speaking pupils have different troubles in learning English. The teacher either helps pupils to make a transfer, for instance, from native language into English (little explanation, if any, and few exercises are needed in this case), or he gives pupils the necessary explanation and supplies them with exercises, which pupils perform within the target language, without stressing the difference by translation exercises; the latter work rather at comprehension than at forming new habits and skills.

In connection with the analysis of the principle of conscious teaching, it is necessary to dwell upon the forming of habits and skills in a foreign language. All

language habits and skills are extremely complex in their nature and are closely connected with conscious activity of students.

Consequently, a habit may be considered to be a dialectical unity of automatism and consciousness. The psychological basis of habits is conscious associations, their physiological basis is temporary nerve connections, conditioned reflexes, arising as a result of reciprocal actions of first and second signalling system.

The principle of activity in foreign language teaching is of utmost importance since learning a foreign language should result in mastering the target language which is possible provided the pupil is an active participant in the process, he is involved in language activities throughout the whole course of instruction.

In modern psychology activity is now generally considered to be a main characteristic of cognitive processes. Activity arises under certain conditions. According to the Sets Theory the learner should feel a need to learn the subject, and have necessary prerequisites created for the satisfaction of this need. The main sources of activity are motivation, desire, and interest.

Young people in our country 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 send their children to specialized schools, etc.

Practice and special observations prove that pupils' interest depends on their progress in language learning. If pupils make good progress in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing, they become interested in learning the foreign language.

However not all children can realize the necessity for learning a foreign language. The teacher's task is to show them how important a foreign language is to every educated person, how people can get new information from various fields of human activity through foreign languages. Besides, the teacher should promote his pupils' interest in studying the language and stimulate their desire to learn.

A decisive condition of stimulating interest in language learning is the pupils' understanding of its specific content, that is, they acquire a second language to be able to use it as a means of communication. For this purpose, from the very first step, the learners should see this; they should perform exercises of natural communicative chararter.

> **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.**

Methodologists and teachers are searching for ways to solve this problem. Some ways may be recommended. They are as follows:
- work in unison, when pupils are told to pronounce a sound, a word, a phrase, a sentence, or to read something out loud in chorus in imitation of the teacher, or a speaker if a a tape-recorder is used;

- mass work, when pupils are invited to listen to a text, to read a text silently, to do some exercises in written form, in other words, when they learn for themselves, and each does the same work as his classmates;
- work in small groups when pupils are divided into four- five groups, and each group receives a special assignment either for reading or speaking; the work results in conversation between group 1 and the class, group 2 and the class, etc.;
- work in pairs, when pupils sitting at the same desk have an opportunity to "talk" in the target language: reciting a dialogue they are to learn, doing an ask-and-answer exercise or making up a dialogue of their own;
- individual work in programmed instruction, when each pupil can work with the programme he receives either through visual or auditory perception at his own pace.

The principle of visualization has always been very important for language learning since the gaining of knowledge begins either with sense perception or with what has been formerly perceived, that is, with previous experience. Visualization, as it is understood here, may be defined as specially organized demonstration of linguistic material and language behaviour characteristic of the target language with the purpose of helping the pupil in understanding, assimilating, and utilizing this in connection with the task set. Since pupils acquire a second language in artificial conditions and not in real life, as is the case when children assimilate their mother tongue, visualization should be extensively used in foreign language teaching. Through visual presentation of the material and the pupils' observation of language behaviour of native speakers they acquire the necessary habits and skills in spoken language, namely, in intonation, word usage, and grammar. Visualization allows the teacher to create natural conditions for pupils' oral practice and "free conversation". Visualization can be utilized in teaching various aspects of the language: phonology, vocabulary, and grammar, and in developing different language skills: hearing, speaking, reading, and writing.

Visualization implies an extensive use of audio-visual aids and audio-visual materials throughout the whole course of foreign language teaching for presentation and retention of the linguistic material, and for developing oral and written language, although they are to be used differently depending on the stage of instruction, the age of pupils, their progress in the target language, and other factors.

The extensive use of audio-visual aids and audio-visual materials the teacher of a foreign language has at his disposal nowadays, together with the use of carefully selected and graded linguistic material, create favourable conditions for teaching pupils to understand the foreign language when it is spoken and to speak it themselves. This is the first step when dealing with beginners. Hence the methodological principle may be formulated as follows:

> **In teaching a foreign language at schools it is necessary to follow the oral approach as it is the one that allows the pupil to deal with the language in its primary function — as a means of communication.**

The foreign language syllabus is the main document which lays down the aims and the content of teaching foreign languages in schools. A school, like any other educational institution, has a curriculum which states the subjects to be studied, the number of hours (periods) allotted to the study of each subject, the sequence in which the subjects are introduced.

We have different types of schools which differ in curricula. The main three are the 11-year school, the specialized school or the school with a number of subjects taught in the foreign language.

In the 11-year school the foreign language is taught for eight years. Pupils begin to study it in the 4th form and finish in the 11th form. The number of hours allotted to the study of the subject is 560 of the essential course and, in addition, about 200 of the optional course in the senior stage (see the syllabus).

In-the specialized school pupils learn a foreign language for ten years beginning in the 2nd form and completing the course in the 11th form. The total number of hours allotted to a foreign language is 1500 (see the syllabus).

Consequently, in the curriculum one can find where (in what forms) a foreign language is studied, how many periods a week and the total number of hours that are allotted to its study. The aims and the content of the teaching as well as the method of instruction are stated by the syllabus.

The syllabus, therefore, is a state document which lays down the aims of teaching, the extent of the knowledge, habits and skills pupils must acquire, the sequence of topics which constitute the academic content of the subject. The syllabus is an essential document for every teacher, and he is responsible for the fulfilment of its requirements. The teacher cannot make alterations in the syllabus. The syllabus is uniform for all the teachers working in schools of the given type.

The syllabus includes: *a) the explanatory note.* Here the teacher will find the aims of foreign language teaching in school. He will also find some suggestions as to the approach to teaching oral language, reading, and writing, vocabulary, and grammar. Besides, in the explanatory note he will find some indications about pupils' independent work, homework, i.e., what a home task must consist of and how much time it should take to be done; how to keep a record of pupils' progress in a foreign language and, finally, how to carry on extra-curric- ular work in a foreign language at school. *b) the syllabus itself.* The teacher will find the requirements for the command of knowledge in English (German, French), i.e., pupils' habits and skills in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing; topics for every form (4, 5, etc.) for speaking and reading, the amount of class periods for every form.

For example: The 4th form.

The requirements for the command of knowledge.

Speaking and hearing. The pupil must be able:

- to ask questions and to answer questions on a given topic, on the contents of a text read, and on pictures;
- to make up a story on a picture;
- to speak about a topic suggested;
- to understand when the teacher speaks about the topics already covered, and the classroom expressions (in the English language) the teacher uses while conducting a lesson;
- to recite rhymes and easy poems.

Reading: The pupil must be able:
- to read aloud correctly and understand both familiar and new texts based upon the language material already assimilated;
- to divide the text he has read into sense units; to find the answers to the questions in the text.

Writing. The pupil must be able:
- to write questions and answers (within the language material and topic already covered);
- to write dictations (within the material assimilated).

Approximate topics for speaking and reading:
1. School. Coming to school. The description of a classroom. School things. At the foreign language lesson. To be on duty. Going home from school. After classes.
2. At home. A room. My house. My family. Playing in the yard.
3. A town and a village. The description of a street.
4. Physical culture and sports. Winter and summer sports.

The requirements concerning pupils' knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, phonology, rules of reading and spelling.

In the syllabus, therefore, the teacher will find all the instructions concerning the knowledge he must impart to his pupils, the habits and skills he must develop, etc.

The textbook for every form should correspond to the syllabus. When the programme requirements are changed, textbooks should undergo all necessary changes as well.

Recommended Literature:
1. Программа средней школы. Иностранные языки. М., «Просвещение», 2000г
2. Anitchov I., Saakyants V. Methods of Teaching Engllish in Secondary Schools. М.-Л., «Просвещение», 1999г
3. Беляев Б.В. Психологический анализ новейших методических принципов обучения иностранным языкам. – ИЯШ, 2001, №3
4. Гез Н.И., Ляховицкий М.В. и др. Методика преподавания ИЯ в средней школе. М., 1982 г.
5. Леонтьев А.А. Мышление на инотсранном языке как психологическая и методическая проблема. – ИЯШ, 1992, №1
6. Рогова Г.В. Методика преподавания ИЯ в СШ. М., 1991г.
7. Маслыко Е.А. Настольная книга преподавателя ИЯ. Минск, 1999г.

Questions for Discussion:
1. Compare the syllabi for different types of schools as to what they have in common and in what they differ.
2. There are three main aims in teaching a foreign language in schools. Name them and say whether you consider them justifiable. Support your statement.
3. What is the content of teaching? Do authors whose works you have read interpret it adequately? Give some examples.
4. Compare several approaches to the fundamental principles foreign language teaching should be based upon and name the specific principles which, you think, must be observed in teaching this subject in schools.
5. Are aims, content and principles interrelated? If so, show this interrelation.

Lecture **IV.** *Teaching Aids and Teaching Materials*

To master a foreign language, pupils must be engaged in activities which are characteristic of the language; they should hear the language spoken, speak, read, and write it. Classroom practices which are restricted to teacher's presentation of linguistic material (vocabulary, grammar) and the testing of pupils' knowledge cannot provide good learning. The teacher covers "content" but does not instruct pupils. The majority of pupils remain passive, and work only to memorize what the teacher emphasizes. We cannot but agree with the following words: "... most of the changes we have come to think of as "classroom learning" typically may not occur in the presence of a teacher. Perhaps it is during seatwork and homework sessions and other forms of solitary study that the major forms of any learning are laid down". Nor can the teacher ensure pupils learning a foreign language if he uses only a textbook, a piece of chalk, and a blackboard.

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 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 in contemporary schools may be grouped into *(1) non-mechanical aids and (2) mechanical aids.*

Non-mechanical aids are: a blackboard, the oldest aid in the 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;

a flannelboard (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 flannelboard made in a workshop or buy one in a specialized shop; the use of a flannelboard with cut-outs prepared by the teacher or pupils leads to active participation in the use of the target language, as each pupil makes his contribution to working out "a scene" on the flannelboard;

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 flannelboard;

a lantern (диаподитив) which is used for throwing pictures onto a screen.

Mechanical aids are:

tape recorders (ordinary and twin-track); the same tape may be played back as many times as is necessary, the twintrack tape recorder allows the pupil to play back the tape listening to the speaker's voice and recording his own on the second track, the lower one, without erasing the first track with the voice of the speaker, the tape recorder is considered to be the most important aid in teaching and learning a foreign language;

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 as they are designed to be used with the long-playing records which accompany them;

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;

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 transmissions;

teaching machines which can be utilized for presenting 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 feedback from his response; thus, favourable 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 private or semi-private stalls or booths. They are connected with a network of audio wiring, the nerve centre of which is the

monitoring console which has a switch board and tapedecks, making it 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 a two-way conversation with any pupil.

There are two main types of language laboratories - library and broadcast systems. The library system is suitable for students capable of independent study; each student selects his own material and uses it as he wishes. The broadcast system is suitable for classwork when the same material is presented at the same time to a whole group of students, and a class works together under a teacher's direction.

The language laboratory is used for listening and speaking. The pupil's participation may be imitation or response to cues according to a model. The language laboratory is used for "structural drills" which usually involve rephrasing sentences according to a model, or effecting substitutions.

In teaching foreign languages in our secondary schools most of the teaching aids are available. Each school should be equipped with a filmstrip projector, a film projector, an opaque projector, a tape recorder and a phonograph. Specialized schools, where English is taught eleven years, should have language laboratories.

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. Since pupils learn a foreign language for several years, it is necessary for the teacher to have a wide variety of materials which make it possible to progress with an increasing sophistication to match the pupils' continually growing command of the foreign language. Good teaching materials will help greatly to reinforce the pupils' initial desire to learn the language and to sustain their enthusiasm throughout the course.

The following teaching materials are in use nowadays: teacher's books, pupil's books, visual materials, audio materials, and audio-visual materials.

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

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

Textbooks. The textbook is one of the most important sources for obtaining knowledge. It contains the material 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 fundamental of the target language.
2. They should ensure pupils' activity in speaking, reading, and writing, i. e.; they must correspond to the aims of foreign language teaching in school.
3. The textbooks must extend pupils' educational horizon, i.e., the material of the textbooks should be of educational value.
4. The textbooks must arouse pupils' interest and excite their curiosity.
5. They should have illustrations to help pupils in comprehension and in speaking.
6. The textbooks must reflect the life and culture of the people whose language pupils study.

Each textbook consists of lessons or units, the amount of the material being determined by the stage of instruction, and the material itself.

The lessons may be of different structure. In all cases, however, they should assist pupils in making progress in speaking, reading, and writing.

The textbook should have a table of contents in which the material is given according to the school terms.

At the end of the book there should be two word-lists: English-Russian and Russian-English, which include the words of the previous year and the new words with the index of the lesson where they first occur.

Every textbook for iearning a foreign language should contain exercises and texts. Exercises of the textbook may be subdivided: (1) according (to the activity they require on the part of the learners (drill and speech); (2) according to the place they are performed at (class exercises and home exercises); (3) according to the form (whether they are oral or written).

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

- Learning by small easy steps. Every step or frame calls for a written or an oral response which requires both attention and thought.
- 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 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".
- Progression at the learning rate of each individual pupil. Each pupil can work at his own pace.

Programmed learning creates a new individualized relationship between the learner and his task. He learns for himself and the programme teaches him. Programming is concerned with effective teaching since it is aimed, as carefully as possible, at a particular group of pupils and leads them through a number of steps towards mastering a carefully thought-out and circumscribed teaching point. Programming allows the teacher to improve the effectiveness of teaching by constructing materials which will guide the pupil through a series of steps towards the

mastery of a learning problem. These steps should be of appropriate size and require the pupil's active cooperation; he may be asked to answer a question, to fill in a blank, to read, etc. It is very important to grade progress of steps throughout the programme so carefully that each pupil gets every step right.

Media of programmed instruction are programmed lessons or textbooks and teaching machines.

There are at least two types of programmes: linear and branching. In a linear programme the information fs followed by a practice problem which usually requires the completion of a given sentence. The pupil can compare his answer with the one given in the clue on the right one frame below. All pupils should progress from frame to frame through the programme.

Part Two TEACHING VARIOUS ASPECTS OF THE LANGUAGE AND FORMING SKILLS
Lecture V. *Teachin* Pronunciation

The importance of correct pronunciation in language learning
The first impact of any, language comes from the spoken word. The basis of all languages is sonnd. Words are merely combinations of sounds. It is in these sound sequences that the ideas are contained. Listening is the first experience; the attempt to understand accompanies it. The acquisition of good pronunciation depends to a great extent on the learner's ability of listening with care and discrimination. One of the tasks of language teaching consists in devising ways to help the learner "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.

The difficulties in English pronunciation usually experienced by pupils.
Any language has its specific phonic system. This is true for English as well. The sounds of English are not the same as the sounds of Russian or Kazakh, though there are, of course, some sounds which occur both in English and in native language.

There are many difficult sounds in English for pupils, [w], [ð], [θ], [r], [ə:], [ou], [ɛa] for example. To pupils the combination of sounds [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 native language.

The .sounds of English may be arranged in three groups: vowels, double vowels or diphthongs, and consonants. There are twelve vowel sounds in English: [i], [e], [æ], [o], [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:], [a:], etc. For instance, the vowels of [bit] *bit,* [let] *let,* [fut] *foot* are shorter than those of [bid] *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 [i], [e], [æ], [o], [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.

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 our pupils because they do not appear in their native language: [ou], [ɛa], [iə], [oə], [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 our pupils: [æ] which is often confused with [e]; [a:] which is substituted by Russian [a]; [ə:] which is replaced by [o:].

English consonants also present some trouble to 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 weak-riess 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 [l] in *gulp* is shorter than that in *bulb.* The teacher of English should know this to be able to help his pupils in pronouncing words as close to the pattern as possible.

The pronunciation of words is not only a matter of sounds, but also of stress or accent. Some words have the heavier stress on the first part of the word: *sorry, evening, morning, answer*, and other words have the heavier stress on the second part: *begin, mistake, about, reduce, result, occur, effect.* Stress is very important to the assimilation of English pronunciation. Foreigners often find it difficult to

understand an Englishman's speech and ask him to speak more slowly, because in quick speech the accented syllables are so strong that they almost drown the others.

The pronunciation of sentence patterns includes also variations of musical tones: *rise and fall*. English tone patterns differ from those of native language that is why pupils find it difficult to use adequate tone patterns in conversation or while reading aloud. Sometimes people speaking English use wrong intonation because of the interference of the mother tongue. That often leads to misunderstanding and impoliteness. For example, *'Will you 'wait for me `here?* (Подождите меня здесь.) is not only a wrong tone-pattern, but is impolite in its form.

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

The content of teaching pronunciation

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 sets out, pupils must assimilate:

1. The sounds of the English language, its vowels and consonants. They should be able to articulate these sounds both separately and in different phonetic contexts.
2. Some peculiarities of the English language in comparison with those of the native language, such as: English vowels differ in quality and in length, whereas, in the native language the length of vowels is of no importance; there are no palatal consonants, and if some consonants may be pronounced slightly palatalized, this does not change the meaning of the word. For instance, we may pronounce the word *like* with dark [1] and light [1], i. e., slightly palatalized, the meaning of the word remains the same. In the Russian language there are palatalized and nonpalatalized consonants and palatalization changes the meaning of the word: e. g., *был – быль; кон – конь; банка – банька.*
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:

- the problem of discrimination; i. e., hearing the differences between phonemes which are not distinguished or used in the native language and between falling, rising, and level tones;
- the problem of articulation, i. e., learning to make the motor movements adequate to proper production of English sounds;
- the problem of intonation, i. e., learning to make right stresses, pauses and use appropriate patterns;
- 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;*
- the problem of automaticy, i. e., making correct production so habitual that it does not need to be attended to in the process of speaking.

Consequently, discrimination, articulation, intonation, integration, automaticy 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 sounds of native language, 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. 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, e.g.: E. [t] - R. [T]; E. [n] - R. [H]; E. [h] - R. [X].

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

1. By showing the objects which the contrasting words represent. For example, *ship - sheep*. The teacher makes quick simple drawings of a ship and a sheep on the blackboard or shows pictures of these objects.

2. By showing actions. For example, *He is riding. - He is writing*. Situational pictures may be helpful if the teacher cannot make a sketch on the blackboard.

3. By using sound symbols [æ] - [e]; [ð] - [θ]. Phonetic symbols do not teach the foreign sounds. They emphasize the difference in sounds and in this respect they are a valuable help. To teach pupils how to pronounce a new language correctly in a conscious way means to ensure that the pupil learns to put his organs of speech into definite positions required for the production of the speech sounds of this language.

A person learning a foreign language unconsciously continues to use his muscles in the old ways and substitutes the phonemes and the intonation of his native tongue, e. g., he pronounces *zis* instead of *this*, or *veal* instead of *wheel*; *Do 'you 'speak 'English?* instead of '*Do you 'speak ͜English?* He does not even notice his mistake.

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

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

Therefore pupils merely imitate the teacher. It should be said that the correct pronunciation of some vowels often depends on the correct pronunciation of consonants.

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

Since imitation can and must take place in foreign language teaching, the teacher's pronunciation should set the standard for the class, and the use of native speakers whose voices are recorded on records or tapes is quite indispensable.

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

The following procedure in teaching pronunciation should be observed:

Pupils hear a sentence, then they hear a word or words in which a new sound or new sounds occur and, finally, they hear a sound and the teacher's explanation of how to produce it.

E. g. *My name is ...*
     name
     [n]

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.

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

a) by listening to the teacher pronouncing a sound, a sound combination and sensible sound sequences, 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);

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

The following techniques may be recommended to check pupils' ability to discriminate sounds, stress and melody.

The teacher pronounces a number of English words and asks his pupils to recognize the new sound. For example, the new sound is [æ]. The teacher pronounces the words: *a desk, a nest, a pen, a pan, a bed, bad.* When a pupil hears the new sound he raises his hand and in this way the teacher sees whether the pupil can recognize the new sound among other sounds already learned or not. If most of the pupils raise their hands, the teacher can offer exercises for the pupils to perform. Or the teacher asks the pupils to say whether there is any difference in the words he pronounces, and he pronounces [ju:z] - [ju:s]. If pupils are familiar with the meaning of both words the teacher can ask them which one is a verb. He pronounces the words again and pupils raise their hands when they hear [ju:z]. If most of the pupils raise their hands it shows they can discriminate sound sequences and know the word. One more example: the

teacher pronounces a pair of words [lɪv] - [lɪːv] (pupils are familiar with the words) and asks a pupil to say which is used in where-questions and which one in when-questions. If the child says he will use [liv] in where-questions and [li:v] in when-questions it shows that he can recognize the words.

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

The teacher pronounces English phrases with a rising or falling tone and asks pupils to raise their hands when they hear a falling tone, e. g., on the ⌄table - on the `table; with my `friend - with my ⌄friend.

If pupils raise their hands in the right place then it shows that they can hear fall and rise in the voice, therefore, they can recognize the melody.

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

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

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

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

If pupils mispronounce words with [ə:], the following words and sentences could be suggested for pronunciation drill: *first, girl, word, work, worker, birthday, Thursday, thirteen, thirteenth. My birthday is on Thursday, the thirteenth of May.*

Pupils are taught how to pronounce [æ] using the following sentence: *A fat black cat sat on a mat.*

To teach pupils the correct pronunciation of [w] the following rhyme can be used:

Why do you cry, Willy? Why do you cry, Willy?

Why Willy? Why Willy? Why Willy? Why?

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

The material pupils get for reproduction can be presented in two possible ways:
- through auditory perception only;
- through auditory perception reinforced by visual perception of a sound, a word, a phrase, a sentence, and a text.

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

As to how mistakes must be corrected the following may be suggested:
- the teacher explains to the pupil his mistake and asks him to pronounce the sound, the word, or the sentence again, paying attention to the proper position of the organs of speech for producing the sound, for example, [θ] (he should bite the tongue between the teeth and blow air out at the same time), orthe word '*development'* with thestress on the second syllable, or the sentence with the rising tone;
- the teacher corrects the mistake by pronouncing the sound, the word, the phrase, or the sentence in which the mistake has been made and the pupil imitates the teacher's pronunciation;
- the teacher asks the pupil to listen to the tape-recording or the record again and pronounce the word or the sentence in the way the speaker does it; thus through comparison the pupil should find the mistake and correct it.

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

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

Recommended Literature:

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5. Поспелова Н.В. Лингвокультурологический подход к изучению иностранных языков (на материале детских стишков и клерихью). //ИЯШ, №1, 2005.

6. Кондратьева Т.В. О работе над интонацией французского языка. ИЯШ, №4, 1990г.

Questions for Discussion:

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

1. What is meant by correct pronunciation?
2. What does a teacher need for teaching pupils pronunciation successfully?
3. Why is pupils' pronunciation far from being satisfactory?
4. What should a teacher do to improve pupils' pronunciation?

Activities:

1. Prepare pronunciation drill for one of the lessons for junior, intermediate, and senior stage to show the difference in material and in techniques of conducting the drill.
2. Examine one of the lessons of a Pupil's Book and a Teacher's Book and show how pupils are taught to pronounce correctly.

Lecture VI.   TEACHING VOCABULARY

The Importance of Teaching Vocabulary

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

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

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

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

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

The other principles are of didactic value, they serve teaching aims.

The words selected may be grouped under the following two classes (M. West):

1. Words that we talk with or *form (structural)* words which make up the form (structure) of the language.
2. 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 phraseological units the syllabus sets for a pupil to assimilate is 1,200. They are distributed in the following way: 800 words in the nine-year school, the rest in the eleven-year school. The textbooks now in use contain more word units than the syllabi set.

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 studyguides 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 sdlved.

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

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

Difficulties Pupils Experience in Assimilating Vocabulary.

Learning the words of a foreign language is not an easy business since every word has its form, meaning, and usage and each of these aspects of the word may

have its difficulties. Indeed, some words are difficult in form (*daughter, busy, bury, woman, women*) and easy in usage; other words are easy in form (*enter, get, happen*) and difficult in usage. Consequently, words may be classified according to the difficulties pupils find in assimilation. In methodology some attempts have been made to approach the problem.

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

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

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

Psychological and Linguistic Factors which Determine the Process of Teaching Vocabulary.

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

You have relatives, haven't you? - Yes, a grandmother.

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

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.

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

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

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

For instance: *see - sea; too - two; one – won (*in pronunciation); *answer - reply; answer - ask; small - little* (in meaning); *bought - brought; caught - taught; night - right* (in spelling); *to fight somebody -* бороться потив кого-либо; *to doubt*

something – сомневаться в чем-либо; to mention something - упоминать о чем-либо (similar word combination).

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

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

• 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.

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

How to Teach Vocabulary in School

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

The techniques of teaching pupils the pronunciation and spelling of a word are as follows: (1) pure or conscious imitation; (2) analogy; (3) transcription; (4) rules of reading.

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

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

If the teacher wants his pupils to learn, the word during the same lesson not only for hearing and speaking but for reading and writing as well, he shows them how to write and read it after they perform oral exercises and can recognize and pronounce the word. The teacher writes down the word on the blackboard (let it be *spoon*) and invites some pupils to read it (they already know all the letters and the rule of reading *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 methods of conveying the meaning of words: *direct method and translation.* The direct method of presenting the words of a foreign language brings the learner into direct contact with them, the mother tongue does not come in between, it establishes links between a foreign word and the thing or the concept directly. The direct method of conveying the meaning of foreign words is usually used when the words denote things, objects, their qualities, sometimes gestures and movements, which can be shown to and seen by pupils, for example: *a book, a table, red, big, take, stand, up,* etc. The teacher should connect the English word he presents with the object, the notion it denotes directly, without the use of pupils' mother tongue.

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

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

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

The second group of techniques involves the utilization of verbal means for conveying the meaning of unfamiliar words. These may be: context, synonyms, antonyms, definitions, word-building elements, etc. The context may serve as a key to convey the meaning of a new word.

Teacher: *It was hot. We had nothing to drink. We were thirsty. Do people need water or bread when they are thirsty?*

Pupil 1: *They need water.*

T: *What do people need when they are thirsty?*

P2:   *They need water (or something to drink).*

T: *It was hot. We had nothing to drink. We were thirsty. Were we thirsty?*

P3: *Yes, you were.*

T: *Were we thirsty or hungry? (*The pupils are familiar with the word hungry.)

P4: *You were thirsty.*

T: *Why were we thirsty?*

P5: *You were thirsty because it was hot.*

T: *Are you thirsty, Pete?*

Pete: *No, I am not.*

T: *Who is thirsty?*

Ann: *I am.*

T: *What did she say, Mike?*

Mike: *She said she was thirsty.*

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

The teacher may use a definition.

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

Pupil 1: No, he can't.

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

Pupil 2: He can't see.

Teacher: He can't see because he is blind. Why can't he see?

Pupil 3: Because he is blind.

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

Now some examples of the use of the word-building, elements for conveying the meaning of words.

Teacher: You know the words: worker, teacher ...
Now guess the meaning of the word writer. Write — writer. Name a
writer you like, children.

Pupil 1: Tolstoy.

Pupil 2: Chekhov.

Pupil 3: Gorky.

Teacher: That's right.
Is Sholokhov a writer?

Pupil 4: Yes, he is.

Teacher: Is Repin a writer?

Pupil 5: No, he is not.

Teacher: Is Kataev a writer or a teacher?

Pupil 6: He is a writer.

The pupils are familiar with the word *teacher*. The new word is *teach*.

The teacher asks the pupils to form a verb by dropping the ending *-er;* this work may be done on the blackboard.

teacher - teach

T: Who teaches you English?

P1: You do.

T: Who teaches you geography?

 P2: Saule Ospanovna does.

Tr: Does S.O. teach you English or Grography?

 P3: She teaches us Grography.

The teacher may also use synonyms to convey the meaning of a new word. For example, the word *town* may be presented through the familiar word *city*; *receive - get; reply - answer, etc,*

The pupils' answers to the teacher's questions testify to their comprehension of the word. So there is no need to turn to the pupils' mother tongue.

It is difficult to cover all the techniques the teacher may have at his disposal to convey the meaning of new words directly without the help of the mother tongue. There are teachers, however, who do not admit that pupils can understand what a new word means without translating it into the native tongue, and though they use some techniques of the direct method for conveying the meaning of new words, they immediately ask their pupils to say *what is the Russian for...?* Here are a few examples. Teacher N. presented the word *ball* in the forth form. She had brought a ball. She showed the ball to the pupils and said: *This is a ball ... a ball. The ball is red and blue. What is the Russian for 'a ball', children? Who can guess?* Of course everyone could. They cried: *мячик*. What is the use of bringing the ball if the teacher turns to the mother tongue? So instead of developing pupils' abilities and skills in establishing associations between the English word and the object it denotes, she emphasized the necessity for the use of the mother tongue in learning the word. Then she presented the word *football*. She used a picture in which some boys were playing football. She said: *Look at the picture, children. You can see some boys in the picture. They are playing football. What is the Russian for 'football'? Who can guess?* The pupils were not enthusiastic to answer this question because they probably found it silly. (It does not mean, of course, that the teacher cannot turn to the mother tongue to check pupils' comprehension when he uses the direct method of conveying the meaning of some difficult words not like those mentioned above - when he is not sure that everyone has understood them properly.) Consequently, the direct method works well provided that the teacher is good at applying visual aids and using verbal means when he explains new words to the pupils. Moreover, he must do it vividly to arouse his pupils' interest in the work performed, and thus to provide optimum conditions for understanding the meaning of the words and their assimilation through the foreign language. Besides various accessories (objects, pictures, movements, gestures, facial expressions, etc.) should be widely used. If the teacher cannot work with visual aids and is not an actor to a certain extent (after all, every teacher ought to be something of an actor), it is he, but not the method, who fails in conveying the meaning of new words.

The use of the direct method, however, is restricted. Whenever the teacher is to present words denoting abstract notions he must resort to the mother tongue, i. e., to translation.

The translation method may be applied in its two variants:

1. Common (proper) translation:

 to sleep - спать

 flower - цветок

 joy - радость

2. Translation - interpretation:

to go - хать, идти, лететь (движеие от говорящего)

to come - хать, идти, лететь (движение к говорящему)

to drive - вести (что?) машину, поезд, автобус, трамвай

 education - воспитание, образование

 afternoon - время с 12ч. дня до 6ч. вечера

 in the afternoon - днём

The translation method is efficient for presenting new words: it is economical from the point of view of time; it ensures the exact comprehension of the meaning of the words presented. As far as the stages of instruction are concerned, the methods of conveying the meaning of unfamiliar words should be used as follows:

- visual presentation prevails in junior forms;

- verbal means prevail in intermediate and senior forms;

- translation in all the forms, especially in senior forms.

From psychology it is known that the process of perception is a complicated one; it includes various sensations and, at the same time, is closely connected with thinking and speech, with pupils' attention, their will, memory, and emotions. The more active the pupils are during the explanation of new words the better the results that can be achieved.

The choice of methods and techniques is a very important factor as it influences pupils' assimilation of words.

And, finally, pupils are recommended to get to know new words independently; they look them up in the word list or the dictionary. The teacher shows them how to consult first the vocabulary list at the end of the book, then the dictionary.

Once dictionaries have been brought into use the teacher should seldom explain a word, he should merely give examples of its use or use it (as if the class already knew it) in various speech patterns. This is the case at the senior level.

The choice of the method for conveying the meaning of a word depends on the following factors.

1. Psychological factors:

a) pupils' age: the younger the pupils are the better is the chance for the use of the direct method;

b) pupils' intelligence: the brighter the child the more direct the method.

2. Pedagogical factors:

a) he stage of teaching (junior, intermediate, senior);

b) the size of the class; in overcrowded classes the translation method is preferable because it is economical from the standpoint of time required for presentation, so more time is left for pupils to do exercises in using the word;

c) the time allotted to learning the new words; when the teacher is pressed for time he turns to the translation method;

d) the qualifications of the teacher: the use of the direct method requires much skill on the part of the teacher.

The direct method is usually a success provided the teacher can skilfully apply audio-visual aids and verbal means.

3. Linguistic factors:

a) abstract or concrete notions; for conveying the meaning of abstract notions the translation method is preferable;

b) extent (range) of meaning in comparison with that of the native language; in cases where range of meaning of a word does not coincide in the mother tongue and in the target language, the translation-interpretation should be used (e. g., education).

Whatever method of presenting a new word is used pupils should be able to pronounce the word correctly, listen to sentences with the word, and repeat the word after the teacher individually and in unison both as a single unit and in sentences. However this is only the first step in approaching the word. Then comes the assimilation which is gained through performing various exercises.

R e t e n t i o n   o f   w o r d s. To attain the desired end pupils must first of all perform various exercises to fix the words in their memory.

Constant use of a new word is the best way of learning it.

For this purpose it is necessary to organize pupils' work in a way permitting them to approach the new words from many different sides, in many different ways, by means of many different forms of work. The teacher can ensure lasting retention of words for his pupils provided he relies upon pupils' sensory perception and thinking, upon their auditory, visual, and kinesthetic analysers so that pupils can easily recognize the words while hearing or reading, and use them while speaking or writing whenever they need. To use a word the pupil should, first, search for it in his memory, choose the very word he needs, and then insert the word in a sentence, i.e., use it properly to express his thought. Thus correct usage of words means the correct choice and insertion of the words in speech.

For this reason two groups of exercises may be recommended for vocabulary assimilation:

Group I. Exercises designed for developing pupils' skills in choosing the proper word.

Group II. Exercises designed to form pupils' skills in using the word in sentences.

Group I may include:

1. Exercises in finding the necessary words among those suggested. For example:

- Pick out the words (a) which denote school objects:

(1) a pen, (2) a cup, (3) a blackboard, (4) a desk, (5) a bed, (6) a picture, (7) a car (pupils are expected to take (1), (3), (4), (6);

or (b) which denote size:

(1) red, (2) big, (3) good, (4) small, (5) great, (6) green

(pupils should take (2), (4), (5).

- Choose the right word:

The horse is a (wild, domestic) animal.
They (ate, drank) some water.
The (sheep, fly) is an insect.
The (rode, road) leads to Minsk.

- Arrange the words in pairs of the same root:

usual, danger, development, usually, dangerous, develop
(pupils are expected to arrange the words usual - usually, danger - dangerous...).

2. Exercises in finding the necessary words among those stored up in the pupils' memory. For example:

- Name the object the teacher shows (the teacher shows pupils a book, they say *a book*).
- Give it a name: (1) we use it when it rains; (2) it makes our tea sweet; (3) we sleep in it (pupils are expected to say an umbrella, sugar, a bed).
- Fill in the blanks: *They saw__ __ a little in the forest*
  The hut was __ __ .
- Say (or write) those words which (a) you need to speak about winter, (b) refer to sports and games.
- Say (or write) the opposites of:
  remember, hot, day, get up, answer, tall, thick.

Group II may include:

1. Exercises in inserting the necessary words in word combinations, phrases, sentences; the words and sentences being suggested. For example:

- Combine the words:

(a) sky   fine   b) speak   late
   rain   blue   run   fast
   snow   heavy   come   loudly
   weather   white

(Pupils have to say (or to write): (a) *blue sky, heavy rain, white snow, fine weather*;
   (b) *speak loudly, run fast, come late*.)

- Insert the words *met; built; posted* in (1) *The house was ... last year. (2) The delegation was... at the railway station in the morning. (3) The letter was ... three days ago.*
- Make statements with: *a few days, a few words, a few people, a few friends, a few hours:* e. g., *We worked in the field for a few hours.*

2. Exercises in using word combinations, phrases, sentences stored up in pupils' memory in connection with situations given. For example:

- Say what you can see here. (The teacher shows his pupils pens and pencils of different colour and size for them to say *a blue pen*, *a long pencil*, etc. Or he can use situational pictures for the purpose.)
- Say where the pen is. (The teacher puts the pen in different pi aces for pupils to say *on the table, in the box, under the bag, over the blackboard*, and so on.)

- Make statements. (The teacher either displays objects or uses pictures for pupils to say *this is a blue pencil, it's raining hard, the girl can't skate*.)

3. Exercises which help pupils to acquire skills in using vocabulary in speech which may be stimulated by (a) visual materials; (b) verbal means; (c) audio-visual materials.

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

a) the number of exercises to be used;

b) the type of exercises to be used;

c) the sequence or the order of complexity in which the selected exercises should be done.

In solving these problems the teacher should take into consideration:

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

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

Recommended Literature:

1. Грузинская И.А. Методика прподавания английского языка. М., 1987, § 31, 32
2. Диннингхауз Ф. Проблемы одноязычной семантизации. – «Иностранные языки в школе», 2006, №3
3. Беседы об уроке английского языка. Авт. Пассов Е.И., Колова Т.И., Волкова Т.А. и др. Л., «Просвещение», 1975. (Беседа третья)
4. Николаев Н.В. О необходимости дифференцированного подхода к иноязычному учебному лексическому материалу. – «Иностранные языки в школе», 2006, №6
5. Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам. Под ред. А.А. Миралюбова, И.В. Рахманова, В.С, Цетлин. М., 1997, гл. 4, с 286-304

Questions for Discussion:

1. Speak on the principles of selecting a minimum vocabulary. What, in your opinion, is

   the soundest criterion?

2. Comment on the main rules in teaching vocabulary.

3. 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.

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

Activities:

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

2. Make up a drill on the words presented.

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

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

Lecture Vll. TEACHING GRAMMAR

The Importance of Grammar in Learning a Foreign Language

In order to understand a language and to express oneself correctly one must assimilate the grammar mechanism of the language studied. Indeed, one may know all the words in a sentence and yet fail to understand it, if one does not see the relationship between the words in the given sentence. And vice versa, a sentence may contain one, two, and more unknown words but if one has a good knowledge of the structure of the language one can easily guess the meaning of these words or at least find them in a dictionary. For instance, one can hardly understand the following sentences without a knowledge of grammar even if all the words are familiar: *We saw him book a ticket. It made me return home. (It made me happy)* because each of them includes some grammar difficulties for pupils, namely, the infinitive construction in both of them, and an unusual meaning of the familiar words book and make. However if a pupil has assimilated the model of the Complex Object in the English language he will understand that in the sentence *We saw him book a ticket* the word *book* is not a noun, it cannot be a noun since him book is a complex object. In this sentence *book* is an infinitive, therefore, the pupil must look it up in a dictionary under *v.* In the second sentence the verb *make* is used in the meaning of *заставлять* since there is the infinitive construction *to make somebody do something* which the pupil can easily recognize if he has learnt it.

No speaking is possible without the knowledge of grammar, without the forming of a grammar mechanism. If a learner has acquired such a mechanism, he can produce correct sentences in a foreign language. Paul Roberts writes: "*Grammar is something that produces the sentences of a language, by something we mean a speaker of English. If you speak English natively, you have built into you the rules of English grammar. In a sense, you are an English grammar. You possess, as an essential part of your being, a very complicated apparatus which enables you to produce infinitely many sentences, all English ones, including many that you have never specifi cally learned. Furthermore by applying your rule you can easily tell whether a sentence that you hear is a grammatical English sentence or not.*"

A command of English as is envisaged by the school syllabus cannot be ensured without the study of grammar. Pupils need grammar to be able to aud, speak, read, and write in the target language.

The Most Common Difficulties Pupils Have in Assimilating English Grammar

The chief difficulty in learning a new language is that of changing from the grammatical mechanism of the native language to that of the new language. Indeed, every language has its own way of fitting words together to form sentences. In English, word order is far more important than in Russian. The word order in *Tom gave Helen a rose* indicates what was given (a rose), to whom (Helen), and by whom (Tom). If we change the word order and say *Helen gave Tom a rose*, we shall change the meaning of the sentence. In Russian, due to inflexions which are very important in this language, we can say *Том дал Лене розу* or *Лене дал Том розу* without changing the meaning of the sentence, as the inflexion "*е*" in the word *Лене* indicates the object of the action.

The English tense system also presents a lot of trouble to our pupils because of the difference which exists in these languages with regard to time and tense relations. For example, the pupil cannot at first understand why he must say *I have seen him today* and *I saw him yesterday*. For him the action is completed in both sentences, and he does not associate it in any way with *today* or *yesterday*.

The sequence of tenses is another difficult point of English grammar for pupils because there is no such phenomenon in their mother tongue. Why should he say *She said she was busy* when *she **is** busy*?

The use of modal verbs in various types of sentences is very difficult for the learner. For example, he should differentiate the use of *can* and *may* while in Russian the verb *могу* covers them both. Then he should remember which verb must be used in answers to the questions with modal verbs. For instance, *May I go home? No, you mustn't. May I take your pen? Yes, you may. Must I do it? No, you needn't.*

Pupils find some specific use of infinitive, participle and gerund constructions difficult. For example: *I saw him run (running). I want you to go there. They were seen to arrive. After finishing their work they went home.*

The most difficult point of English grammar is the article because it is completely strange to Russian-speaking pupils. The use of the articles and other determiners comes first in the list of the most frequent errors. Pupils are careless in the use of "these tiny words" and consider them unimportant for expressing their thoughts when speaking English.

English grammar must begin, therefore, with pupils' learning the meanings of these structural words, and with practice in their correct use

Correct selection of grammar teaching material is the first step towards the elimination of mistakes.

The Content of Teaching Grammar

Before speaking about the selection of grammar material it is necessary to consider the concept "grammar", i.e., what is meant by "grammar".

By grammar one can mean adequate comprehension and correct usage of words in the act of communication, that is, the intuitive knowledge of the grammar of the language. It is a set of reflexes enabling a person to communicate with his associates. Such knowledge is acquired by a child in the mother tongue before he goes to school. This "grammar" functions without the individual's awareness of
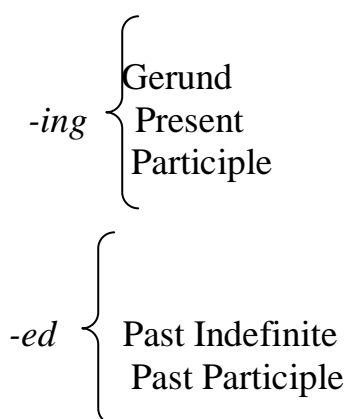
technical nomenclature, in other words, he has no idea of the system of the language; he simply uses the system. The child learns to speak the language, and to use all the word-endings for singular and plural, for tense, and all the other grammar rules without special grammar lessons only due to the abundance of auding and speaking. His young mind grasps the facts and "makes simple grammar rules" for arranging the words to express various thoughts and feelings. This is true because sometimes little children make mistakes by using a common rule for words to which that rule cannot be applied. For example, a little English child might be heard to say *Two mans comed* instead of *Two men came*, because the child is using the plural *s*.rule for *man* to which the rule does not apply, and the past tense *ed* rule for *come* which does not obey the ordinary rule for the past tense formation

By "grammar" we also mean the system of the language, the discovery and description of the nature of language itself. It is not a natural grammar, but a constructed one. There are several constructed grammars: *traditional, structural, and transformational grammars*. Traditional grammar studies the forms of words (morphology) and how they are put together in sentences (syntax); structural grammar studies structures of various levels of the language (morpheme level) and syntactic level; transformational grammar studies basic structures and transformation rules.

What we need is the simplest and shortest grammar that meets the requirements of the school syllabus in foreign languages. This grammar must be simple enough to be grasped and held by any pupil. We cannot say that this problem has been solved.

Since graduates are expected to acquire language proficiency in aural comprehension, speaking and reading grammar material should be selected for the purpose. There exist principles of selecting grammar material both for teaching speaking knowledge (active minimum) and for teaching reading knowledge (passive minimum), the main one is the principle of frequency, i.e., how frequently this or that grammar item occurs. For example, the Present Indefinite is frequently used both in conversation and in various texts. Therefore it should be included in the grammar minimum. For selecting grammar material for reading the principle of polysemia, for instance, is of great importance.1 Pupils should be taught to distinguish such grammar items which serve to express different meanings. For example,

$$
-ing \begin{cases} \text{Gerund} \\ \text{Present} \\ \text{Participle} \end{cases}
$$

$$
-ed \begin{cases} \text{Past Indefinite} \\ \text{Past Participle} \end{cases}
$$

The selection of grammar material involves choosing the appropriate kind of linguistic description, i.e., the grammar which constitutes the best base for developing

speech habits. Consequently, the syllabus and the textbooks emphasize different aspects of grammar. The syllabus emphasizes **what to teach** and gives it in terms of traditional grammar. The textbooks emphasize **how to teach** and present grammar in sentence patterns, structures (structural approach). That is how the syllabus and the textbooks present grammar. The amount of grammar material pupils should assimilate in school, and the way it is distributed throughout the course of study, may be found in the syllabi for nine-year schools and for eleven-year schools. In teaching grammar the teacher follows the recommendations given in Teacher's Books and instructs pupils through sentence patterns and structures presented in Pupil's Books. Although the content of grammar teaching is disputable among teachers and methodologists, and there are various approaches to the problem, pupils should, whatever the content of the course, assimilate the ways of fitting words together to form sentences and be able to easily recognize grammar forms and structures while hearing and reading, to reproduce phrases and sentences stored up in their memory and say or write sentences of their own, using grammar items appropriate to the situation.

How to Teach Grammar
Some General Principles of Grammar Teaching and How to Use Them
Teaching grammar should be based upon the following principles:

1. Conscious approach to the teaching of grammar. This means that in sentence patterns teaching points are determined so that pupils can concentrate their attention on some elements of the pattern to be able to use them as orienting points when speaking or writing the target language. For example, *I can see a book. I can see many books. The man asked for your telephone number. The man was asked for your telephone number.*

Conscious learning is also ensured when a grammar item is contrasted with another grammar item which is usually confused. The contrast is brought out through oppositions.

Rule for the teacher: Realize the difficulties the sentence pattern presents for your pupils. Comparative analysis of the grammar item in English and in native language 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.

And not only this: the more the teacher explains the less his pupils understand what he is trying to explain. This leads to the teacher giving more information than is necessary, which does not help the pupils in the usage of this particular grammar item, only hinders them.

2 Practical approach to the assimilation of grammar. It means that pupils learn those grammar items which they need for immediate use either in oral or written language. For example, from the first steps of language learning pupils need the Possessive Case for aural comprehension and speaking about things or objects which belong to different people, namely, *Mike's textbook, Ann's mother, the boys's room*, etc. In the senior stage (10-11 forms) pupils need the Sequence of Tenses mainly for reading to be able to understand such sentences as *He said he had been there. We*

hoped Mary would come soon. The learner masters grammar through performing various exercises in using a given grammar item.

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

3. Structural approach to the teaching of grammar, i. e., grammar items are introduced and drilled in structures or sentence patterns. It has been proved and accepted by the majority of teachers and methodologists that whenever the aim is to teach pupils the command of the language and speaking in particular, the structural approach meets the requirements.

Pupils are taught to understand English when spoken to and to speak it from the very beginning. This is possible provided they have learned sentence patterns and words as a pattern and they know how to adjust them to the situations they are given.

Rule 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.

4. Situational approach to the teaching of grammar. Pupils learn a grammar item used in situations. For example, the Possessive Case may be effectively introduced in classroom situations. The teacher takes or simply touches various things and says *This is Nina's pen; That is Sasha's exercise-book,* and so on. Complex Object *I want somebody to do something* may also be presented in classroom situations. For example, the teacher addresses a boy, he says: *Pete, I want you to give me your exercise-book. Please, give it to me. Lena, I want you to help Nick with his English. Please, help him with his reading. Andrew, I want you to clean the blackboard. Will you?*

Rule 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.

5. Different approach to the teaching of active grammar (grammar for conversation) and passive grammar (grammar for reading). Grammar items pupils need for conversation are taught by the oral approach, i.e., pupils aud them, perform various oral exercises, finally see them printed, and write sentences using them.

For example, pupils need the Present Perfect for conversation. They listen to sentences with the verbs in the Present Perfect spoken by the teacher or the speaker (when a tape recorder is used) and relate them to the situations suggested. Then pupils use the verbs in the Present Perfect in various oral exercises, and finally they read and write sentences in which the Present Perfect is used. Grammar items necessary for reading are taught through reading. For instance, pupils are going to read a text in which verbs in the Past Continuous occur. At present they do not need this tense form for conversation. They need it for comprehension of the text only. Since pupils are familiar with the Present Continuous, they can easily grasp the meaning of the new tense form and understand the sentences while reading the text. The teacher may. ask them to copy the sentences out of the text in which the Past Continuous occurs and underline the elements which signal the Past Continuous Tense.

Rule 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.

While preparing for the lesson at which a new grammar item should be introduced, the teacher must realize the difficulties pupils will meet in assimilating this new element of the English grammar. They may be of three kinds: difficulties in form, meaning, and usage. The teacher thinks of the ways to overcome these difficulties: how to convey the meaning of the grammar item either through situations or with the help of the mother tongue; what rule should be used; what exercises should be done; their types and number. Then he thinks of the sequence in which pupils should work to overcome these difficulties, i. e., from observation and comprehension through conscious imitation to usage in conversation (communicative exercises). Then the teacher considers the form in which he presents the grammar item - orally, in writing, or in reading. And, finally, the teacher plans pupils' activity while they are learning this grammar point: their individual work, mass work, work in unison, and work in pairs, always bearing in mind that for assimilation pupils need ample examples of the sentence pattern in which this grammar item occurs.

Types of Exercises for the Assimilation of Grammar

The following types of exercises may be suggested.

Recognition exercises which are the easiest type of exercises for pupils to perform. They observe the grammar item in structures (sentence patterns) when hearing or reading. Since pupils only observe the new grammar item the situations should be natural and communicative. For example:

- Listen to the sentences and raise your hands whenever you hear the verbs in the Past Indefinite.

    Mike lives in Pushkin Street. I lived there last year. Ann comes home at half past two. She came home at four o'clock yesterday, etc.

It is desirable that sentences formed should concern real situations and facts.

Pupils listen to the teacher and raise their hands when they hear a verb in the Past Indefinite. The teacher can see whether each of his pupils has grasped the sentence.

- Read the sentences in which (1) the action was not completed, e. g.,

    She was reading a book, (2) the action was completed, e. g., *She had read the book.*

1. Mother was cooking dinner ⎱
   Mother had cooked dinner ⎰ when came

2. Mary was sending letters. ⎱
   Mary had send letters ⎰ when I saw her in the Post Office

3. It was raining ⎱
   It had rained ⎰ when they left home

- Read the sentences and choose the correct form of the verb. The following sentences may be suggested:

1. I (*go, went*) to the library last Monday.
2. Tom (*takes, took*) a bus when he goes to school.
3. The children (*say, said*) good-bye to the teacher and ran away, etc.

Pupils should read the sentences and find the signals for the correct choice of the form. Since the necessary form is suggested in each sentence they should only recognize the one they need for a given context.

Recognition exercises are indispensable as pupils retain the grammar material through auditory and visual perception. Auditory and visual memory is at work.

Drill exercises are more complicated as they require reproduction on the part of the pupils. In learning a foreign language drill exercises are indispensable. The learners cannot assimilate the material if they only hear and see it. They must reproduce it both in outer and inner speech. The more often they say it the better they assimilate the material. Though drill exercises are those in which pupils have only one difficulty to overcome, they should also be graded:

a) *Repetitive drill.* Pupils pronounce the sentence pattern after the teacher, in imitation of the teacher, both individually and in unison. For example:

Teacher: They are dancing in the park.
Class: They are dancing in the park.
Individuals: They are dancing in the park.

Or pupils listen to the dialogue and say it after the speaker.

- *Is Ann dancing now?*
- *No, she isn't.*
- *What is she doing?*
- *She is watching television.*

Attention is drawn to the correct pronunciation of the sentence pattern as a sense unit, as a statement (sounds, stress, and melody).

b) *Substitution.* Pupils substitute the words or phrases in a sentence pattern. For example:

The children are dancing in the park.
The children are dancing in the garden.
The children are dancing in the street.
The children are dancing in the yard.
The children are dancing in the hall.
The children are dancing after classes.
The children are dancing at the party.

A pupil substitutes a phrase, the rest may say it in unison. Then they are invited to replace the word dancing with other words.

They are singing in the park.
They are working in the park.
They are walking in the park.
They are playing in the park.
They are running in the park.
They are talking in the park.

They are watering flowers in the park.
They are planting trees in the park.
They are helping the workers in the park.

The use of a particular verb is stimulated with pictures (or a word in the native l-ge). Quick revision is achieved with a small expenditure of effort. In this way they review many words and phrases. As pupils have only one difficulty to overcome the work does not take much time. Or pupils are invited to replace the words in the dialogue with those given in columns (see the dialogue above).

Kate	*helping her mother*
Your sister	*doing her homework*
This girl	*working on the farm*
	reading a book
	listening to the radio
	washing windows

They work in pairs.

There is one more advantage in performing this type of exercises - pupils consolidate the grammar item without thinking about it. They think of the words, phrases, but not of the form itself, therefore, involuntary memory is at work.

(c) *Completion.* Pupils complete the sentences the teacher utters looking at the pictures he shows. For example:

Teacher: Look at the picture.
          Mike is ... .
Pupil: Mike is getting up.
Class: Mike is getting up.
Teacher: Mike is ... .
Pupil: Mike is dressing.
Class: Mike is dressing.

Attention should be given to the use of *is* in this exercise. The teacher should pronounce *Mike is ...* to prevent the typical mistake of the pupils (*Mike dressing*). This is essential structural element of the tense form of the Present Continuous; Russian-speaking pupils, however, do not feel any necessity to use it.

(d) *Answering the teacher's questions.* For example:

 Teacher: Is Mike getting up?
 P u p i l: Yes, he is
 Teach e r: Who is getting up?
Pupil 1:   Mike is.
Teacher: What is Mike doing?
Pupil 1:   He is getting up.

Drill exercises may be done both orally and in written form. Pupils perform oral exercises during the lesson and written ones at home. For example, they are told to write five or seven sentences on the model given.

During the next lesson the work done at home is checked orally. In this way pupils have practice in pronunciation while reading their own examples, and in auding while listening to their classmates.

Creative exercises (speech exercises). This is the most difficult type of exercises as it requires creative work on the part of the learners. These may be:

a) Making statements either on the picture the teacher shows, or on objects.

For example, the teacher hangs up a picture and asks his pupils to say or write three or five statements in the Present Continuous.

b) Asking questions with a given grammar item.

For example, pupils are invited to ask and answer questions in the Past Indefinite.

c) Speaking about the situation offered by the teacher.

For example, one pupil gives commands to perform this or that action, the other comments on the action (actions) his classmate performs.

d) Speaking on a suggested topic.

For example, a pupil tells the class what he did yesterday.

e) Making dialogues using the grammar item covered.

f) Dramatizing the text read.

g) Commenting on a film-strip, a film.

h) Telling the story (read, heard).

i) Translating into English.

j) Participating in free conversation in which pupils are to use the grammar item they have learned.

E. g., pupils have learned sentence patterns with the impersonal *it*. (*It's cold. It's late. It's winter*).

All the exercises of the creative type are designed for consolidating grammar material pupils need for hearing and speaking.

As to the grammar items pupils need only for reading, pupils assimilate them while performing drill exercises and reading texts. This is usually done only in senior grades where the grammar material is not necessarily used in oral language. The teacher should train pupils in observing and determining the devices which signal their structural meaning to the learner. Pupils must know the functional words as they are of great importance in comprehending difficult sentences such as: *since, for, despite, in spite of, by means of, with the help of, according to*, etc.

All the exercises mentioned above are designed:

1) to develop pupils' skills in recognizing grammar forms while auding and reading English texts;

2) to accumulate correct sentence patterns in the pupils' memory which they can reproduce whenever they need these patterns for speaking or writing;

3) to help the pupils to produce sentences of their own using grammar items necessary for speaking about a situation or a topic offered, or writing an essay on the text hearted or an annotation on the text read.

Grammar tests. A check on the assimilatk of grammar material is carried out through:

1) auding (if a pupil understands what he auds, he knows grammar);

2) speaking (if a pupil uses the grammar item correctly, he has assimilated it);

3) reading (if a learner understands what he reads, he knows grammar);

4) tests.

In conclusion it should be said that in teaching grammar, as well as in teaching pronunciation and vocabulary, various audio-visual aids and teaching materials should be extensively utilized. If grammar is to be a means to an end and not an end in itself the teacher should follow the principles and observe the rules described above.

Recommended Literature:

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4. Бабкина В.С. Об обучении структурному оформлению предложений в 5 классе. – ИЯШ, 1992, №4
5. Балабайко М.С. Закрепление грамматического материала с помощью устных ситуативных упражнений. – ИЯШ, 1996, №6
6. Раздина Т.И. Апдекватность правила как важнейшее условие формирования навыка. – ИЯШ, 1996, №2
7. Малишевская Л.П. Схема как один из видов учебного правила. – ИЯШ, 1993, №6
8. Беседы об уроке иностранного языка, Авт.: Пассов Е.И., Колова Т.И., Волкова Т.А. и др. Л., «Просвещение», 1975.
9. Волкова Е.И. Английский язык в рчевых ситуациях, М., 1994.

Questions for Discussion:

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

Activities:

1. Examine one of the lessons in Pupil's Book and Teacher's Book to deduce upon what principles grammar is taught.
2. Select a grammar item and prepare the plan of a lesson to be used with a standard textbook.
3. Give a contrastive analysis of one of the grammar items to determine the difficulties it presents to pupils.
4. Review the principles grammar teaching should be based upon and show how you will utilize them in teaching some grammar item.
5. Compile a grammar test. Select a grammar item from a standard textbook.

# Lecture VIII.   TEACHING HEARING AND SPEAKING

The previous chapters dealt with the teaching of various aspects of the language, namely, phonetics (pronunciation), vocabulary, and grammar. The knowledge of each of the aspects 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.

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 auding or listening and comprehension.

Speaking exists in two forms: *dialogue and monologue*.

We may represent it as follows:

Oral language

hearing   speaking

dialogue   monologue
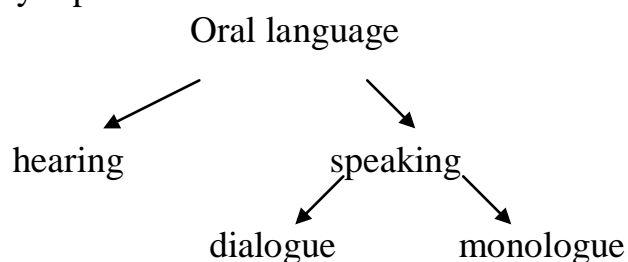
Oral Language as an Aim and a Means of Teaching
The syllabus requirements for oral language are as follows:
* to understand the language spoken;
* to carry on a conversation and to speak a foreign language within the topics and linguistic material the syllabus sets.

This is the practical aim in teaching oral language. But oral language is not only an aim in itself, it is also a mighty means of foreign language instruction. It is a means of presenting linguistic material: sounds, words, and grammar items. It is also a means of practising sentence patterns (grammar) and vocabulary assimilation. Finally, it is used 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.

Oral language is a means of testing pupils' comprehension when they hear or read a text. Properly used oral language ensures pupils' progress in language learning and, consequently, arouses their interest in the subject.

The Most Common Difficulties in Auding and Speaking a Foreign Language
Auding or listening and comprehension are difficult for learners because they should discriminate speech sounds quickly, retain them while hearing a word, a phrase, or a sentence and recognize this as a sense unit. Pupils can easily and naturally do this in their own language and they cannot do this in a foreign language

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

When auding a foreign language pupils should be very attentive and think hard. They should strain their memory and will power to keep the sequence of sounds they hear and to decode it. Not all the pupils can cope with the difficulties entailed. The teacher should help them by making this work easier and more interesting. This is possible on condition that he will take into consideration the following three main factors which can ensure success in developing pupils' skills in auding: (1) linguistic material for auding; (2) the content of the material suggested for listening and comprehension; (3) conditions in which the material is presented,

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

Phonetic difficulties appear because the phonic system of English and native language differ greatly. The hearer often interprets the sounds of a foreign language as if they were of his own language which usually results in misunderstanding. The following opposites present much trouble to beginners in learning English:

θ - s   tr - t∫
θ – f   dr - ʤ
w -v

Pupils also find it difficult to discriminate such opposites as: *o: - o, a - a, i: - i, u: - u.*

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

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

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

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

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

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

This is difficult for pupils when they aud.

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

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

The type of communication: whether it is a description or a narration. Description as a type of communication is less emotional and interesting, that is why it is difficult for the teacher to arouse pupils' interest in auding such a text. Narration is more interesting for auding. Consequently, this type of communication should be used for listening comprehension.

The context and pupils' readiness (intellectual and situational) to understand it.

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

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

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

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

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

The number of times of presenting the material for auding: whether the pupils should listen to the text once, twice, three times or more. Pupils should be taught to listen to the text once and this must become a habit. However they sometimes can grasp only 50% of the information and even less, so a second presentation may be helpful. In case the pupils cannot grasp most of the information, practice proves that manifold repetitions when hearing do not help much. It is necessary to help pupils in comprehension by using a "feed back" established through a dialogue between the teacher and the class 1 which takes as much time as it is required for the repetitive presentation of the material.

The presence or the absence of the speaker. The most favourable condition is when pupils can see the speaker as is the case when the teacher speaks to them in a

foreign language. The most unfavourable condition for auding is listening and comprehending a dialogue, when pupils cannot see the speakers and do not take part in the conversation.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Oral exercises are used for the pupils to assimilate phonetics, grammar, and vocabulary. They are mostly drill exercises and the teacher turns to them whenever he works at enriching pupils' knowledge in vocabulary and grammar, at improving pupils' pronunciation, etc. For example, reciting a rhyme or a poem is considered to be an excellent oral exercise for drilling pronunciation and for developing speech

habits. Making up sentences following the model is an excellent oral exercise for fixing a sentence pattern and words which fit the pattern in the pupils' mind. Making statements with the words or phrases the teacher gives is another valuable oral exercise which allows the teacher to retain them in his pupils' memory through manifold repetitions.

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

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

Psychological characteristics of speech

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

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

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

2. Speech is always addressed to an interlocuter.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Linguistic characterictics of speech

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

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

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

How many books have you?
One.
Do you go to school on Sunday?
No, I don't.
Who has done it?
Nick has.

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

Have you seen the film?
Yes, I have seen this film, and I am sorry I've wasted- two hours.
Did you like the book?
Yes, I liked it very much.

2. The use of contracted forms: *doesn't, won't, can't, isn't, etc.*
3. The use of some abbreviations*: lab (laboratory), mike (microphone), maths (mathematics), p. m. (post meridiem),* and others.
4. The use of conversational tags. These are the words a speaker uses when he wishes to speak without saying anything. Here is both a definition of conversational tags and an example of their usage in conversation (they are in italics),

"*Well*, they are those things, *you know*, which don't actually mean very much, *of course,* yet they are *in fact* necessary in English conversation as behaviour."

Besides, to carry on a conversation pupils need words, phrases to start a conversation, to join it, to confirm, to comment, etc. For example, *well, look here, I say ..., I'd like to iell you (for starting a talk); you see, you mean, do you mean to say that ..., and what about (for joining a conversation); I believe so, I hope, yes, right, quite right, to be sure (for confirming what one says); I think, as far as I know, as far as I can see, the fact is, to tell the truth, I mean to say (for commenting),* etc.

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

1. Question - response.
>   -*Hello. What's your name?*
>   -*Ann. What's yours?*
>   -*My name is William.*

2. Question - question.
>   -*Will you help me, sonny?*
>   -*What shall I do, mother?*
>   -*Will you polish the floor today?*
>   -*Is it my turn?*
>   -*Yes, it is. Your brother did it last time.*
>   -*Oh, all right, then.*

3. Statement - statement.
>   -*I'd like to know when he is going to come and see us.*
>   -*That's difficult to say. He is always promising but never comes.*
>   -*1 It's because he is very busy.*
>   -*That's right. He works hard.*

4. Statement - question.
>   -*I'm going to the theatre tonight.*
>   -*Where did you get tickets?*
>   -*My friend got them somewhere.*
>   -*How did he do it?*
>   -*I don't know.*

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

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

How to teach oral language

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

Techniques the Teacher Uses to Develop Hearing

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

1. The teacher uses the foreign language:

a) when giving the class instructions;

b) when presenting new language material (words, sentence patterns);

c) when checking pupils' comprehension;

d) when consolidating the material presented;

e) when checking pupils' assimilation of the language material covered.

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

Conducting a lesson in a foreign language gives the teacher an opportunity to develop pupils' abilities in hearing; to train them in listening to him attentively during the lesson; to demonstrate the language as a means of communication; to provide favourable conditions for the assimilation of the language; to perfect his own speaking skills; to keep his own speech under control, i. e., to keep himself from undue talkativeness.

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

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

The first group of drill exercises includes:

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

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

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

The second group of drill exercises includes:

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

b) exercises which are designed for developing pupils' attention.

c) exercises which develop pupils' visual imagination.

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

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

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

1. Exercises which teach pupils to undersand texts different in content, form, and type. Pupils are asked to listen to a description or a narration; the text may be a

dialogue, it may deal with the life of people whose language the pupils study, or with the pupils' environment.

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

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

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

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

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

general questions ⌉
special questions ⌡ The teacher checks his pupils' comprehension only.
 wrong statements ⌐

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

Techniques the Teacher Uses for Teaching Speaking

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

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

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

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

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

I can see a ... .
P u p i l 1: I can see a blackboard.
P u p i l 2: I can see a picture. P u p i l3: I can see a map, etc.
I am fond of ...
P u p i l 1: I am fond of music.
P u p i l 2: I am fond of classical music.
P u p i l 3: I am fond of pop music, etc.

Pattern practice, of course, makes no pretence of being communication. However, pattern practice for communication is what playing scales and arpeggios is to a musician. Each pattern will have to be repeated many times with a great variety of changes in its contents until the pattern becomes a habit.Pupils make statements of their own in connection with the situations suggested by the teacher.

When pupils are able to make statements in the foreign language within grammar and vocabulary they have assimilated their speech may be more complicated. They should learn to combine statements of various sentence patterns in a logical sequence.

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

Teacher: Say a few words about it. (He points to an object.)
Pupil: This is a pencil. The pencil is green. It is on the table. I like the pencil.
Or Teacher points to a boy.
Pupil: This is a boy. His name is Sasha. He lives in Gagarin Street.

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

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

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

purpose are: visual aids which can stimulate the pupil's speaking through visual perception of the subject to be spoken about, including a text read; audio aids which can stimulate the pupil's speaking through auditory perception of a stimulus; audio-visual aids when pupils can see and hear what to speak about.

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

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

We have already spoken about the linguistic characteristics of *dialogue.* Some more should be said about its structure.

A dialogue consists of a series, of lead-response units. The significant feature of a lead-response unit is that the response part may, and usually does, serve in its own turn as a fresh inducement leading to further verbal exchanges, i.e., lead - esponse - inducement - response. A response unit is a unit of speech between two pauses. It may consist of more than one sentence. But the most characteristic feature of a dialogue is that the lead-response units are closely connected and dependent on each other. The lead is relatively free, while the response depends on the first and does not exist without it.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Rule for the teacher: In teaching dialogue use 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.

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

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. He can speak on the subject following the plan made either independently at home or in class under the teacher's supervision. His speech will be more or less correct and sufficiently fluent since plenty of preliminary exercises had been done before.

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

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

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

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

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

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

- Discuss a problem or problems touched upon in the text read or heard. For example, pupils read about education in Great Britain. After the teacher makes sure that his. pupils understand the text and have a certain idea of the system of education in Great Britain, he arranges a discussion on the problem. He asks his pupils to compare the system of educa tion in Great Britain and in our country. The teacher stimulates pupils' speech either by questions or through wrong statements.

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

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

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

In conclusion it should be said that prepared and unprepared speech must be developed simultaneously from the very beginning. The relationship between

prepared and unprepared speech should vary depending on the stage of learning the language. In the junior stage prepared speech takes the lead, while in the senior stage unprepared speech should prevail.

Evaluating pupils' speech habits

Pupils' speech habits may be evaluated in two ways:

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

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

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

Mistakes and how to correct theme

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

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

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

Secondly, the pupil who speaks thinks more about how to say something instead of what to say. No speaking is possible when the speaker has to concentrate on the form. He makes more errors under this condition. More than that, he often

refuses to speak when he sees the classmates raise their hands after he has uttered his first sentence. This does not encourage the learner to speak.

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

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

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

Pupil: My mother get up at 7 o'clock.

Teacher: I see, your mother gets up earlier than you.

Pupil: Yes, my mother gets up at 7.

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

Pupil: She first visited us in 1960.

She is a good friend of purs since.

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

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

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

Recommended Literature:
1. Зимняя И.А. Психологическая характеристика слушания и говорения как видов речевой деятельности. - «Иностранные языки в школе», 1993, №4
2. Рогова Г.В., Рожкова Ф.М. Обучение связному высказыванию в средней школе. - «Иностранные языки в школе», 1996, №6
3. Верещагина В.А. Организационная работа над английским диалогом. - «Иностранные языки в школе», 1996, №1
4. Рогова Г.В. О речи учителя на уроке. - «Иностранные языки в школе», 1994, №1
5. Берман И.М., Бухбиндер В.А, Ситуативность и обучение устной речи. - «Иностранные языки в школе», 1994, №5
6. Скалкин В.Л., Рубинштейн Г.А. Речевые ситуации как средство развития неподготовленной речи. - «Иностранные языки в школе», 1996, №4

Questions for Discussion:
1. Not all oral exercises mean speaking. Comment upon this statement.

2. Compare different approaches to teaching speaking and determine which is most justifiable.
3. What are the reasons for pupils' poor comprehension of the target language when spoken?
4. Why is it so difficult to teach speaking in artificial conditions?
5. What can be done to overcome the obstacles and despite them to succeed in teaching oral language?

Activities:

1. Suggest a situation suitable lor a dialogue with appropriate lead- response units.
2. Choose subjects (or objects) for pupils to speak about.
3. Analyse one of the lessons in a standard textbook and show how the teacher may develop pupils' speaking abilities in dialogue and monologue.
4. Chose a text for teaching auding. Give a detailed description of pupils' proposed activity and techniques for checking comprehension.

Lecture IX. TEACHING READING

Reading as an aim and a 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 eight-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 in Soviet 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
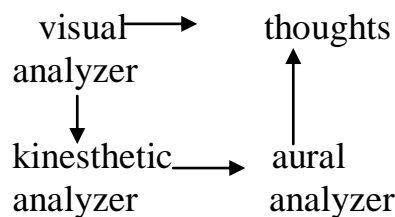
combinations, he also reviews grammar and, in this way, he perfects his command of the target language. The more the pupil reads, the better his retention of the linguistic material is. If the teacher instructs his pupils in good reading and they can read with sufficient fluency and complete comprehension 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.

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 sounds 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 analyzers 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 ttie 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:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{visual} & \longrightarrow & \text{thoughts} \\
\text{analyzer} & & \uparrow \\
\downarrow & & \\
\text{kinesthetic} & \longrightarrow & \text{aural} \\
\text{analyzer} & & \text{analyzer}
\end{array}$$

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 devel oped. 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 ever at words, one by one, however quickly; does he take 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 neighbour.
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:

- graphemic-phonemic exercises which help pupils to assimilate graphemic-phonemic correspondence in the English language;
- 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;
- 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.

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 alphabet differs greatly from that of the English language. A comparison of the two languages shows that of the 26 pairs of printed letters (52 - if we consider capital and small letters as different symbols) only 4 are more or less similar to those of the Russian alphabet, both in print and in meaning. These are K, k, M, T. 31 letters are completely new to pupils. These are b, D, d, F, f, G, g, h, L, 1, I, i, J, j, N, n, Q, q, R, r, S, s, t, U, u, V, v, W, w, Z, z. The letters A, a, B, C, c, E, e, H, O, o, P, p, Y, y, X, x occur in both languages, but they are read differently. They are, therefore, the most difficult letters for the pupil to retain. 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. 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 native 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 in 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 how 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.

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 sentence method deals with the sentences as units of approach in teaching reading. The teacher can develop pupils᾽ ability to read sentences with correct intonation. Later the sentence is split up into words. 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, and 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;

c) to check pupils' knowledge of letters or graphemes;

d) to make pupils recollect the words beginning with the letter shown;

e) to make pupils show the letter (letters) which stand for the sound etc.

When teaching reading the teacher needs a set of flash cards at hand. If 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 - county*

d) pupils in turn read a column of words following the key word;

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 modern textbooks for the 5th form transcription 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.

The structural-information exercises are done both in reading aloud and in silent reading. Pupils are taught how to read sentences, paragraphs, texts correctly. Special attention is given to intonation since it is of great importance to the actual division of sentences, to stressing the logical predicate in them. Marking the text occasionally may be helpful.

At an early stage of teaching reading the teacher should read a sentence or a passage to the class himself. When he is sure the pupils understand the passage, he can set individuals and the class to repeat the sentences after him, reading again himself if the pupils' reading is poor.

This kind of elementary reading practice should be carried on for a limited number of lessons only. When a class has advanced far enough to be ready for more independent reading, reading in chorus might be decreased, but not eliminated.

When the pupils have learned to associate written symbols with the sounds they stand for they should read a sentence or a passage by themselves. In this way they get a chance to make use of their knowledge of the rules of reading. It gives the teacher an opportunity to see whether each of his pupils can read.

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 texts (or paragraphs) and exercises pupils are to read aloud.

In reading aloud, therefore, the teacher uses:
- diagnostic reading (pupils read and he can see their weak points in reading);
- instructive reading (pupils follow the pattern read by the teacher or the speaker);
- control reading or test reading (pupils read the text trying to keep as close to the pattern as possible).

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 they 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 mistake. If they cannot do so the teacher corrects the mistake. 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 pupils asks: *What is the English for "черный"?* 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"* 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.

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 eyespan.

Teaching silent reading is closely connected with two problems:

- instructing pupils in finding in sentences what is new in the information following some structural signals, the latter is possible provided pupils have a certain knowledge of grammar and vocabulary and they can perform lexical and grammar analysis;
- 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 some signals which may be helpful in this respect. These 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 a reference book 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 parsing 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 sentences 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 explains 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.
- These sentences are too complicated. Break them into shorter sentences.
- Find the sentence which summarizes the paragraph.
- 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 clues.

The use of context clues 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. He can read it again and again. "Before questions" may be helpful. They direct the pupil's thought when he reads the text. If the work is done during the lesson, the teacher can direct his pupils in guessing new words.

The teacher instructs pupils how to get information from the text. Semantic-communicative exercises are recommended. They are all connected with silent reading. These may be:

- Read and say why Jack does not take the apple.
- Read. Find answers to the following questions.
- Read the text. Find the words which describe the room.
- Read the text. Say what made the Prime Minister leave the country.
- There are two causes of the strike. Find them in the text (Newspaper).

- There are three main features of the substance mentioned in the text below. Find them (Popular Science).
- The author describes his hero with great sympathy. Find in what words he expresses his attitude (Fiction).

Pupils perform graphemic-phonemic exercises reading them aloud. The teacher uses individual, group, and full class reading. He checks the pupil's reading by making him read aloud.

Pupils perform structural-information exercises by reading them aloud and silently. The teacher uses individual, group, and full class reading when pupils read sentences, paragraphs of the text aloud, and when the aim is to teach pupils correct intonation in connection with the actual division of sentences. He checks the pupil's reading asking him to read aloud.

The teacher uses mass reading when pupils read sentences, paragraphs of the text silently; the objective may be different: either to widen their eyespan or to find new infor mation. The teacher checks the pupil's silent reading by asking him to reproduce a sentence or a paragraph; through partial reading of a sentence or a clause; through the pupil's interpreting the text; by utilizing true-and-false statements, questions and answers, and, finally, translation.

Pupils perform semantic-communicative exercises reading the text silently. If the work is done during the lesson the teacher uses mass reading. He checks his pupils' comprehension by asking the pupils individually. The techniques the teacher uses to check pupils' ability to get information from the text may be different. The choice depends on the stage of teaching; on the material used; on pupils' progress.

Recommended Literature:

1. Фоломкина С.К. Обучение чтению на иностранном языке в неязыковом вузе. - М., 1987.
2. Колкер Я.М., Устинова Е.С., Еналиева Г.М. Практическая методика обучения иностранному языку, М., 2000.
3. Козлов П.Г. Интегративная роль результата в технологии обучения иностранному языку. // Новые технологии в учебном процессе в вузе. - Алматы, 1995.
4. Гальскова Н.Д. Современная методика обучения иностранным языкам., М., 2000.
5. Кунанбаева С.С. Современное иноязычное образование: методология и теории. - Алматы, 2005.

Questions for Discussion:
1. Compare different standpoints on various approaches to reading. Which approach do you find justifiable? Give several arguments to con- iirm your statement.
2. The only way to teach reading is by making the pupil himself read and not by his listening to and repeating someone else's reading. Discuss the problem in order to define the sequence in which reading should be taught.

3. Why must the text be considered a whole unit and should not be taken in pieces when silent reading is being taught?
4. The ratio between silent reading and reading aloud should vary in favour of silent reading from form to form. How should this be reflected on working with the text in class? Confirm your statement with some examples.
5. Reading as a form of language activity should teach the pupil to overcome difficulties by applying to the dictionary, handbook, grammar book, etc., during solitary work. Why is it so important, beginning at the intermediate stage, to teach pupils to use the dictionary and other reference books?
6. The texts pupils read are different by nature. How does this influence the techniques used while working at a text?

Activities:
1. Prepare a set of flash cards for teaching oral reading of the words you choose. Use a standard textbook.
2. Analyse one of the lessons in Pupil's Book and Teacher's Book and show how reading is taught.
3. Choose a text from a standard textbook and prepare some assignments developing silent reading.
4. Name a text for intensive work which will require the use of the dictionary and describe the procedure of working with the text.

Lecture X. Translation

Before considering the role and the place of translation in foreign language teaching it is necessary to state what is meant by "translation". By translation we mean the transmission of a thought expressed in one language by means of another language. In this way translation ensures comprehension between peoples speaking different languages. In order to transmit a thought from one language into another, one must understand this thought in the language from which one is to translate it and find equivalents to express it in the other language. Therefore translation is a complicated process; it requires the ability to think in both languages.

The Role and Place of Translation in Teaching a Foreign Language
In foreign language teaching translation may be used, for instance, as a means of conveying the meaning of a word, a phraseological group, a grammar form, or a sentence pattern. Translation is then considered to be a means of teaching a foreign language. From the history of methods of foreign language teaching it is known that the approach to translation has undergone various changes at different times. Thus in the second half of the 18th, and the first half of the 19th century, translation was considered to be a method of instruction. A foreign language was taught through translation; in the grammar-translation method it was mainly from the mother tongue into the foreign language, and in the lexical-translation method - from the foreign language into the mother tongue.

At the end of the 19th and at the beginning of the 20th century direct methods appeared and spread throughout the world. Direct methods completely eliminated translation in foreign language teaching. Later on translation was admitted in foreign language teaching, in such methodological systems as H. Palmer's and M. West's, as a means of conveying the meaning of language units.

In the Kazakhstan translation has never been taboo in foreign language teaching though its role and place varied. Thus in the conscious-translation method proposed by L. V. Tsherba translation played a great role in the teaching of a foreign language, both for practical and educational ends. Practically translation was to be used as a means of conveying the meaning, as a leading type of exercise for consolidating the language material presented, as almost the only means of checking the pupils' knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, and the comprehension of what they read and heard. It was applied at every stage irrespective of pupils' age, language experience, language material, etc., and throughout the whole process of assimilation, namely: explanation, consolidation, or retention, and checking. Practice has proved, however, that the constant use of translation does not ensure the necessary conditions for pupils' direct comprehension of what they read and hear. As a result they can neither speak nor read the foreign language. Nor can they translate from one language into the other since translation requires the ability to think in both languages. (This is possible on condition that pupils have ample practice for speaking, hearing, reading, and writing in the target language.)

To meet the programme requirements translation must now be utilized:

1. As a means of conveying the meaning of a word, a phraseological group, a grammar form, and a sentence pattern alongside with other means; translation being the most economical method from the point of view of the time required.

Besides, translation ensures comprehension of a new language item.

Translation as a means of conveying the meaning may be used in two ways: translation proper and translation- interpretation.

The teacher uses translation proper when, for example, a new word has a more or less exact equivalent in the other language, e.g., *a flower- цветок*. No interpretation is needed. The teacher uses translation-interpretation when there is something peculiar, specific about a word presented. It may be:

- an absence of an equivalent
- difference in the extent of meaning
- difference in usage, i. e., a word forms specific combinations which do not exist in the Russian language. For example, heavy rain, to pay attention, to meet requirements, etc.

2. As a means of ensuring comprehension of difficult points in a text - through analysis and translation pupils gain comprehension, as is the case when they are given a text too difficult to understand without analysis and translation.

3. As a means of checking pupils' comprehension of what they read or hear alongside of other means.

These are the cases where translation is desirable and helpful in foreign language teaching. In consolidation or retention of language material no translation should be utilized, however. Various drill and speech exercises must be done within

the target language. The teacher must do his best to create the atmosphere suitable for developing pupils' speaking and reading habits and skills.

It is necessary that pupils should follow the rule: *"Learn to speak by speaking and read by reading."* Translation provides neither the first nor the second. It only helps in obtaining knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, but it hinders the development of speech habits and skills, since instead of direct comprehension and expression of their thoughts pupils fall into the habit of translating everything they hear or read, and in this way do not get accustomed to associate the sequence of sounds they hear with the meaning it has in the foreign language, to associate the graphemes with the notions they convey. Under these conditions no speaking or reading is possible.

Consequently the teacher may use translation when explaining new material and checking his pupils' knowledge.

Types of Translation Used In Foreign Language Teaching

If we consider translation from the point of view of the relationship between the mother tongue and the foreign language, we distinguish the following types of translation: (a) translation from the foreign language into the mother tongue; (b) translation from the mother tongue into the foreign language and
(c) retranslation (i. e., first pupils translate from the foreign language into the mother tongue and then, after a while, back into the foreign language).

If we consider translation from the point of view of its relation to the original, we distinguish:

1. *Word for word translation* (or literally translation), when all the lexical units of the foreign language are replaced by those of the mother tongue, the grammar structure being that of the foreign language.

For example,

I have a sister- Я имею сестру.

My mother is not at home – Моя мама (есть) не дома.

He was called on by the teacher yesterday – Он быыл спрошен учителем вчера.

Though word for word translation violates the syntax of the mother tongue, it transmits the meaning of a sentence. Besides, word for word translation is valuable in an educational respect as it gives a pupil an opportunity to compare all the elements of the language he studies with the corresponding elements of the mother tongue and in this way to see the difference between these languages.

2. *Adequate translation* which in contrast with word for word translation transmits the thought expressed in the foreign language by means of the corresponding equivalents of the mother tongue.

For example:

I have a sister – Уменя есть сестра.

My mother is not at home – Мамы нет дома.

He was called on by the teacher yesterday – Его вчера спрашивал учитель.

3. *Free translation* or free interpretation of the text in the mother tongue that was read or heard in the foreign language. For example, pupils read a newspaper article and each says a few words, on its contents.

4. *Literary-artistic translation* is a translation which requires special skills and knowledge and it cannot be included in school syllabus requirements.

Translation may be of two kinds: *written and oral*. They both may be used with the aim of checking pupils' comprehension, and their knowledge of vocabulary and grammar.

In conclusion, it should be said that translation is a means of teaching a foreign language and, as such, its various types and kinds may be recommended. The choice depends on: (1) the objective of the lesson, (2) language material, (3) stage of instruction, (4) pupils' age, (5) pupils' progress in the target language, (6) time the teacher has at his disposal.

Recommended Literature:
1. Комарев А.С. Развитие творческой активности учащихся в работе над стихами на уроках английского языка. ИЯШ, №6, 1986г.
2. Соловова Е.Н. Подготовка учителя иностранного языка с учетом современных тенденций обновления содержания образования // ИЯШ, №4, 2001.
3. Рогова Г.В. Методика преподавания ИЯ в СШ. М., 1991г.

Questions for Discussion:
1. Conscious approach to foreign language teaching implies the use of translation. Support your answer.
2. Exercises within the target language are more effective for developing language skills than those of translating from one language into another. True or false?
3. Translation is a complicated skill which requires special training. What is your opinion on the subject?

Lecture XI. Teaching Writing

Writing as a Skill

Writing as a skill is very important in teaching and learning a foreign language; il 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 readings.

The practical value of writing is great because it can fix patterns of all kinds (graphemes, words, phrases and sentences) in pupils' memory, thus producing a powerful effect on their mind. That is why the school syllabus reads: "Writing is a mighty means of teaching a foreign language". Writing includes penmanship, spelling, and composition. The latter is the aim of learning to write. The school syllabus states: "Pupils are expected to be able to write a letter in the foreign language witlnn the material learnt."

Since writing is a complicated skill it should be developed through the formation of habits such as:
• the habit of writing letters of the English alphabet;

- the habit of converting speech sounds into their symbols - letters and letter combinations;
- the habit of correct spelling of words, phrases, and sentences;
- 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.

Difficulties Pupils Have In Learning to Write English

Since pupils should be taught penmanship, spelling, and composition it is necessary to know the difficulties 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. They are *a, o, e, n, rn, p, c, k, g, x, M, T, H.* Only a few letters, such as s, *r, i, h, 1, f, b, d, t, j, I, G, Q, N*, etc., may be strange to pupils. Training in penmanship may be made easier if our schools adopt the script writing suggested by Marion Richardson in which the capital letters in script have the same form as the printed capital letters. The small letters such as *h, b, d, i, k, f,* are made without a loop.

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.

The most difficult thing for pupils in learning to write is English spelling.

The, spelling system of a language may be based upon the followingjdneifilesr:

1. *Historical or conservative principle* when spelling reflects the pronunciation of earlier periods in the history of the language.

2. *Morpological principle*. In writing a word the morphemic composition of the word is taken into account.

3. *Phonetic principle*. Spelling reflects the pronunciation.

One or another of these principles may prevail in any given language. In Russian and German the morphological principle prevails. In French and English the historical or conservative principle dominates (as far as the first 1000 words are concerned). The modern English spelling originated as early as the 15th century and has not been changed since then. The pronunciation has changed greatly during that time. Significant difference in pronunciation and spelling is the result. The same letters in different words are read differently.

Different letters or lettter 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 [bro:t]; help [help] - hour [auo].*

The discscrepancy 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:

a) 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;*

b) when the consonant should be doubled: *sit - sitting; thin - thinner; swim - swimming*;

c) 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.

How to Teach Writing

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

Training in penmanship should proceed by steps.

- 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.

- 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. The same applies to the letters *d* and *b; g* and *q*; *q* and *p* which are often confused by pupils. Then the teacher writes a word in which the new letter occurs. For example, *B b, bed.*

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

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

The teacher's handwriting and his skill in using the blackboard are 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 the blackboard because pupils will copy both what is written and how it is written.

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

1. *C o p y i n g.* The aim of this exercise is to allow the pupils to practise 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.

For better assimilation of the spelling of words, it is recommended that various associations should be established, such as:

a) associations by similiarity in spelling;

b) associations by contrast in spellings;

Pupils should also be asked to spell words by themselves.

Much care should be given to the words whose spelling does not follow the rules, for example, *daughter, busy, sure, usual, colonel, clerk, soldier*, etc. Pupils master the spelling of such words by means of repetitions in writing them.

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.

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.

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

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.

- *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 iunior and intermediate stages.

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

a) <u>Substitution:</u> *Nick has a sister*. The pupils should use other words instead of
<p align="center">*a sister.*</p>

b) <u>Completion</u>: *How many ... are there in the room?*
<p align="center">*He came late because... .*</p>

c) <u>Extension:</u> *Ann brought some flowers*. (The pupils are expected to use an
<p align="center">adjective before *flowers.*)</p>

Practice of this kind can iead pupils to long sentences.

- *Writing answers to given questions.* The question helps the pupil both with the pattern required for the answer,

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 desriptive 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).*

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.
6. Letter writing.

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 inter est 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.

Since writing is a mighty means in learning a foreign 1anguage pupils should write both in class and at home.

Recommended Literature:
1. Соловова Е.Н. Подготовка учителя иностранного языка с учетом современных тенденций обновления содержания образования // ИЯШ, №4, 2001.
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3. Бим И.Л. Модернизация структуры и содержания школьного языкового образования (ИЯ). //ИЯШ, №7, 2005.
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5. Бердичевский А.Л. Языковая политика и методика преподавания иностранных языков в странах Европы // ИЯШ, №5, 2002
6. Копылова В.В. и др. Организация обучения ИЯ и профессиональной подготовки педагогических кадров в условиях модернизации содержания образования // ИЯШ, №1,2003.

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.

Russian-English List of Words & Expressions Used in Foreign Language Teaching

1. ***Силлабус (Syllabus)*** – программа дисциплины для студента.
2. ***Пререквизиты и Постреквизиты*** - дисциплины, обязательные для освоения, соответственно, до и после изучения данной дисциплины.
3. ***СРС*** – самостоятельная работа студента, ***СРСП*** - самостоятельная работа студента под руководством преподавателя.
4. ***Аутентичность*** - достоверность, подлинность.
5. ***Коммуникативная*** (от лат. ***communicatio*** собщение, связь) ***компетенция*** (от лат. ***competentis*** способный). Способность решать средствами ***иностранного языка*** актуальные для учащихся и общества задачи общения из бытовой, учебной, производственной и культурной жизни; умение учащегося пользоваться фактами языка и речи для реализации целей общения. Учащийся владеет коммуникативной компетенцией, если он в условиях прямого или опосредованного контакта успешно решает задачи взаимопонимания и взаимодействия с носителями изучаемого языка в соответствии с нормами и традициями культуры этого языка. С психологической точки зрения коммуникативная компетенция - это прежде всего способность человека адекватно ситуации общения организовать свою речевую деятельность в её продуктивных и рецептивных видах. Единицами коммуникативной компетенции являются: а) сферы коммуникативной деятельности; б) темы, ситуации общения и программы их развертывания; в) речевое действие; г) социальные и коммуникативные роли собеседников (сценарии их коммуникативного поведения); д) тактика коммуникации в ситуациях при выполнении программы поведения; е) типы текстов и правила их построения; ж) языковые минимумы. Уровень коммуникативной компетенции определяется этапом и целью обучения.
6. ***Коммуникативно-деятельностный*** (личностно-деятельностный) ***подход.*** Такой подход, прежде всего, означает, что в центре обучения находится обучающийся как субъект учебной деятельности, а система обучения предполагает максимальный учет индивидуально-психологических, возрастных и национальных особенностей личности обучающегося. Методическим содержанием коммуникативно-деятельностным подходом являются способы организации деятельности, связанные в первую очередь с широким использованием коллективных форм работы, с решением

проблемных задач, с равнопартнерским сотрудничеством между преподавателем и учащимся.

7. *Слухо-произносительные навыки* - навыки правильного произношения всех изученных звуков в потоке речи и понимание всех звуков при аудировании речи других.

8. Под *ритмико-интанационными* навыками понимается формирование навыков интонационно и ритмически правильного оформления речи и соответственно понимания речи на слух.

9. *Аппроксимация* - звуки изучаемого языка, сходные со звуками родного.

10. *Речевой лексический навык* - навык интуитивно правильного словоупотребления и словообразования в соответствии с целями и ситуациями общения.

11. *Рецептивно (пассивный) лексический минимум* - лексические единицы, которые учащиеся должны понимать в рецептивных видах речевой деятельности (аудировании, чтении).

12. *Потенциальный словарь* - слова, которые ещё не встречались в речевом опыте учащихся, но могут быть поняты ими на основе словообразовательных элементов и языковой догадки.

13. *Рецептивный лексический навык* - навык узнавания и понимания лексических единиц в письменном и устном тексте.

14. *Активный грамматический минимум* - грамматические явления, которые учащиеся должны употреблять в процессе говорения и письменной речи.

15. *Грамматическая структура* - обобщенное обозначение инвариантных особенностей грамматического явления.

16. *Речевой образец* – типовое предложение, представляющее собой коммуникативную и ситуативную реализацию грамматической структуры речи.

17. *Речевой грамматический навык* - автоматизированное действие по выбору грамматического явления, адекватного речевой задаче в данной ситуации и правильному оформлению речевого высказывания.

18. *Рецептивный грамматический минимум* – грамматические явления, которые учащиеся должны понимать на слух при чтении.

19. *Рецептивный грамматический навык* - это автоматизированное действие по узнаванию и пониманию морфологических форм и синтаксических конструкций в письменном и устном тексте. (С.Ф. Шатилов).

20. *Индуктивный путь* введения грамматического материала предполагает движение мысли от частного к общему, от анализа речевых ситуаций и предложений к выведению грамматических правил.

21. *Дедуктивный путь* введения грамматического материала подразумевает движение мысли от общего к частному, от объяснения грамматических правил к анализу грамматических явлений в речевых образцах.

22. *Аудирование* - рецептивный вид речевой деятельности, содержание и цель которого составляет восприятие и понимание речи на слух в момент её порождения.

23. ***Навыки восприятия речи на слух*** - доведенные до автоматизма действия по восприятию, узнаванию, прогнозированию языковых средств звучащей иноязычной речи, которые обеспечивают её понимание.
24. ***Аудированные умения*** - умения воспринимать и понимать содержание и смысл иноязычного высказывания с первого предъявления на слух в условиях реального общения.
25. ***Понимание на уровне значений*** - понимание основных фактов иноязычного сообщения, умение ответить на вопросы: Кто? Что? Когда? и др.
26. ***Понимание на уровне смысла*** - понимание замысла авторов текста, подтекста и его оценка слушающими.
27. ***Диалогическая речь*** - сочетание устных высказываний последовательно порождаемых двумя или более собеседниками в непосредственном акте общения, которое характеризуется общностью ситуации и речевых намерений говорящих (В.Л. Скалкин).
28. ***Реплика*** - отдельное высказывание одного из собеседников, связанное с другими высказываниями в структуре диалога.
29. ***Диалогическое единство*** - соединение реплик, принадлежащим разным собеседникам, характеризующееся структурной, интонационной и содержательной законченностью (И.Д. Шевцова).
30. ***Монологическое высказывание сверхфразового уровня*** - несколько предложений, построенных по разным структурно-функциональным моделям и объединенных между собой ситуацией и логико-смысловой программой высказывания.
31. ***Монологическое высказывание текстового уровня*** - текст, состоящий из несколько микромонологов, характеризующийся смысловой и языковой связанностью и композиционной завершенностью.
32. ***Чтение*** как рецептивный вид речевой деятельности - это процесс зрительного восприятия печатного текста и его понимание с различной степенью полноты точности и глубины.
33. ***Техника чтения*** - владение буквенно-звуковыми соответствиями, умение объединять воспринимаемый материал в смысловые группы (синтагмы) и правильно оформлять их интонацию.
34. ***Ознакомительное чтение*** протекает в быстром темпе и предусматривает извлечение основной информации текста.
35. ***Изучающее чтение*** предусматривает максимально полное и точное понимание всей содержащейся в тексте информации.
36. ***Просмотровое чтение*** предполагает получение самого общего представления о содержании текста (статьи, книги).
37. ***Письмо*** - процесс овладения каллиграфией и орфографией иностранного языка для фиксации языкового и речевого материала.
38. ***Письменная речь -*** вид речевой деятельности, целью которого является изложение мыслей в письменной форме (письмо, сочинение и т.д.).
39. ***Контроль в обучении иностранному языку*** - это выявление уровня сформированости речевых навыков и умений, определение характера протекания этого процесса, диагностика трудностей, испытываемых

учащимися, и проверка эффективности используемых приемов и способов обучения (С.Ф. Шатилов).

40. **Аспектизация** в обучении - aspects approach in teaching
41. **Аудирование -** auding/ hearing/ listening comprehension
42. **Двуязычие** - bilingualism; проблема двуязычья - bilingual problem
43. **Индивидуализация** в обучении - individualization in teaching
44. **Индивидуальные** особенности - individual peculiarities; индивидуальные способности - individual abilities; индивидуальное обучение - individual instruction; индивидуальный подход – individual/divided approach; индивидуальный план – individual plan.
45. **Содержание** обучения - content of teaching; содержание урока – content of lesson; содержание текста - content of a text; краткое содержание - summary; усложнять содержание- increase the complexity of content.

CONTENTS

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