

**THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIAL
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**ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
METHODOLOGY**

(theory and practice)

Coursebook

*for students of specialized departments of the universities and
institutes*

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The Coursebook «English Language Teaching Methodology» is intended to develop professional competence of the English department students. It consists of three parts dedicated to 1) theory and history of foreign language teaching, 2) teaching communicative skills and 3) organization of teaching process.

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Darslik ingliz tili fakultetlari talabalarining kasbiy kompetensiyasini shakllantirishga mo'ljallangan. U uch qismdan iborat: 1) chet tillarni o'qitish qisqacha tarixi va nazariyasi, 2) nutq malakalarini o'rgatish va 3) o'quv jarayonini tashkil etish.

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Учебник предназначен для овладения профессиональной компетенцией студентами факультетов английского языка. Он состоит из трех разделов: 1) краткий обзор истории и теории преподавания иностранного языка, 2) обучение коммуникативным умениям, 3) организация процесса обучения.

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PREFACE

The President of the Republic of Uzbekistan adopted the Resolution «On measures of further improving the system of foreign language learning» (December 10, 2013 № 1875). In order to realize the topical tasks put in the Resolution foreign languages specialists have done a lot, particularly, new State Educational Standard, teaching Curricula and Syllabuses were worked out. Many teaching aids are being created.

The coursebook English Language Teaching Methodology (theory and practice) is intended to develop professional competence of the English department students of the universities and institutes who are specializing as nonnative English teachers of the secondary school, academic lyceum and professional college.

The book offers comprehensive and meaningful overview of current theoretical and practical material of foreign language teaching for successful training English teachers.

The book consists of three parts: I. Introductory Section (Theoretical and Historical Issues). II. Teaching the Four main Language Skills in English at School, Lyceum and College. III. Organization of the English Teaching Process at School, Lyceum and College. At the end of the coursebook the reader may find Bibliography with the List of Literature for Further Reading (in English, Uzbek, Russian) and Glossary. Each part comprises some chapters and paragraphs.

In writing the coursebook the following authors took part: professor Jamol Jalolov (Tashkent State Pedagogical University), doctor of pedagogical sciences Gulnara Makhkamova (Uzbek State World Languages University), candidate of philological sciences Shahobiddin Ashurov (Samarkand State Institute of Foreign Languages).

The authors are personally indebted to Gavhar Tojieva, Zamira Abdujabborova, Umid Jumanazarov – the teachers of the Theory and methods of teaching English department (TSPU).

As it is the first book in methodology of foreign language teaching in the English language the authors will be thankful for any critical notes from English teachers.

Part I. THEORETICAL AND HISTORICAL ISSUES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

CHAPTER 1. Linguodidactic requirements to learning, teaching, and assessment of English as a general educational target subject at school, lyceum and college

1. Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment in the conditions of Uzbekistan

The questions to be discussed:

- 1.1. Document of «Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment».
- 1.2. Descriptors in the CEFR.
- 1.3. The modern model of teaching and learning English in Uzbekistan.
- 1.4. Communicative competence as a result of FL teaching and learning.

Key terms: CEFR, descriptors, learning, teaching, assessment, syllabus, curriculum, guideline, examination, coursebook, language proficiency, transparency of course, a single educational space, Modern languages, approach, multistage model of education, communicative competence

1.1. Document of «Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment»

The document of «Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment» (CEFR) was created by the Council of Europe¹.

¹ Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. The Council of Europe - Strasbourg, 1996. The final draft was published in 2001

The CEFR document is the result of a need for a common international framework for language learning facilitated co-operation among educational institutions in different countries. It was demanded to create a single and integrated educational space in Modern languages² teaching/learning and international standards of language assessment in European countries. The main function of this document was to provide a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curricula, guidelines, examination, and coursebooks across Europe. It also provided a method of assessing and teaching which was applied to all Modern languages in Europe.

Under the CEFR learning language proposes during a whole life as dynamic progression through all levels. That's why the aim of the CEFR is to designate standards to be reached to subsequent stages of teaching and learning Modern languages. This document has been accepted as a standard framework to be implemented also in many other countries, i.e. in every language teaching and learning context. The CEFR has been translated into at least 37 languages. The implication of this Framework in different countries is reflected in the development of National Curricula or State Educational Standards of FL.

The CEFR document enhances the transparency of courses, syllabuses and qualifications, thus promoting international co-operation in the field of Modern languages which requires mutual recognition of qualifications gained in different learning contexts and aids to promote students' mobility.

According to the CEFR, learners of every LT context should be facilitated to gain the particular proficiency level in a particular stage of learning.

In the CEFR the cultural context is observed in the language setting. Cultural context proposes taking into consideration the specificity of national condition of teaching and learning Modern languages, and the national-cultural features of the adjoined languages (learned and native languages).

²Note: By the Modern Languages they understand the foreign languages which are widely used for international communication.

Learning Modern languages through a whole life proposes six common reference levels of education:

C2	Mastery	Operational	Proficient user
C1	Effective Proficiency		
B2	Vantage	Threshold	Independent user
B1	Threshold		
A1	Waystage	Breakthrough	Basic user
A2	Breakthrough		

Acquiring each stage successively learners have real opportunity to communicate with people of other language contexts.

1.2. Descriptors in the CEFR

In the CEFR document the reference of six levels is given and designed as illustrative descriptors (scales) in the term of «*Can Do*» statements from level A1 to C2. These scales can be used as a tool for comparing levels of ability amongst learners of FL and also offer «a means to map the progress» of learners³. The descriptors are built to do two dimensions: 1) through a *vertical dimension* we see a progression through all levels; 2) through a *horizontal dimension* the different context of teaching and learning are presented. The common reference levels of CEFR⁴ are shown in the Table 1.

Table 1: Common Reference Levels (global)

C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarize information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
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³ Using the CEFR: Principles of Good Practice. -CUP, 2011. -P.8.

⁴ Ibid -P.8.

C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning. Can express him/her fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex texts on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
B2	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected texts on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

The scales given in the table are global and they are not exhaustive, because they are not taking into consideration every context of language use. The CEFR describes language learners' ability in terms of «speaking, listening, reading and writing» at six reference levels. The reference levels of FL are examined through communicative tasks and activities.

For national educational system the illustrated descriptors in CEFR are adapted or created with fitting the learned language, cultural context and a certain set of competences. Under the CEFR the result of LT is shown through a performance of a certain level of communicative competence (proficiency). The ways how to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills should be developed are stated thoroughly in this framework.

The Decree of President Islam Karimov «On measures for further improvement of foreign languages learning» (December 10, 2012)⁵ is a key factor for modernization of teaching foreign languages at all stages, in which the importance of teaching and learning English across the country were pointed out. Taking account this derivative document the competence-based teaching was implemented in the Uzbekistan system of FLT.

This approach is an educational movement that refers to the outcomes of learning in the development of language programs and language skills of students. The essence of this approach is a new content-based on forming and developing a set of learners' competences. The process of acquiring this content brings action-oriented character. Language use, embracing language learning, comprises the actions performed by learners who as individuals and as social agents develop a range of competences, both general and particular all components of the communicative competence. The core of this approach is interpreted as students draw on the competences at their disposal in various contexts under various conditions and under various constraints to engage in language activities involving language processes to produce and/or receive texts in relation to themes in specific domains, activating those strategies which seem most appropriate for carrying out the tasks to

⁵ http://www.uzbekembassy.in/news/april_2013.htm

be accomplished⁶. The monitoring of these actions by the participants leads to the reinforcement or modification of their competences.

The main feature of this approach is orientation to results of FLT/L fixed in the State Educational Standard. For this purpose descriptors what the learners should know and can be put on the curriculum in the result are worked out⁷.

1.3. The modern model of teaching and learning English in Uzbekistan

In Uzbekistan ELT is seen as a career in a field of educational specialization: it requires a specialized knowledge base obtained through both academic study and practical experience. Nowadays the demonstration of a certain level of proficiency in English as component of certification is required.

In Uzbekistan the multistage model of FLT has been worked out on the basis of continuous, succession, taking into consideration the international standards, and localization of EL teaching and learning methodology and materials (adapting to the national context). It is related to the well-known multilevel model of FLT in the foreign countries.

The domestic multistage model of continuous and successive FLT includes the following levels of FL⁸ given in the Table 2.

Table 2. The stages and levels of FL

Educational stage	Classes	Levels according to CEFR
Primary and secondary education	1-4 forms at school	A1
	5-9 forms at school	A2
	Language-oriented schools	A2+

⁶ Using the CEFR: Principles of Good Practice - CUP, 2011. -P.14.

⁷ Ўзбекистон Республикаси узлуксиз таълим тизимининг Давлат стандарти// Халқ таълими. 4/2013. -Б. 5-6.

⁸ Ўзбекистон Республикаси узлуксиз таълим тизимининг Давлат стандарти// Халқ таълими. 4/2013. -Б. 5-6.

Special secondary education	Academic lyceums 1-3 courses	B1
	Vocational colleges	
	Language-oriented academic lyceums	B1+
Higher education	Bachelor degree non-linguistic institutes and universities	B2
	Master degree non-linguistic institutes and universities	
	The second language in Bachelor and Master degree institutions and universities	
	Bachelor degree linguistic institutes and universities	C1
	Master degree linguistic institutes and universities	

School education falls apart into two stages: 1) the primary education (1-4 forms) and 2) the secondary education (5-9 forms). Education at academic lyceums is considered as upper secondary education. At vocational colleges ELT concerns 1) General English and 2) English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). ESP is traditionally associated with study at college and non-linguistic institute and university. In the Uzbek educational system study at lyceum and college is considered as a profile education: 1) study at academic lyceum provides intensive development of intellectual abilities, deep, differentiated and vocational-oriented education. after academic lyceums they can continue further education at institutes and universities, or undertake some job; 2) study at vocational college provides deep development of professional abilities, obtaining one of the professions, graduates of professional colleges get certificate of a junior specialist. Teaching and learning English at this stage of education demands study of general English and English for specific purposes, i.e. to develop both the language competency, study skills which will help them to succeed in further education and occupation/job.

The higher education provides training of qualified specialists at the Bachelor and Masters' degree departments (Pre-service FL training). The Table above does not present post-graduate education (institution of senior scientific personnel and researches) and upgrading courses of In-service teachers training and retraining to change a qualification.

The domestic model of education has the following advantages:

1) Introducing the primary and post-graduate education, that contributes to work out the successive structure and content of FLT. Succession provides systematic and continuous content in FLT, an absence in doubling transitive components of FLT content from one stage to another one. Multistage and gradual character of the process of cognition is reflected in the FL progress. But at the same time the post-graduate education is not stopped, this model is intended to the life-long independent-learning (self-study) of FL.

2) Taking into consideration the international standards for the evaluation the language level (communicative competence) at all stages gives the opportunity to enter into the world education space. The CEFR levels and descriptors are adapted to the social context of Uzbekistan, especially to each stage, aim and objectives, etc. Accounting the CEFR, levels are reflected in the FLT content and requirements to the language levels as the result of FLT.

3) Localization of EL teaching and learning materials. English teaching materials come from different places, where English is a native or an official language, or a foreign language. Material from these countries does not reflect the learning style, cultural values and local conditions of Uzbekistan, as a result, students' motivation suffers and they become reluctant to interact in class and share opinions or ideas. Localization of the EL teaching and learning methodology and teaching materials is based on the idea that relevant contexts and balance between local and foreign cultural concepts and images naturally can improve ELT. The new model of education has required creation of new curricula, syllabuses and coursebooks accordingly local and foreign contexts to provide rich opportunity for teachers to explain non-native cultural items, in addition of using localized content. It is very important for teachers to identify ways to best represent local culture and explain non-

native elements. Besides it is necessary to use humanizing material as activities which help to make the language learning process a more affective experience and finding ways of helping the learners to connect “what is in the book to what is in their minds”⁹. Thus, it is necessary to humanize the teaching materials.

In Uzbekistan authors of syllabuses, curricula, coursebooks and other guides try to humanize materials, present materials in real-life and culturally familiar language contexts and match the language instructions with students needs and personal preferences. All this allows expressing learners’ identity and empowers them to make a decision about what they need to learn.

The effectiveness of teachers’ pedagogical activity, at first, depends on acquiring the ideas of modernization. A modernization means: 1) changing the goal and results of education; application of modern methods and technologies in practice of teaching/learning; reworking out the state standards and curricula for EL teaching and learning. Thus, all components of methodical system of ELT should be modernized, particularly: 1) approaches and principles to EL teaching and learning; 2) goals of teaching and learning; 3) content of EL teaching and learning; 4) aids, methods and techniques; 4) ways and forms of control of the results of EL teaching and learning.

In our conditions the CEFR is used for development of the language policy to set minimum language requirements for a wide range of purposes, in curriculum planning, preparing coursebooks and development of methods of teaching and tools of evaluation. It is intended for dynamic progress in acquiring FL.

Within this scope, the efforts of teachers and learners at all levels of education are encouraged and supported by developing appropriate methods and teaching materials, appropriate forms and instruments for the evaluating of learning programs. «Research and development programs leading to the introduction, at all educational levels, of methods and materials best suited to enabling different

⁹ Tomplison B. Humanizing the Coursebook / In: Methodology and Material Design in Language Teaching: Current Perceptions and Practice and their Implications Ed W.A. Renandya. -Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, 2003. -P.13

classes and types of student are promoted to acquire a communicative proficiency appropriate to their specific needs»¹⁰. So in obtaining a communicative proficiency the importance of methods and teaching materials play an important role.

1.4. Communicative competence as a result of FL teaching and learning

In methodology the term «competence» is used as characteristics of the achieved level of the language proficiency. This term was introduced by N. Chomsky¹¹ to define an ability to fulfill some activity. D. Hymes introduced the concept of communicative competence as the ability to use the language they are learning appropriately in a given social encounter¹². This idea was taken by M. Canale and M. Swain, who developed and elaborated a model of communicative competence¹³. Then Van Ek applied it to FL acquisition and turned it into a fundamental concept in the development of communicative language teaching. In other words, with regard to FLT the term «competence» was developed in the frame of the researches done by the Council of Europe to ascertainment of the level of language proficiency. It was defined as ability for fulfillment some activity with the help of acquired knowledge, skills and experience. In the CEFR we can see models and domains of general and communicative competences the learner must acquire.

The aim of communicative methodology is to acquire the necessary sub-skills and skills to communicate in socially and culturally appropriate ways, that demands to focus on functions, role playing and real situations and other aspects in the learning process.

¹⁰ Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning Teaching Assessment. The Council of Europe. - Strasbourg, 1996. The final draft was published in 2001 -P 3.

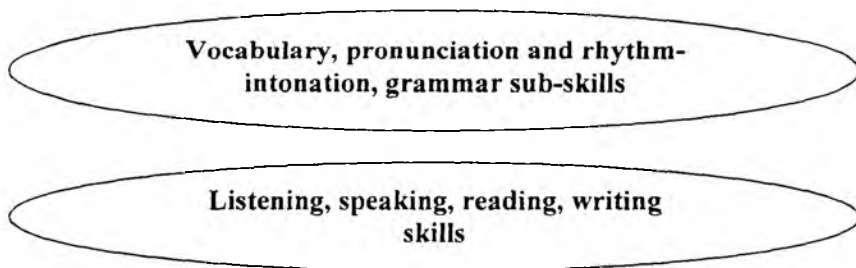
¹¹ Chomsky N. Syntactic Structures. -Mouton: The Hague, 1957; Chomsky N. Aspects of Theory of Syntax. -Cambridge, MA. MIT Press, 1965.

¹² Hymes D. Models of the Interaction of Language and Social Setting// Journal of Social Issues 1967, 23 (2). -Pp.8-38; Hymes D. On Communicative Competence / In Pride J.B., Holmes J. (eds.) Sociolinguistics: Selected Readings. -Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1972 -Pp.269-293

¹³ Canale M., Swain M. Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing// Applied Linguistics. 1980, 1 (1). -Pp. 1-48

That's why a communicative competence breaks down into major components of knowledge: 1) knowledge of the language and 2) knowledge of how to use the language. To be able to communicate, people need communicative skills. But for this purpose a learner must acquire language subskills (vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar) which can be appropriately used during representation of language (communicative) skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing (see Figure 1). H.G. Widdowson states that «Someone knowing a language knows more than how to understand, speak, read and write sentences. He also knows how sentences are used to communicative effect» and «the learning of a language involves acquiring the ability to compose correct sentences»¹⁴.

Figure 1. Language/communicative sub-skills and skills



The language skills include subskills (so called *language habits* in the domestic methodology) which are primary in the condition of out-language environment.

H.G. Widdowson distinguished two aspects of performance: 1) *usage* is one aspect which makes evident the context rules, 2) *use* is another aspect which makes evident the context of which the language user demonstrate his/her ability to use knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication¹⁵. Both these aspects of performance are required as «linguistic performance involves the

¹⁴ Widdowson H.G. Teaching Language and Communication. -OUP, 2011.

¹⁵ Widdowson. Ibid.

simultaneous manifestation of the language system as usage and its realization as use»¹⁶.

In the scientific literature on methodology various models of communicative competence¹⁷ have been presented. But in the current interpretation the communicative competence includes linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, strategic, socio-cultural, and social competences¹⁸.

1) *Linguistic competence*: the ability to produce and interpret meaningful utterances which are formed in accordance with the rules of the language concerned and bear their conventional meaning (that meaning which native speakers would normally attach to an utterance when used in isolation). This competence includes vocabulary, grammar, phonetic and phonological, stylistic knowledge.

2) *Sociolinguistic competence*: the awareness of ways in which the choice of language forms is determined by such conditions as setting, relationship between communication partners, communicative intentions, etc. This competence covers the relation between linguistic signals and their contextual/situational meaning.

3) *Discourse competence*: the ability to use appropriate strategies in the construction and interpretation of texts. It refers to selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, and utterances to achieve a unified spoken message. This is where the top-down communicative intent and socio-cultural knowledge intersect with the lexical and grammatical resources to express messages and attitudes and to create coherent texts.

4) *Strategic competence*: when communication is difficult we have to find ways of getting our meaning across or finding out what somebody means; these are communicative strategies, such as rephrasing, asking for clarification, etc.

¹⁶ Widdowson. Ibid.

¹⁷ Celce-Murcia M. Rethinking the Role of Communicative Competence in Language Teaching/ Soler E.A., Safond Jorda M.P. (eds). Intercultural Language Use and Language Learning. -Springer, 2007. - Pp.41-58.

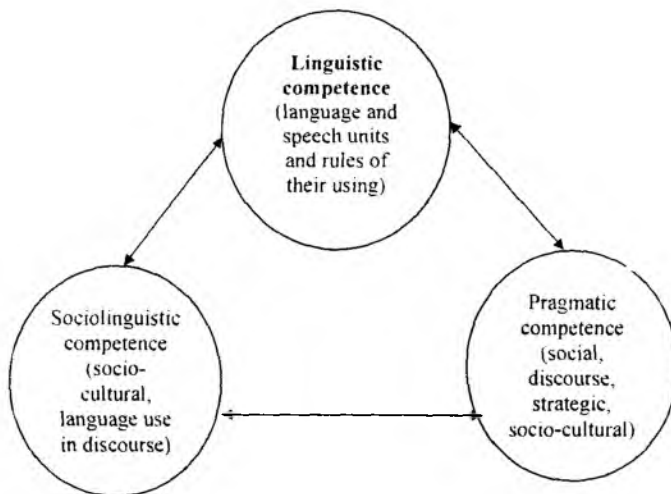
¹⁸ Van Ek J. Objectives for Foreign Languages Learning. Council of Europe. - Strasbourg, 1986. - Pp.33-65

5) *Socio-cultural competence*: every language is situated in a socio-cultural context and implies the use of a particular reference frame which is partly different from that of the FL learner; socio-cultural competence presupposes a certain degree of familiarity with that context. Socio-cultural competence refers to the speaker's pragmatic knowledge, i.e. how to express messages appropriately within the overall social and cultural context of communication. This includes knowledge of language variation with reference to socio-cultural norms of the target language

6) *Social competence*: involves both the will and the skill to interact with others, involving motivation, attitude, self confidence, empathy and the ability to handle social situations.

Communicative competence (proficiency) is a result of FLT so these components are refracted towards the six Reference levels in CEFR.

Figure 2. The domestic model of the Communicative competence



In our model the linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences are given (See Figure 2). Sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences envelop the other ones (discourse, socio-cultural, strategic, social competences) interrelated between each

other. Pragmatic competence concerns the knowledge of the functions or illocutionary forces imply in the utterance/discourse that are intended to be understood and produced, as well as the socio-contextual factors, strategies of communication that effect its appropriateness. It involves knowledge of cultural factors such as the rules of behavior that exist in the target language community as well as cross-cultural awareness, including differences and similarities in intercultural communication.

This model of communicative competence emphasizes the importance of four language skills since they are viewed as a manifestation of interpreting and producing a spoken or written piece of discourse (text +situation).

Questions:

1. What is the goal of the CEFR?
2. What do we mean by descriptors in the CEFR?
3. Why do we adapt the CEFR to the national context of Uzbekistan?
4. What terms are used for descriptors?
5. Can we say that we enter the international education space implementing the CEFR?
6. How can competence-based approach in the ELT be realized in the teaching documents?
7. What components of communicative competence do you now?
8. What are differences in terms «usage» and «use» as aspects of language performance?

Tasks:

1. Think about effectiveness of implementation of the CEFR in Uzbekistan. Make a brief report.
2. Speak about stages of the domestic model of education.
3. Discuss in the group the principles of the domestic multistage model of EL teaching and learning.

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4. Analyse the content and requirements of the State Educational Standard of ELT¹⁹ in the term of knowledge, skills and teaching material. Summarize and find out the progress in the results of education at schools, academic lyceums and colleges.

Independent work:

1. Study information about the CEFR and descriptors in the Internet Resources:

UCLES/Cambridge University Press (2011) *English Profile: Introducing the CEFR for English*, available online at <http://www.englishprofile.org/images/pdf/theenglishprofilebooklet.pdf>.

Council of Europe: www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic

www.coe.int;

www.CambridgeESOL.org;

ALTE (2002) *The ALTE Can Do Project* (English version), available online:

www.alte.org/downloads/index.php?doctypeid=10

English Profile: www.englishprofile.org

IELTS: www.ielts.org

2. Do you agree or disagree with the statement: “Increasing freedom of movement and of labour within European Community may mean that those who learn a FL at school feel more able to take advantage of the range of vocational opportunities available in particular countries”.

3. Study the given below information about interactive competence (taken from the work by Celce-Murcia²⁰). Is interactive competence reflected in the described models of communicative competence? What components of communicative competence are related to this one?

¹⁹ Ўзбекистон Республикаси узлуксиз таълим тизимининг Давлат стандарти// Халқ таълими. 4/2013. -Б. 8-32.

²⁰ Celce-Murcia M. Rethinking the Role of Communicative Competence in Language Teaching/ Soler E.A. Safond Jorda M.P. (eds). Intercultural Language Use and Language Learning. -Springer, 2007. - Pp.48-49

Within the communicative competence *the interactive competence* can be singled out as an extremely important one for communication. It is known that the typical performance of speech acts and speech act sets can differ in important ways from language to language. It is important for learners to understand how to manage social introductions, how to complain, how to apologize, if they are going to achieve communicative competence in the target language. This competence includes at least three sub-components:

**Action competence*: knowledge how to perform common speech acts and speech act sets in the TL involving interactions such as information exchange, interpersonal exchange, expression of opinions and feelings, problems (complaining, blaming, regretting, apologizing, etc.), future scenarios (hopes, goals, promises, predictions, etc.).

**Conversational competence* includes dialogical genres: 1) how to open and close conversations; 2) how to establish and change topics; 3) how to get, hold and relinquish the floor; 4) how to interrupt; 5) how to collaborate and backchannel, etc.

**Non-verbal/paralinguistic competence* includes: 1) *kinesics* (body language), non-verbal turn-taking signals, backchannel behaviors, gestures, affect markers, eye contact; 2) *proxemics* (use of space interlocutors); 3) *haptic behavior* (touching); 4) *non-linguistic utterances* with interactional import (e.g. *Ahhh, uh-oh, Huh?*) the role of silence and pauses.

The action competence must mesh with the more general communicative rules of conversational competence related to the turn-taking system in the TL. Language also depends on how they open and close conversations and on other conversational conventions: *Can speakers interrupt each other? How long should pauses last? What is the normal physical space between speakers? Can speakers touch each other? Do speakers make and sustain direct eye contact with each other? Do speakers greet each other with bow, a hand-shake, a hug, a kiss on one or both cheeks, or in some other ways? What do speakers do when taking leave?* These questions raise important issues in intercultural communication. You should remember that normal conversational practice in one culture is often construed as a rude behavior in another.

2. Goals of teaching English at schools, lyceums and colleges

The questions to be discussed:

2.1. The category “goals of FL teaching and learning”.

2.2. Practical and cultural goals of EL teaching and learning.

2.3. Educational and developmental goals of EL teaching and learning.

Key terms: goal, objective, means, practical, educational, cultural, developmental, skill, language units/items, motivation, performance

2.1. The category “goals of FL teaching/learning”

Any kind of goal comes out of the required needs. Goal is the plod of planned results and consequences of imagination.

If one is asked why English is taught at schools, the answer may be that it is taught because of practical, educational, cultural and developmental needs to achieve special goals. Educational goal comes out of a social order-task and it is oriented to formation and bringing up comprehensive intelligent individuals. Goals of teaching English have always been under discussion in different methodological works. In the second half of the last century, the terms *practical*, *educational* and *cultural goal* of teaching and learning English have been explained according to the requirements of society²¹. In the 80s another term such as a developmental goal of teaching appeared²². A detailed analysis of this term was given by the well-known training specialist G.V.Rogova²³.

According to requirements of the State educational standards, the main goal of teaching a foreign language is to form communicative competence of learners at all levels with the aim of enabling them to express their ideas in daily work, including scientific and professional activities. Competences are divided into

²¹ Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. // Под ред. Рахманова И.В., Миролюбова А.А., Цетлин В.С. – М.: Просвещение, 1967. –С. 19-37.

²² Программы средней школы. Иностранные языки. – М.: Просвещение, 1983. –С. 2.

²³ Рогова Г.В., Верещагина И.Н. Методика обучения английскому языку на начальном этапе в средней школе. – М.: Просвещение, 1988. –С. 34-37.

several groups – linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic, which we'll analyze according to the goals of teaching a foreign language. All these competences are directed at practical usage of mastered knowledge, ability and skills. Goals of teaching English are determined by the requirements of school, lyceum and college syllabus to achieve the final level of knowledge, sub-skills and skills by students as a result of learning the English language.

Goals of the English language teaching are determined by the tasks of all-round development of an individual and up-bringing of students as well as by requirements of the syllabus of a certain type of an educational stage.

There are four goals of the English language teaching:

- Practical
- Cultural
- Educational
- Developmental.

2.2. Practical and cultural goals of EL teaching and learning

The students mastering FL as means of communication should be able to use the language in the oral and written forms of speech. The requirements for practical mastery in language subskills (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar) and skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) are represented in the curriculum and syllabus for every stage. The State educational standard stresses that the learners should have a communicative competence which presupposes an adequate proficiency in a FL as a means of communication, instruction and independent learning.

It is necessary to distinguish between long-term goals, interim aims and short-term objectives which help the teacher formulate concrete, specific tasks for the lesson or part of it.

The length of the course, the number of hours and the complement of the group are also accounted for in achieving practical goals. The time budget for language learning is the main factor in mastering and maintaining language proficiency. Learning a FL enables the pupils to acquire new means of perceiving and expressing their thoughts about objects, notions, phenomena and

their relationships. As a means of communication the target language faces some restrictions in terms of verbal means appropriate for a definite situation or occasion (register). Therefore verbal behaviour of the learners is limited by a topical selection of material.

As learners should master a FL as a means of communication, they should know how to use it in oral and written forms within the scope outlined in the curriculum/syllabus. As far as a FL is a mandatory subject in the curriculum, the responsibility lies upon the teacher to ensure the anticipated results in each purposeful activity and form of communication.

But the ability to communicate in any language consists of a number of subsidiary skills such as enunciation, accentuation, fluency and prosody. Learning a FL adds to students' mental powers, sharpens their wits, develops their intelligence and broadens their outlook.

Language study is essentially a subskill and skill-forming process and an important stage in this process is the elementary stage. If we do not ensure subskills of accurate observation, reproduction, and imitation during the first stage, it is doubtful whether we shall ever secure them subsequently.

The function of the primary (elementary) stage is to inculcate good subskills in a systematic way, and once this work is done there is little or no fear of learners going astray in their later work. If we take care of the primary stage, the next stage will take care of itself.

Every technique, method, exercise, drill or device should be used which may further the learners in their immediate purpose and bring them nearer to their ultimate goal. Adopt every good idea and leave the door open for all future developments: reject nothing except useless and harmful forms of work. This approach favours a communicative method of FLT for it embodies the most appropriate means towards the required end – the mastery of four areas of linguistic ability.

And finally, practical aims encompass certain volumes of language material: phonetic, lexical and grammatical items. Some of this material is subject to reproductive assimilation, some – to

perceptive; these are also known as active and passive language material.

The goal envisages a guideline, i.e. strategy of teaching and is accomplished during solving of a number of specific tasks which act as tactics. They determine the learners' activities, their work with basic and ancillary means of instruction, inculcation of sub-skills (phonetic, grammatical, lexical, orthographic, etc.) and ability to understand English, to read aloud and silently, and to speak within a set range of situations.

It should be mentioned that the achievement of practical goals in FLT makes possible the realization of educational, cultural and developmental ones.

So, learning a FL is understood as a goal and as a means of instruction with clear-cut, short, interim and ultimate objectives, rational planning of all types of activity with special emphasis on communicative competence at all levels of teaching/learning.

As we know educational and cultural developments go together.

Cultural goal makes a substantial contribution:

- to developing pupils' linguistic outlook, as they get acquainted with some phenomena which are not typical of their mother-tongue (e.g. tenses, articles, EL word order);

- to developing pupils' communicative abilities;

- to widening pupils' communicative vision of the world, as it enables them to get acquainted with the life, customs and traditions of the people whose language they study;

- to developing pupils' intellect, their voluntary and involuntary memory, their imaginative abilities, logical thinking, etc.

The cultural goal is achieved within:

- the critical, patient and creative attitude to oneself and others, to a new culture, event, knowledge;

- the development of different character traits, outlooks, beliefs, moral-esthetic and emotional experience, different kinds of motivation and the abilities to use them to contribute successfully into the process of real and pedagogical communication;

- the development of the awareness of the new activities, new people civilizations;

- the development of the desire to cooperate and socialize;

- the keeping cultural traditions of one's own country and understanding and respect others'; to compare different cultures, to express a personal point of view on other cultures, problems as well as to use the knowledge obtained from other subjects.

It is important to point out and note down that cultural goals are realized within the process of achieving practical objectives.

No doubt, education pays attention to the discipline; the idea of bringing up or being brought up can't be imagined without education. Every school subject has its own place in bringing up pupils. One of the four objectives of teaching the English language is the cultural goal. Teachers and methodist-scholars of the English language have always paid great attention to it. A lot of materials about disciplining have been published in different journals.

In methodology of the cultural goal of teaching the English language is described as giving pupils ideological-political culture, formation of skills to brainwork, developing their knowledge activity. The cultural goal can be achieved in two ways. The first one is observation pupils' training in the course of the teaching process.

The second instructive way of finding a means of achieving the cultural goal is in using language materials. For example, being respective to the partner while talking, using polite words and phrases (thank you, you are welcome and etc.) reciting poems, discussing together each others' activity or interpreting mutual friends' work in the English language. These activities lead the pupils to culture.

The news taken from English audio or graphical texts is one of the unequal means of instruction. The idea of texts should coincide with the content of the programme and satisfy cultural needs of learners.

At the primary level of teaching new information is delivered basing on micro texts, at the higher levels the extract of manuals related to artistic, political, bringing up and sport events are given to read and the information described in these books is useful to pupils and improve their background knowledge. There are lots of extracts in textbooks and manuals which educate pupils to obtain high-principled-political ideas. The content of the texts about great

thinkers or philosophers, scientists, spacemen, heroes of labor gives positive results in training pupils. The graphics and audio texts related to the dates which are shown separately in the calendar have also a great educative influence.

The cultural goal can be carried out in the process of out-of-class activities, groups united by the same interests organized in the class of a foreign language.

The role of educational arrangements with invitation of foreign guests, teachers or visitors, friendly meetings with the members of embassies is matchless.

The English language is the main factor in providing different deals related to the types of bringing up. Textbook/course-books are considered the primary means of pedagogical activity.

Thus in the process of teaching the English language great attention is paid to the upbringing of pupils.

The cultural goal of learning a foreign language intends to form students' world outlook, ideological conviction, patriotism, morality, self-responsibility for occurring around and aesthetic and spiritual development of the individual. To achieve this goal it is necessary to use all means: contents (the presence of various problems), organizations (discussion of these issues and their interpretation). In this respect the potential is unlimited, it is important not only to define good intentions but to identify concrete ways to implement them both during lessons and in extra-curricular work.

2.3. Educational and developmental goals of EL teaching and learning

The practical and cultural goals are closely connected with the educational one because FLL advances moral and aesthetic education. Teachers and methodologists pay much attention to educational capacities in the teaching and learning process. Of great importance is the linguistic aspect – the contextual side of the material in the foreign language: texts, exercises, ostensive and audio-visual materials used in the classroom, outside school hours, and independent learning.

The psychological factor is no less important because speech activity and the information it carries largely depends on the following circumstances: whether the learner works willingly, with interest, independently; which skill is practiced, whether the tasks are heuristic by nature; whether the learner can use obtained experience; whether the skills acquired at other subjects are applicable in this lesson, etc.

The goal of education is to develop individuals who adhere to definite moral principles, value knowledge and learning, can and will be able to think and find out things for themselves.

Learning, as we know, is a function of the total involvement and is the result of interactive process with students and teachers having an influence on the outcomes of such interaction.

Thus, learning a FL adds to the learners' mental powers, sharpens their wits, develops their intelligence and contributes to their general outlook.

Classroom language experiences should be functional. Language use and study should fulfill purposes that are meaningful and obvious to pupils. Repeated interaction with classical literature also increases pupils' sensitivity to social, cultural dynamics and to the emotional needs of others. The teacher's role and attitude should be consistent with educational goals. "Consistency" here is one of trusting, i.e. respecting students' opinions and desires towards fairness. The "consistency" here is between having a rule and applying it in the same manner with all people including one's own.

The "consistency" here is treating offenders with respect while demanding improvement. For example, it is inconsistent to shout at students when admonishing them for arguing loudly with each other or to resort to ridicule and derogatory personal remarks when reprimanding students for their disrespectful treatment of others. It is wise to respond to offences with opening remarks, such as: "It is not like you to say this...", or "I realize you didn't want things to happen in this way..." rather than "I knew you couldn't be expected to act more rationally..."

We should act on a belief that all persons are capable of growth and improvement; it is worthwhile to make the best possible use of our time. We should start each student's day with a clean slate and not

allowing ourselves to become cynical about the intentions or the potential breakdowns on the part of our students to respond to fair treatment. We should act in accordance with an ethical framework that reflects qualities such as honesty, integrity, compassion, and the right to dissent responsibly.

Education in its broadest sense means helping our learners to be intelligent, knowledgeable, well-integrated persons. Such education can be provided in the school situation only by enthusiastic, caring, sensitive, humane and competent teachers. While teaching is a science, it is primarily an art which teachers bring into their classrooms. The teachers' dedication, love for their profession, their students makes every hour a stimulating, motivating experience – one which the student will look forward to with the keenest anticipation.

Thus, the educational goal of learning the English language helps learners to develop their logical thinking, to improve memory and to raise the level of knowledge and general culture. It covers linguistic, psychological and social factors which are purposefully realized in the personality's viewpoints, convictions, relations and qualities.

The educational goals can be achieved by means of:

- selection of language material;
- successful organization and conduction of the English language lesson and an effective combination of its main components;
- choice of visual aids;
- the teacher's manners and appearance;
- teaching learners to work with books on their own, i.e. independently.

The **developmental goal** of teaching the English language is recently admitted as a scientific category in methodology of FLT. However, it is very difficult to find relevant instructional materials related to this goal. There is brief information about the developmental goal in the book written by G.V. Rogova and I.N. Vereshagina.

The main idea of the developmental goal is how to teach a learner:

- to develop the learners' creativity, intellectual and cognitive abilities;

- to develop different types of memory (visual/audio, short/long-termed, voluntary/involuntary), attention, skills, necessary for creative activities;

- to develop mechanisms of anticipation, predicting, guessing, etc.;

- to develop the learners' initiative, logical thinking. These are abilities concerning to start, to go on and to finish their communication.

Learning a FL leads to new horizons of linguistic competence where graphic, phonetic, lexical and grammatical items come into play. Such learning develops logical thinking of the learners because knowledge acquisition is related to such categories as analysis, synthesis, comparison, deduction, and others. This process is also related to the work of the aural, visual, kinesthetic, and motor analyzers aspects. They have a direct impact on the development of memory as the learners have to memorize lists of words, word-combinations, phrases, models of sentence building as well as their use in communication.

Books, textbooks offer ample opportunities to develop pupils' Gnostic abilities. They learn a lot of interesting things about the countries, cities, events, historical places, schools, traditions, holidays and famous people (statesmen, public figures, and travelers), etc.

A well-organized, purposeful activity guided by the teachers and performed independently can ensure motivation – a positive interest, a desire and a greater willingness to learn a FL.

The developmental goal proposes developing of language intuition, language guessing, memory, logics (analysis, synthesis, comparison, sensory perception, motivational sphere, communicative skills; individual qualities such as hardworking, will, purposefulness, and activity).

In general the developmental goals of FLT concern development of interdisciplinary and supra-disciplinary subskills and skills (informative, communicative, and academic) and

developing of intellectual abilities without which it is impossible to use the obtained knowledge and skills in the real life.

It is emphasized that all goals of teaching the English language are interrelated and interdependent.

The practical, educational, cultural and developmental goals of teaching the English language are bound with each other. But at the same time the practical goal occupies the dominant position. The goals of the EL teaching and learning can be summarized in the given below chart.

Table 3. Goals of EL teaching and learning

Goals of EL teaching and learning			
Practical goal: to learn to communicate in the English language (speaking, listening and writing)	Cultural goal: to form students world outlook, ideological conviction, patriotism, morality, self-responsibility for occurring around and aesthetic and spiritual development of the individual.	Developmental goal: to develop intellectual, sensory and motivated peculiarities	Educational goal: to develop memory and logical thinking; to ascend pupils' levels of knowledge and general culture.

Questions:

1. How do you explain the term “goal of teaching and learning?”
2. What are the main goals of teaching English?
3. How can the practical goal of teaching English be carried out during the lesson?
4. What are the tasks of the cultural goal of teaching English?
5. What kind of interconnection is there between these goals?
6. Give the explanation of terms “goal” and “means”?

Tasks:

1. Identify practical, educational, cultural and developmental goals of any lesson's topic, for instance "My favorite writer".

2. Here are some questions to be discussed. Read them and give your own opinions.

What do you think ...

*The main focus in a language class should be on meaning or on grammar.

*Language learners need immediate or long-term rewards.

*The language classroom should have plenty of meaningful or rote learning.

*A teacher's feedback to students should be given frequently or infrequently, so students will develop independence.

*A communicative class should give special attention to accuracy or fluency.

* Language learners learn best by using plenty of analysis or intuition.

3. Various writers have attempted to establish lists of individual characteristics which have some bearing on FL learning. Tick the most important for successful mastering English. You can add other items.

Ability or aptitude ____

Learning style ____

Motivation ____

Independent work:

1. Look through these sites for further information. Write down your own notes on the topic.

1. <http://mousavia.CurrentTrends in the Teaching>

2. <http://www.cuc.edu>. Principles_of_Language_Learning_and_Teaching

3. www.cuhk.edu.hk/ajelt; <http://www.chineseupress.com/>

3. Content of teaching English at school, lyceum and college

The questions to be discussed:

- 3.1. Theoretical problems of FLT content.
- 3.2. Content components of teaching English.
- 3.3. Content of teaching language material.
- 3.4. The content of ELT at schools, lyceums, colleges.

Key terms: content, language material, language minimum, cultural, developmental, skills, sub-skills, language units/items, motivation, performance

3.1. Theoretical problems of ELT content

One of the essential categories of FLT is the content or what to teach. In the teaching process there are different ideas of training specialists on the problem what to teach and mostly they are opposite to each other²⁴. One of these matters for discussion is what should be taught, and the second one – what is the content of teaching itself?

Some training specialists recommend making a distinction between language and speech materials²⁵. In M. West's opinion "a language is not a subject which can be taught, it is a subject which must be learnt". Language acquisition largely depends on systematic work that would bring satisfaction from this occupation and the feeling of progress. What the learners need are useful ideas, suggestions, explanations, demonstrations and examples of learning strategies which are consistent with current achievements in the field of FLT.

Discussion of problematic matters gives us an evidence to say it is impossible to determine the content of FLT without referring to linguistics — a science that deals with the study of languages as a

²⁴ Рогова Г.В. Содержание обучения иностранному языку // Иностранные языки в школе, 1974, № 3, Шатиришвили Ш.А. Основы содержания обучения иностранным языкам в национальной школе. –Тбилиси: Изд-во Тбилисского ун-та, 1981; Лапидус Б.А. Проблемы содержания обучения языку в языковом вузе –М., ВШ, 1986, Джалалов Д.Д. Проблемы содержания обучения иностранному языку –Ташкент: - Фан 1987.

²⁵ Рогова С.В. и др. Методика обучения иностранному языку в средней школе - М: Просвещение, 1991.

definite system of codes. Thus, linguistics describes the standard use of the language, a set of rules, which covers this use. It also studies the usage, i.e. the way people use words and expressions in speaking and writing, as well as stylistic means, phonological, morphological, syntactical and lexical items.

Consequently, the dichotomy between language and speech plays an important role in FLT. Language is a system of signs and speech is a manifestation of this language system in concrete communicative acts. Both language and speech make up two sides of the same phenomenon, one whole, and at the same time each of them has specific units.

Language units include phonemes, morphemes, words, phraseological units, sentences, and texts. These language elements are organized on formal-semantic principles. Speech units include utterances of various lengths where language elements are organized on a semantic-communicative principle. In other words, speech units refer to a specific situation of communication.

According to opinion of training specialists, educational categories such as knowledge, experience, skills should be added to the content of teaching English too. There should be a clear demand, which helps to find the opposite sides and be analyzed as follows: it can be easily proved that a text cannot be added to the content of teaching. When you hear about themes of speech, remember that, the content of them should be taken into account. The theme is a general determination for getting information. It can be seen that the news can be expressed or received in the text. This means, information is the content of the text, while the text describes the theme. The theme is the cause and the text is the result, in its turn the text is the cause and information is the result. Therefore the theme is considered as one of the inseparable parts of the FLT.

Content components are connected with the goal of ELT. The goal determines the content because the content is acquired during the lessons and the result of each lesson depends on the predefined goal. The practical goal of teaching English clarifies how to use some particular language materials in communication, i.e. within which borders and in what capacity. So, the area (topic) of speech is defined. There are three phenomena such as, themes of speech

(subjective side of the speech), language sub-skills and skills (procedural side) and language materials (objective side of learning) played a major role for improving the content of teaching English which must be discussed.

Some training specialists think that the content of FLT includes: a) exercises of different types; b) texts for oral and written work; c) laboratory exercises; d) topical selection of material²⁶. The term of “exercise” is usually used with the aim to master language sub-skills and communicative skills in all speech activities. Exercises are organized as a system or complex directed to development of language sub-skills and skills. Exercises are usually shaped with the language material and task performing to achieve the practical goal. Therefore materials for exercises are taken from the content of teaching. Thus content of teaching is the foundation, source and object of exercises.

The content of FLT involves a dialectical unity of all specifically arranged teaching materials, teaching/learning process, sub-skills and skills, and common essential learning.

The terms “knowledge”, “experience” and “skill” came into this category by accident which are considered stable and substantiated terms in educational system. A language is taught for communication and via communication. As knowledge is absorbed within communicative activity, so a teacher does not conduct a lecture about language. At the same time knowledge in the content of FLT can take a role of, for example, socio-cultural knowledge. The assimilation and assessment of the achieved results connected with the skills and experience. Content of FLT includes knowledge and skills as well as experience. It is mentioned that, the skill is a step for experience that’s why experience is considered the final.

The aforementioned makes it possible to conclude that in FLT at school it is necessary to proceed from speech to language sequence, i.e. to teach the language via speech in real life situations.

The final purpose of ELT is development of abilities for usage and using language in different situations of communication. On the

²⁶ Общая методика преподавания иностранных языков в средних специальных учебных заведениях: Учебное пособие/Под ред. Миролюбова А.А. и Парахиной А.В. – М.: ВШ. 1978. -264 с.

assumption of this the content of ELT from the subjective and procedural sides of speech activity can be presented in a following way: a) means of communication (phonetic, lexical, grammatical, country-study); b) knowledge – how to use these means in the process of communication; c) subskills and skills provide using them in communication which are developed in teaching/learning process; d) areas, themes, situations of communication within which the content of ELT can be realized; e) culture created the material basis of the ELT content.

3.2. Content components of teaching English

In the teaching process a teacher and students are main communicants so it is necessary to present ELT content within two systems.

The objects of teaching	The objects of learning (assimilation)
Language	Knowledge and subskills (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar)
Speech	Subskills (mechanics of speech production and perception)
Speech activity	Skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing
Culture	Knowledge and skills related to cultural awareness

The first component of the content of FLT is the linguistic one which includes language material (phonetic, grammatical, and lexical minima) and speech material (utterances of different lengths) to be used in real acts of communication.

The selection of linguistic material, the so-called minimum of vocabulary, minimum of grammar is circumscribed by the syllabus for secondary schools.

For organization of successive intercultural communication we should single out linguo-cultural material which integrates cultural content and cultural learning components²⁷ as domains:

- Cultural knowledge. Culturally marked lexical units (proverbs, sayings, tongue twisters, nursery rhymes, idioms, aphorisms and etc.)
- Cultural values. The ‘psyche’ of the country, what people think is important; it includes things like family, hospitality, patriotism, fairness etc.
- Cultural behavior. The knowledge of daily routines and behavior.
- Cultural skills. The development of intercultural sensitivity and awareness, using the English language as the medium of interaction.

These domains can be reflected in the structure and content of the cultural awareness, which is the foundation of communication and it involves the ability of to understand cultural values, beliefs and perceptions in both languages.

The second component of “what to teach” is a psychological one. We have already described the relation of methodology to other sciences, particularly methodology and psychology. It should be mentioned that dynamic stereotypes serve as psychological bases for subskills as automatic components of conscious activity formed as a result of drills or exercises. Language proficiency largely depends on the mastery of a system of speech subskills and skills. In language acquisition these are subskills in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary; skills in listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing.

Thus, a psychological component is related to the development of subskills and skills to use a FL for communicative purposes.

The third component of “what to teach” is an instructional one, i.e. rational approaches to FLT: the students should be taught how to

²⁷ Cortazzi M., Jin L. Cultural mirrors. Materials and methods in the EFL classrooms. // In: E. Hinkel ed. Culture in Second Language Teaching and learning. –Cambridge: CUP, 2007. –P. 196-219.

learn English, how to work on the subject to achieve the ultimate goals.

Thus, an understanding of current theories of language learning and the achievement of related sciences give all grounds to define the content of FLT in the following terms²⁸:

- 1) linguistic component covering language and speech material;
- 2) linguo-cultural component covering cultural-marked items and cultural information;
- 3) psychological component, which includes development of sub-skills and skills, as well as cultural awareness which enable the learners to use them for communicative purposes;
- 4) methodological/instructional component that is related to techniques and procedures derived from application of didactic principles.

The content of FLT can be general and special. As it is determined in the State education standard (SES) content of FLT consists of themes included into curriculum of schools and secondary special schools. In all types of education the learning material should provide continuity and succession. In the SES the content of ELT and requirements to a certain proficiency level are presented. But a language material for a certain language is specified. Language material for FLT content is selected taking into account difficulties of language items for assimilation and interference phenomenon.

Linguistic and psychological components can be described in another way suggested by J. Jalalov²⁹. There are three components of content teaching of the English language: speech themes and situations³⁰; language skills and language material. Determination of themes depends on the type of an educational establishment. The second component proposes developing language skills according to the curriculum requirements to a certain level of the language proficiency of students in listening, speaking, reading and writing.

²⁸ Рогова Г.В., Рабинович Ф.М., Сахарова Т.Е. Методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. - М.: Просвещение, 1991. -С.36-37; Фокина К.В., Тернова Л.Н., Костычева Н.В. Методика преподавания иностранного языка. Конспект лекций. - М.: ЮРАЙТ Высшее образование, 2009. -С.54-55.

²⁹ Jalalov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign language teaching methodology. -Т. Ўқитувчи, 2012

³⁰ The subjects of the content of FLT in the book: Гальскова Н.Д., Гез Н.И. Методика обучения иностранным языкам. Лингводидактика и методика. -М. Академия, 2007. -С.124-125.

One of the important problems of FLT content is selection. Present time selection of FLT content is organized taking into account purpose and stage of students. The main principles for selection are: 1) adequacy, sufficiency of content for achievement of the goal of teaching; 2) relevance and availability of the content for its assimilation. Besides for selection of content of FLT the following principles are used: frequency of functions and notions; complication of difficulties depending on stages of teaching; motivation, which implies the choice of domains and communicative situations, which are typical of students' life and close to them; potential of content for further individuals' development.

The criteria for selection of cultural material: 1) accessibility to the students; 2) cultural diversity; 3) students' needs; 4) correlation of information with the target and native languages and cultures; 5) variability of the cultural material and its significance for the communicative aim.

In the process of selection of cultural material a teacher should answer the question: What difficulties can students face in the work with these materials?

Domains are spheres of communication (actions), areas of concern in which the social life is organized. There are four domains, taught at schools, colleges and lyceums:

- personal domain is centered on life style within a family and friends;
- public domain studies a person as a member of the society;
- professional (occupational for college) domain, where a person is engaged in his/her job or profession;
- educational domain – a person is engaged in the organization of his/her learning.

The speech themes (topics) are chosen according to the goal of teaching the English language. The themes are considered as extra linguistic socio-psychological phenomena and they have not been researched completely yet. The main reason of it there is no total combination of themes. It is a usual thing because according to the epistemology studies there are no absolute borders. Speech themes should be chosen from real life situations. At secondary schools

learning the English language is provided with minimum. The themes are based on the methodical tendency named “students and their surroundings”. First of all, students are required to be able to give information about themselves, their family, school and their relatives. The methodical classification of these themes consists of three topics: “The surrounding of a student”, “Our country”, “English speaking countries”. These three topics are based on the following scientific methodical tendencies:

Firstly, a student doesn’t know any language items in the initial period of learning. Criteria: a language is strange but theme is familiar.

Secondly, according to oral topics the patterns and situations of interaction are taught, because listening and speaking comprehension will be a base for other skills. Criteria: oral topics are considered important.

Thirdly, themes are divided into two groups: reading (listening) and speaking (listening). Criteria: oral themes are base for reading and writing. Reading themes (upper intermediate) are used only for listening (speaking and writing are not important for reading themes).

Fourthly, there are no exact themes for listening and writing. Criteria: speaking and reading themes are completely irrelevant to listening and partially irrelevant to writing.

Fifthly, the lexical units in reading themes are used in speaking; but not compulsory in writing. Criteria: the degree of understanding of the text is checked on the basis of oral speech themes.

Sixthly, speech situations are given together with oral speech themes. Criteria: speech situations should be also chosen with speech themes.

Seventhly, during the choosing process of speech themes and speech situations receiving information should be taken into account. It means that the theme is connected with general speech situation but demanded information is appointed by subthemes. Criteria: topic and situation should be considered as support of information.

Eighthly, in the curriculum regulation oral speech themes and subthemes are given fully, speech situations are given in certain samples, reading themes are indicated with the names of genres and kinds of texts. For example, political, scientific and cultural themes are recommended for reading. Written text is chosen on the basis of foreign language sources. Criteria: themes are appointed according to types of speech interactions (skills).

Ninthly, there are two reasons for given speech themes firstly that most taken information in the English language depends on themes, from another side, choosing the language material is also based on themes. Criteria: the information in the English language forms the internal feature of themes so information and theme are two sides of the teaching material³¹.

The main principle of teaching is providing learners with information, it doesn't matter where, when or how it is taught.

The information should be suitable for learners' interest and needs and based on the materials directed to raise students' language level and intercultural awareness.

Well, theme as external indicator, information as internal indicator comprise as one component of the content of teaching the English language.

There is also a general criterion for selecting of the content of teaching the English language. Three of them are widely used in practice³². The first criterion is sufficiency of fulfilling the goals. It means that chosen content provides development of language sub-skills and skills. Theme and language material serve for developing experiences.

The second criterion in choosing content of teaching is the existence of teaching conditions and possibilities. Condition (the type of educational institution – school, lyceum, college) psychological age factor of a learner, language experience, number of learners and weekly hours of the lesson) helps learners in assimilation of possibility content of teaching. The third criterion is

³¹ Jalolov J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. –T.: O'qituvchi, 2012. -59-60 b.

³² Теоретические основы методики обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе // Под ред. Климентенко А.Д., Миролюбов А.А. –М.: Педагогика, 1981. -С 89-90.

taking into consideration receptive and reproductive features of the assimilation.

To show the methodical component we take developing listening skills for illustration. The term “listening” means hearing and comprehension of the content of received speech. Listening is a receptive kind of language activity. It is both an aim and a means of teaching. Language comprehension (LC) as a means of teaching can be:

1) the way of introduction of the language material in oral form (in a conversation, in speech patterns);

2) means of forming well-set acoustic images of language phenomena (words) together with their meanings, which is ensured by multiple perception of the same material by the ear;

3) means of acquiring pronunciation sub-skills, because instruction only won't help students to pronounce a sound which is strange to their mother-tongue if they don't hear how it is pronounced by a teacher or by the speaker;

4) major means of teaching speaking. Psychologists and training specialists (beginning with H. Palmer) have admitted the necessity of listening coming before outstripping speaking;

5) means of mastering the (teaching) phonic mechanics for reading aloud comprised also acoustic images. Feedback of reading a text aloud is organized in the aspects of correctness and fluency. LC as the means of teaching permits multiple listening of one and the same speech material; while LC as a language activity constitutes a skill of comprehending speech by ear at single (presented but once) perception (presentation).

The psychological mechanisms of auditory perception of the speech: Mechanism I - physical perception of speech. Mechanism II – auditory memory, i.e. ability of keeping the accepted images in memory. Short-term memory provides preservation of the coming information during the perception phase. Long-term memory preserves the articulator images of words, word-combinations, constructions, rules, which ensure comprehension. Mechanism III – mechanism of inner speech. It has interrupted character. The more familiar the received information is the more broken inner speech will be. Mechanism IV – recognition on the basis of language

experience, the limits of the active and passive vocabulary, intonation. Mechanism V – anticipation. It sets the listener to logical understanding, comprehension. Mechanism VI – Logical comprehension. It requires some interest in what is being said (to the subject), a certain tempo of mental activity, attention and concentration.

Difficulties of listening and comprehension of the speech and factors influencing the success of listening comprehension you can see in the “teaching listening” section. Difficult phenomena are included in the content of teaching listening.

3.3. Content of teaching language material

It was mentioned before, that language material envelops vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation aspects.

Content of teaching vocabulary. There are active and passive types of lexical material. As it has already been mentioned, active lexicon is a vocabulary used when a pupil expresses his/her own opinion in English or comprehends the others’ speech. Passive is used when a student apprehends emerged vocabulary. Active one is reproductive and passive one is receptive vocabulary. Both of them make the real vocabulary of a student.

When a student runs into unfamiliar vocabulary he/she can understand it because of the resemblance in the mother tongue and this is called potential vocabulary. If a pupil understands the word independently then it is considered as potential vocabulary. This kind of words include international words: (tennis – tennis, business – biznes, club – klub); conversion (belonging to deferent parts of speech, but similar in its form: work – ishlamog, ish. About – yaqinida, haqida.); compound words (book+shop, pen+friend); stem familiar words (work, write, sing-worker, writer, singer). Another type of these words can be understood in context.

Vocabulary in speech is divided into 3 parts: **easy, comparatively difficult and most difficult words.**

Potential vocabulary belongs to the first one and can be divided into the following subtypes: 1. Form and meaning are common in the English language and in mother tongue (club – klub, tennis – tennis); 2. Conversion in English (a work – to work: ishlar, ish; far – uzoq, uzoqda); 3. Parts of the word taught before (bookshop, schoolboy, homework); 4. Stem and affixes are familiar (work+er, difficult+y); 5. Full forms are familiar to recognize its abbreviation (UK – United Kingdom, Ruz – Republic of Uzbekistan).

Comparatively difficult words are frequently used which don't cause any lexical mistakes according to function and semantics (Ex. Qalam – pencil; gapirmoq – speak; non – bread). Content area of these words is similar in two languages and it helps to learn but they are considered comparatively difficult words.

The most difficult type of lexicon causes semantic, functional and formal difficulties. They are classified as followings: poly-semantic words; compound words with the unfamiliar stems; “false” similar words (magazine – jurnal); champion (champions of peace – tinchlik tarafdorlari); functional words – prepositions; article; auxiliary verbs).

Comparatively difficult and the most difficult words consist of content of teaching lexicon. Content of teaching lexicon includes the words which are the part of lexical minimum and learned by doing special exercises because of their difficulties. The difficulty appears in the form, meaning or usage of the words in different context. Actually, words can be difficult for their semantic, functional, formal points.

We should take into consideration lexical approximation. A learner doesn't have to use an exact word, which means she/he may use another synonym instead, which may not fully coincide with the context.

The content of teaching grammar. Content of teaching materials of language claimed as part of teaching grammar. Content of teaching grammar envelopes a teaching part of grammar phenomena with the help of special rules (*not exact rules but models or algorithms*) and particular exercises. We can say that each side of

grammar phenomenon, two or three of them (function, semantics, and form) can be placed in content of teaching grammar.

Units of the English languages can be divided into the two following groups according to their difficulty: 1) the most complicated grammar phenomena in which quantity of mistakes increases while changing grades; 2) average difficult grammar occurrences which quantity of mistakes are met in different grades; 3) grammar occurrences in which reducing quantity of mistakes are considered or no mistakes during occurring speech.

It is clear from schooling experiences that some occurrences are taught easily. For example, the usage of the nouns in plural, function of possessive, meaning of prepositions, etc.

There exist other grammar occurrences in which mistakes are quickly resolved with the help of a teacher's footnote (ordinary general rule). But there are such kinds of grammar errors among them which are very stable (living) and they move from grade to grade. They are needed to be explained in details, not as special rules but with the help of models and speech patterns.

Teachers know well that to teach the article to the pupils is very complicated since comparing to the Uzbek language the article is "alien". Indefinite article has three meanings in the pupils' reproductive speech: 1) to express unknown thing (person); 2) to express any item (event) in certain area; 3) to describe a person or an item who/what that is. Learning the article offers the difficulties in form, meaning and function. Therefore in order to teach "the article" the teacher should make his pupils to do, at least, four lessons. Teaching the most difficult grammar occurrences requires doing rational exercises and learning the rules indeed (exercises are done without the rules while learning easier grammar units concerning the forth group).

The content of teaching grammar of the English language should be chosen according to the three following methodic measures: taking into consideration students' grammar experiences in the native language basing on the earned experiences of the English language and reckoning with order of grammar occurrences. These scientific measures belong to training specialist T.Q. Sattorov who researched perfectly grammar teaching matters of the English

language at Uzbek schools. But anyway we shouldn't forget about grammar approximation. It means that we couldn't demand the students' perfect type of speech.

The content of teaching pronunciation. The main goal of Teaching Pronunciation at a secondary school is developing phonological competence, i.e. pronunciation and intonation sub-skills. The English pronunciation norm is called Received Pronunciation (RP). Components of Phonological competence: sounds, stress, rhyme, rhythm, intonation. Teaching Pronunciation at a secondary school is centered on the idea of approximation, which means:

- reducing the amount of phonetic material (4 types of English intonation are studied);
- admittance of some deterioration of pronouncing particular sounds (t, d, l, n, th, r), which does not disrupt communication between speakers.

In its syntactical function intonation serves:

- 1) to differentiate between the communicative types of sentences;
- 2) in its emotional function – it contributes to conveying the speaker's conversation, to the interlocutor;
- 3) in the function of separation it can promote differentiation of essential info from insignificant one.

The criteria to the selection of minimum pronunciation for a secondary school:

- adequateness to the needs of communication: The minimum intonation comprises four types of intonation patterns corresponding to four communicative types of sentences: statements, imperatives, questions, exclamations;
- styles of speech;
- normal/standard pronunciation: it means excluding jargonisms, elliptical forms ('cause, gimme, it aint gonna happen, wanna). Groups of English phonemes: vowels (long and short), consonants (which have their positional variants), double vowels, or diphthongs (which are strange to Uzbek-speaking pupils).

The general regularities of the English pronunciation are:

- no palatalization of consonants;

- no devoicing of voiced consonants in the final position or before the voiceless consonants: eyes – ice, back – bag;
- observing short and long vowels: e.g. sheep or ship;
- making two stresses in a long word.

By *pronunciation sub-skills* we mean sub-skills of correct articulation of sounds and join them in words, word combinations and sentences, as well as recognition of all the studied sounds. Speech sound articulation is important not only for pronouncing the words but also recognizing and spelling them.

By *rhythmical-intonation sub-skills* we mean sub-skills as producing intonationally and rhythmically correct speech and comprehension of the received speech.

In order to comprehend a spoken message, four main types of knowledge may be drawn on: *phonological* – the sound system; *syntactic* – how words are put together; *semantic* – word and propositional knowledge; and *pragmatic* – the meaning of utterances in particular situations. We review these types of meaning in turn, suggesting what role they might play in the overall listening process. In addition, we consider non-verbal signals that bring the additional meaning, that's why learners should assimilate *kinetic* knowledge conveyed by the facial and bodily movement of the speaker. This type of meaning takes place when the speaker is visible.³³

Questions:

1. How do you differentiate the terms “language material, language minimum and content of teaching”?
2. What types of components content of teaching English do you know?
3. What types of approximation are there in the content of teaching English?

³³ Second Language Listening: Theory and Practice. / John Flowerdew, Lindsay Miller (ed.) -Cambridge University Press, 2005. -45 p.

4. What kinds of criteria are there for choosing language material in the content of teaching?

5. What kind of approaches to listening do you know?

6. For specific levels of learners – elementary, intermediate, advanced – which approach to teaching listening do you consider the most suitable? Why?

7. When would an integrated approach to teaching listening be most appropriate?

Tasks:

1. Give the detailed definition of speech themes, speech skills (sub-skills) and language materials.

2. Here are some questions to be discussed. Read them and give your own opinions.

What do you think ...

* Is vocabulary or grammar more important for organizing communication?

* Do the language learners need immediate or long-term rewards?

* What is the role of motivation in teaching language material?

* Should a communicative class give special attention to accuracy or fluency?

* Do the language learners learn best by using plenty of analysis or intuition?

3. Read guidelines for renewing the curriculum goal. Write a report on the topic “What has been done in the system of FLT under the given items of guidelines?” in order:

- to understand contemporary trends in curriculum design and curriculum renewal;

- to define principles to guide the language teaching/learning process;

- to create syllabuses;

- to devise strategies to cope with classes of mixed ability, mixed language background, and mixed achievement;

- to elaborate assessment schemes to monitor, record and report on students' progress;

- to choose, adapt, create and use appropriate teaching/learning materials and equipment;
- to create schemes of work for particular groups of learners;
- to evaluate classroom practices and improve them, and thus assist teachers to learn how to renew their own curriculum.

4. Work out some kind of topics according to SES for level A1 (which should cover all skills).

Independent work:

1. Look through these sites for further information. Write down your own notes on the topic.

1. <http://waucondastore.com/methods-teaching-english/>

2. www.Content-English.org

3. <http://www.onestopenglish.com/>

2. Study the information (taken from the work by Millrood³⁴ and Celce-Murcia³⁵). Give your arguments why these strategies are important for communication. Do we need mastering the strategic competence for communication? Prove your statements.

Success of communication depends on the choosing the successful discursive strategies adequate to the situation. E.g. The Prince (in «The Prince and the Pauper» by Mark Twain) was unable «to ask» because he was only competent in how to «gave the orders».

Successful strategies are known as the four maxims (by H. Grice) of good communication. These maxims include 1) quality (say only what is supported by evidence), 2) quantity (say no more and no less than you think is needed), 3) relevance (say what is relevant to the point of communication), 4) manner (present your ideas clearly and unambiguously). The four maxims of successful communication can be used in teaching how communicate effectively.

³⁴ Millrood R.P. *English Teaching Methodology*. – M.: Drofa, 2007.

³⁵ Celce-Murcia M. *Rethinking the Role of Communicative Competence in Language Teaching*/ Soler E.A., Safond Jorda M.P. (eds). *Intercultural language Use and Language Learning*. -Springer, 2007.

Strategic competence in the communicative aspect includes:

**Achievement*: strategies of approximation, circumlocution, code-switching, miming, etc.

**Stalling or time gaining*: using phrases like «*Where was I? Could you repeat that?*»

**Self-monitoring*: using phrases that allow for self repair like *I mean...*

**Interacting*: these are strategies that include appeals for help/clarification, which involve seeking out native speakers to practice with, actively looking for opportunities to use TL.

4. Methods of teaching and learning English at school, lyceum and college

The questions to be discussed:

- 4.1. Distinction between the main categories of methodology.
- 4.2. Communicative language teaching and learning.
- 4.3. Linguo-cultural teaching and learning.
- 4.4. Methods of FL teaching and learning.
- 4.5. Age groups for choice of methods in teaching process.

Key terms: methodical categories, approach, method, technique, technology as a procedure, instruction, principle, communicative language teaching and learning, co-teaching and co-learning, linguo-cultural teaching and learning, thesaurus, the second language personality, linguo-cultural competence, interactive learning, learner-centered learning, cooperative learning, content-based learning, task-based learning, accuracy, fluency, age groups.

4.1. Distinction between the main categories of methodology

In determination of methods, the distinction between «philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles and a set of derived procedures for teaching a language, is

central»³⁶. Although these categories of methodology is often mixed.

E. Antony³⁷ identified three levels of conceptualization and organization, which he named *approach*, *method* and *technique*. According to his model: *approach* is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; *method* is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; *technique* is a level at which classroom procedures are described.

Approach is considered to be the theory about the feature of language and language learning that stands as the source of practices and principles in language teaching. J.C. Richards and Th.S. Rodgers present linguistic and psycholinguistic aspects of *approach*, as follows: a) theory of language which has three different theoretical views of language and nature of language proficiency: the structural, functional and interactional view; b) theory of language learning which associates with a method at the level of approach emphasizing either one or both of these dimensions: process oriented and condition oriented theories³⁸. The second level at which approaches and methods are treated is a design and it is a dimension specially developed for an instructional system which leads an approach to a method. At this level of method analysis objectives, language content, learning tasks and teaching activities, role of students, role of teachers and role of instructional materials are designated. And the third level of approach and methods analysis as procedure is concerned with how the tasks and activities are integrated into lessons and used as a basis for teaching and learning.

Thus, *methods* are held to be fixed in teaching systems with prescribed techniques and practices, whereas *approaches* represent

³⁶ Richards J.C., Rodgers Th. S. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching Second ed. - Cambridge: CUP, 2002. -P.19.

³⁷ Antony (1963:63-67), cited in the book: Richards J.C., Rodgers Th. S. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Second ed. -Cambridge: CUP, 2002.

³⁸ Richards J.C., Rodgers Th. S Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching Second ed. - Cambridge: CUP, 2002. -P 19

language teaching philosophies that can be interpreted and applied in a variety of different ways in the classroom. Method can be distinguished according to the teaching and learning context and it is used in wide context (Communicative language teaching) and narrow context (project work, problem-solving, brainstorming). Approach and method are based on the *principles* as initial theoretical points. Procedure itself includes task, techniques and activities. Tasks and activities can be considered as exercises. Technique is a way for a teacher to organize a learner's activity. Through techniques we develop in learners productive, receptive and interactive skills that are necessary for effective communication.

Technology is meant as a procedure of teaching and learning FL in the classrooms. By technology of teaching we understand the complex or system including algorithm of operations and actions and ways of acquiring the content of FLT for achievement the result of FLT/ FLL as a certain level of communicative competence.

Pedagogical technology is the systematic method of creation, application and determination of the FLT process and acquiring the knowledge with the help of technical and human resources and their interaction for the goals of optimizing the forms of education. Technology can be manifested also at the level of operations and actions in the teaching and learning process.

In methodology the following technologies are distinguished:

- illustrative;
- dialogic;
- playing;
- problem-solving;
- project;
- case study;
- information-communication.

But we can meet and other classifications in methodology of FLT.

4.2. Communicative language teaching and learning

Communicative language teaching/learning (CLT/ CLL) can be interpreted in many different ways and used to describe a wide variety of classroom procedures, because it refers to a diverse set of rather general and uncontroversial principles. We sum principles pointed by J.C. Richards³⁹ and basic characteristics of this approach in the Table 4. It is worth to compare their correspondence between two columns.

Table 4. Principles and basic characteristics of CLT/CLL

Principles of CLT/CLL	Basic characteristics of CLT/CLL
1. The general goal of language learning is communicative competence.	1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. Learners learn a language through using it to communicate.	2. The introduction of authentic texts into learning situation.
3. Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities.	3. The provision of opportunities for learners focus, not only on the language but also on the learning process itself.
4. Fluency and accuracy are both important dimensions of communication.	4. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as an important contributing element to classroom learning.
5. Communication involves the integration of different language skills.	5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom.
6. Learning is a gradual process that involves trial and errors.	6. Contextualization as a basic premise and linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methods.
	7. Fluency as acceptable language is a primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context ⁴⁰ .

³⁹ Richards J.C. 30 years of TEFL/TESL: A Personal reflection - Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

⁴⁰English4room/info/.

Communicative approach is dominant one in teaching L2 and FL instruction and it emphasizes that language is best learned by using the communicative meaning, rather than focusing on explicit learning grammar and vocabulary, especially at schools.

The concept of communicativeness meets the needs of students and presents objectives, content and methods as a prevalent basis of the CEFR, being the accepted framework in the field of language teaching and learning; makes it possible to facilitate communication and interaction among students in order to promote students' mobility.

The following types of learning are associated with the Communicative Approach:

1. Interactive Learning: This concept goes right to the heart of communication itself, stressing the dual roles of «receiver» and «sender» in any communicative situation. Learning through interaction is proposed as alternative to learning through repetition and habit formation. Interaction and negotiation of meaning are seen as central of learning through tasks that require attention to meaning, transfer of information, and pushed output. The concept of interactive learning entails to be a lot of pair and group work in the classroom, as well as genuine language input from the «real world» for meaningful communication.

2. Learner-centered Learning: This kind of instruction involves the giving over of some «power» in the language learning process to the learners themselves. It also strives to allow for personal creativity and input from the learners, as well as taking into account their learning needs and objectives. Learner-centered curricula are designed by considering the needs and interests of students, and process-oriented syllabuses which center on procedures, tasks and content.

3. Cooperative/Collaborative Learning essentially involves students learning from each other in groups. It has been comprised as a way of encouraging communicative instruction in the classroom and is seen as a stretch of the procedures of CLT. It is viewed as a learner-centered approach offering the advantages over teacher-fronted classroom methods, fostered competition rather than cooperation and favored majority of students. The concept of this

as a model that is implicit in both the linguistic and sociolinguistic competences.

4.4. Methods of FL teaching

In methodology of FLT the different approaches are used to distinguish methods. They can be classified according to different criteria.

1. According to the sources of information (sources transmission and acquiring the knowledge): 1) verbal methods – lecture, conversation, explanation; 2) method of working with a book – working on textbook, reading additional literature, preparation of messages, abstracts; 3) method of observation, experiment; 4) methods of exercises and practice – practical experience of learners.

2. According to the quality parameters, as particular features of cognitive process, they are: 1) explanative-illustrative method; 2) reproductive method; 3) problem-recount method; 4) partly-searching method; 5) research.

3. In agreement with specifics of FLT and its action-oriented character there are methods of teaching: 1) demonstration (presentation); 2) explanation; 3) practice (training); 4) feedback and self-control.

4. The methods of interaction between a teacher and learners oriented to the FLT in the aspect of organization are: 1) familiarization of the teaching material on the basis of visual-sensory perception; 2) independent comprehension of teaching material and operations with it; 3) practice for production of speech; 4) practice for reception of speech; 5) motivational production of oral and written speech; 6) motivational reception of oral and written speech; 7) control, correction and evaluation of speech acts in a productive aspect; 8) control, correction, evaluation of speech acts in a receptive aspect.

These methods demonstrate the interaction between a teacher and learners: a teacher (or textbook) organizes the algorithm of operations and actions, and learners implement them. These methods related to the general didactic methods reflect the

specificity of EL as a subject and levels of FL acquisition. But at the same time they bring the dominant idea, for instance, method of observation or explanative-illustrative method. They are tools which can be used consecutively while working on the new material. If we use visual aids, motivational strategies, various situational contexts, during the presentation of new material, then learners will better percept, comprehend and remember the new material.

These methods put together a hierarchical system; they are in collateral subordination; a learner moves from step of familiarization to comprehension, then to training and to using, i.e. to communication. As well as in teaching process it is necessary to undertake an assessment for effective gaining accuracy and fluency by learners. For this aims various ways (methods) are used.

4.5. Age groups for choice of methods in teaching process

It is important for teachers to get acquainted with current instructional methods and their underlying principles as well as effective classroom techniques, materials, and assessment strategies appropriate to a certain stage depending on the learners' age group.

«Age» can be seen as a learner *variable*, a contextual consideration that can be rated alongside knowing «who» exactly your students are, and «where» and «why» they are learning English as foreign language. While it would perhaps be rash to say that this or that specific method matches this or that specific age group of learners, there are definitely general considerations for various age groups that ought to encourage teachers to be mindful/selective of the kinds of teaching *methods* and *techniques* they use according to the age of their students. Features of age groups and stages of education are presented in the Table 5.

We need to compare them in the aspect of opportunities for the ELT intellectual development.

Each approach and method put into practice will be shaped at least by the teacher, the students, the conditions of instruction, and the broader socio-cultural context. A particular method cannot be participation for success for everyone.

Table 5. Age group of learners

Age groups of learners	Stage of education
<p>1. Young Learners: It is well-known that children (ages 5-12) are very much orientated in their minds around the «here and now» and directly visible/perceivable environment. Grammatical rules/explanations are usually lost on them, as are somewhat «adult» notions of what is correct and what isn't. They develop well when given plenty of examples and patterns to follow. They tend to have a much shorter attention span and need activities that capture their immediate interest. They also need much in the way of «sensory input» - that is, they need to have many or all of their five senses stimulated at once. While generally less inhibited than adults in terms of experimenting with new language, they tend to have more fragile egos and can be very sensitive to their peers.</p>	<p>Pre-school and primary education. 1-6 forms.</p>
<p>2. Teenagers: The ages 12-18 coincide with a time of rapid transition and change, both mentally and physically. As teenagers begin to develop more cognitive ability, they can be exposed to language learning techniques that require more logical and/or abstract thinking. Attention span begins to lengthen, but there are also more distractions of an emotional nature. Probably the most important considerations for these learners are «affective» ones. Issues to do with ego and self-esteem are at their height, and teenagers can be incredibly sensitive to the ways others see their physical, mental and emotional development. Real or perceived errors can shatter confidence and detract from risk-taking. Teachers of teenagers need to be able to find ways to draw on and develop cognitive, analytical and logic skills, whilst being constantly mindful of feedback techniques and confidence building strategies.</p>	<p>Secondary education. 7-9 forms. Special secondary education - academic lyceum and vocational college students.</p>
<p>3. Adults: Teachers of adults need to bear in mind that these learners have longer attention spans and can handle learning that requires more cognition and abstract</p>	<p>Higher education.</p>

thinking. They tend to respond well to the teaching of grammatical rules. They may not be as willing to be «risk-takers», and generally need to feel respected and that they have a «choice-making» role in the classroom.	
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First of all, choosing the method depends on the goal, characteristic, age, and contents of the lesson. The English teacher may choose from a wide range of methods such as conversation, presentation, re-telling, translation, etc. An EL teacher might also consider selecting from this range of methods.

For the 1-2 class learners at school the EL is presented, practiced and learned through speaking and listening. For these learners effective classroom strategies are traditionally involved as using plays, songs, rhymes and stories with repeated language structures. One way to capture young children under 7-8 years attention and keep them engaged in activities is to supplement the activities with lots of brightly colored visuals, toys, puppets, or objects to match the stories that a teacher tells or songs that a teacher sings. These can also help make the language comprehensible and can be used for follow-up activities, such as retelling stories or guessing games. Listening and drawing the pictures (animals) is a very effective method for teaching young children in the English classrooms. It is successful to move smoothly from one activity to another; one activity can be only for 5-10 minutes.

The goal of all early language education (1-4 forms) should be to hook pupils when they are young and keep them interested in learning English for the rest of their lives. So, the goals of English instruction for young learners should be to: 1) make children feel competent and confident while learning English; 2) provide a safe, entertaining, and educational environment; 3) create basis for life-long learning English.

ELT at colleges is organized within content-based and task-based instructions. The methods which are used at college: analysis and reading the specialized texts. working with terms, problem-solving, clustering, grouping, matching, etc. Word-problem activity can be built around almost any theme.

The audio/video means can be used in teenager groups at schools, academic lyceums and colleges. Diligently used, they help teachers assure themselves that their students perceive intonation and pronunciation easier, and understand English leisurely by hearing it. Students' reading may be corrected handier. Explanations may be offered to learners while they are watching a certain video material on the topic. While watching a film or a documentary they have the chance to hear native speakers talking. Students can also write a dictation (recorded on tape). Literary passages may be recorded and after the learners have heard them, they comment or analyze them, etc. When it comes strictly to video materials, we can distinguish between before-watching activities, while-watching activities, and after-watching activities. Including all these in a lesson, working with the video images becomes really productive and offers learners the possibility to broaden both their cultural horizon and their knowledge.

Questions:

1. What differences can be pointed out between approach and method?
2. Can we say that technology is the same as method or not?
3. What principles of FLT do you know?
4. Why is CLT a dominant and effective approach in FLT? How is language viewed?
5. Can you interpret Linguo-cultural teaching and learning?
6. What criteria are used for distinguishing methods?
7. What kind of methods are used for organization of the new material?
8. Can we use the same methods in all stages of education?

Tasks:

1. Think of types of EL learning. What difference between them have you found out?
2. Tell about factors connected with communicate adequately norms and convention of intercultural communication?

3. Discussion on the topic: «Communication is a process». Explain the notion «to negotiate meaning».

4. Work in the small groups on the topic: «Instructions are suitable to ELT at school/lyceum/college».

Independent work:

1. Read the text and think of the issues connected with the communicative approach.

Communicative teaching language is widely used all over the world. A brief description of CLT is value-laden and direct transposition of this method and its principles carry the ideological value about choice, freedom, and equality that are not universal. According to P.N. Sullivan, Western values are reflected not only in principles of CLT but also in common CLT classroom activities and practices⁴⁵, such as pair and group work, and information gap activities. For mentality of learners from Eastern and Asian countries freedom of choice and equality and others in the EL classrooms are not appropriate. Effective classroom activities are not necessarily pair and group work in information gap activities, but activities that fit the students' discourse styles. Depending on the cultural, or even the physical setting, a teacher can use tasks, pair and small group learning or the whole class format. Often a combination of the three or two is appropriate.

«Communicative language teaching methods designed to enhance the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning continue to be explored and adapted»⁴⁶. That's why, the CLT needs to be adapted to fit local context, local teachers in many EL settings may also need reexamine some of their traditional beliefs and assumptions about language teaching and learning. Embedded in communicative approach to teaching is a belief in humanistic and

⁴⁵ Sullivan P.N. Playfulness as mediation in communicative language teaching in a Vietnamese classroom/ In: Socio-cultural theory and second language learning Eds. J.R. Lantolf -Oxford: OUP, 2000. -P.115-132.

⁴⁶ Savignon S.J. Communicative Curriculum Design for the 21-st Century// J. English Teaching Forum. 2002, 40 (1). -P.2.

communicative nature of language, which is not always in accordance with traditional views.

2. Read and compare cognitive-acting approach with linguo-cultural teaching and learning. Think about the levels of the cognitive process.

Cognitive-action approach

Cognitive-action approach presupposes the language as a means of cognitive activity which is functioning at two levels: 1) cognitive level connected with the thinking (intellectual) operations; 2) action-oriented level connected with the process of production and comprehension of various discourses. That's why cognitive level is the library of meanings and the action is the library of texts. From the methodical point of view by the cognitive aspect we understand the level of acquiring foreign codes, and action is the level of communicative culture development.

Cognitive level includes thesaurus-1 related to the associative-verbal net of the language that forms the language picture of the world, the thesaurus-2 forms the conceptual (global) picture of the world (EL native speakers).

Taking into consideration cognitive process in EL acquisition we can point out the following levels: 1) the level of rules – realization of the speech action in accordance with the rules; 2) the level of meaning – understanding the meaning; 3) the level of speech activity – scheme of production of the utterances; 4) cultural level – understanding the social and cultural context; 5) cognitive level – understanding the cognitive strategies for the speech production and having opportunity to evaluate the language and speech levels himself/herself.

5. Learner's language experience and system of exercises

The questions to be discussed:

- 5.1. Language acquisition and language experience.
- 5.2. Proficiency levels and stages in FLT/ FLL.
- 5.3. Language learning principles.
- 5.4. System of exercises.

Key terms: language acquisition, inter-language, language experience, language awareness, fossilization, remedy, redundant language features, proficiency levels, cognitive process, «bottom-up» processing data-driven, «top-down» conceptual-driven processing, input, output, target language, approximation, process-oriented approach, product-oriented approach, communicative data, principles, methods. surface and deeper levels, system of exercises.

5.1. Language acquisition and language experience

It's necessary, first, to understand the differences between acquiring a native and foreign languages.

The native language is a language the child acquires since being born. The foreign language is one of the variants of the non-native languages. Another variant of a non-native language is the second language. It is admitted the native language as a functional language because it is used for everyday communication. The second language usually refers to any language that is not the first (native) one learns. While contrasting the native, the second and foreign languages, the terms «first language» (L1), «second language» (L2 or SL), and «foreign language» (FL) are used.

The major difference between FL and SL learning is that a FL is learned in the artificial language environment, outside of the social environment, i.e. in the teaching conditions. Besides, the FL is not the means of everyday communication. But at the same time, we cannot line out the distinction between them, because the FL can become for learners as a SL or vice versa. For instance, in the English speaking countries migrants learn English as a SL, for Uzbekistan the EL is the foreign language.

can operate. It is important to provide them with appropriate level of contextual support to assist them, and to encourage them to transfer to the language learning situation the same strategies that they use to predict and guess meaning through context and word-building elements. Communicative data in English classroom contents: teacher's talk; other classroom talk; recordings of talk (audio and video); pedagogically-inspired written information; other classroom information; realia and written texts from outside the classroom⁵⁴.

A receptive capacity is developed earlier than productive capacity. It means that much of the communicative data understood by the learners will reappear in their talk in the early stage. They can produce speech at the minimal-communicative level. Learners move gradually through stages of inter-language development which contain errors, toward native speaker norms. The learner's mental processes concentrate first and foremost on finding meaning. It is therefore the semantic content of the words and basic word order that will be internalized first and it is these features that will appear in production first. The more redundant grammatical features will be attended to and internalized only when sufficient mental capacity is available to permit this.

5.2. Proficiency levels and stages in FLT

The EL acquisition is graduated into beginning, intermediate and advanced levels in the terms of language proficiency.

To understand the proficiency levels of FLT/FLL we present the scheme (Figure) on the next page⁵⁵.

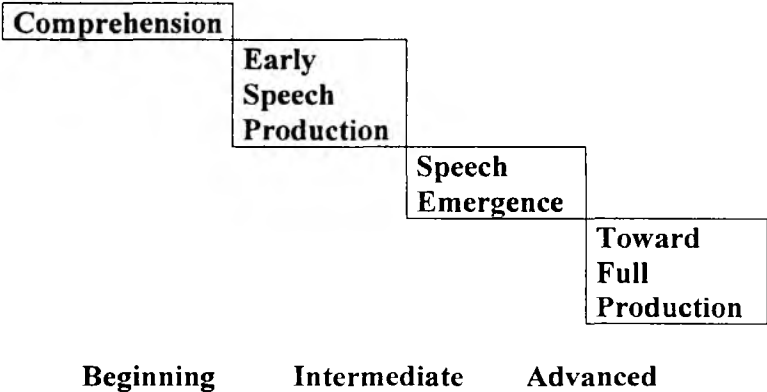
Comprehension, Early Speech Production, Speech Emergence and Toward Full Production refer to stages within levels - Beginning, Intermediate and Advanced. At the comprehension stage learners develop the ability to understand spoken language and to react to simple commands. At the early speech production stage learners are able to produce a few words and can often recognize

⁵⁴ Clark J.L. Curriculum Renewal in School. Foreign languages Learning. -OUP, 1987 -P.204-205.

⁵⁵ See: Richards-Amato P.A. Making it Happen. Interaction in the Second Language Classroom. From Theory to Practice. -N.Y., London: Longman, 1988. -P.4

their written versions. At speech emergence one, they begin to use simple sentences and can read and write a simple text in the target language. As learners become capable of fuller production, they can express themselves in a variety of ways and can understand much of what is said.

Figure 3. Classification of Proficiency Levels in EL



As the scheme shows, these levels have three stages: Beginning – Comprehension and Early Speech Production; Intermediate – Early Speech Production and Speech Emergence; Advanced – Speech Emergence and Toward Full Production. There is some overlap between one level and the next one and one stage and the next one. Learners may be beginners at some task but advanced learners at others. An intermediate or advanced learner might be thrown back temporarily into the comprehension stage typical of beginners whenever new concepts are introduced.

It was mentioned, that the acquiring EL is a cognitive process. Most language teaching (whether LI or L2/FL) attempted to develop functional or communicative proficiency by focusing on the surface forms despite the fact that the direction of the language acquisition was from deeper communicative functions of the language to the surface form. The cognitive aspect can be elaborated

in terms of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives⁵⁶. The conceptualization of language proficiency in the frame Bloom taxonomy was described in the book by P.A.Richards – Amato⁵⁷ (reflected in the Table 6).

On the basis of the table content we can state that language acquisition at schools presupposes surface level of language proficiency (Beginning level). But the learners at Academic Lyceum and Professional Colleges can achieve the deeper level (Intermediate level). For the learners of Academic Lyceum and Vocational Colleges and Higher Educational Establishments is more relevant cognitive and academic progress than a surface manifestation of proficiency. For pupils of the Primary and Secondary

Table 6. Surface and Deeper Levels of Language Proficiency

Types of Levels of Language Proficiency	Cognitive Process	Conversation Proficiency	Language Process
Surface	<p>Knowledge – remembering something previously encountered or learned.</p> <p>Comprehension – grasp of basic meaning, without necessarily relating it to other material.</p> <p>Application – use of abstractions in particular and concrete situations.</p>		<p>Pronunciation</p> <p>Vocabulary</p> <p>Grammar</p>

⁵⁶ Bloom B., Krathwohl D. Taxonomy of educational objectives Handbook 1. Cognitive Domain. - New York: Longman, 1977.

⁵⁷ Richards-Amato P.A. Making it Happen Interaction in the Second Language Classroom. From Theory to Practice -N Y., London: Longman, 1988. -P 383

<p>Deeper</p>	<p>Analysis - breaking down the whole into its parts so that the organization of elements is clear. Synthesis - putting elements into a coherent whole. Evaluation – judging the adequacy of ideas or material for given purposes.</p>	<p>Cognitive/Academic Proficiency</p>	<p>Semantic meaning. Functional meaning</p>
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education (1-9 forms) it is normal to organize productive speech embedded within context of fairly immediate goals, intensions, and familiar patterns of events. Their conversation proficiency touches only surface cognitive process. The deeper level concerns a high order of critical thinking which is impossible for young children (1-6 forms) and it is difficult for teenagers (7-9 forms), but it is possible sometimes because elements of critical thinking are attracted. The 1-4 forms pupils' language acquisition has no conscious character. During this period pupils are allowed to go through a silent period. They receive comprehension input usually from the teacher. As W.Scott and L.H.Ytreberg describe young learners under 7-8 years old, 'Their own understanding comes through hands, and eyes, and ears. The physical world is dominant at all times'⁵⁸. So, simple responses to the comprehensible input may be made by gestures, nodding, using L1, answering «yes» or «no». The teacher's speech is a little slower as usual. The intonation is reasonably normal except that key words receive extra emphasis.

There is a school of thought that suggests children learn best by hearing language being effectively modeled by skilled teachers, and having natural opportunities to use language in productive activities, before embarking on robust learning of literacy. However, the

⁵⁸ Scott W., Ytreberg L.H. Teaching English to Children -London. Longman, 1990. -P. 2.

relative success of this type of approach may lie in the oral competency of the teacher and easy access to appropriate resources. In some contexts it may make more sense to expose children early to reading, learning phonics and the explicit teaching of grammar. Clearly, it makes little sense to be teaching reading and writing in EL beyond what has been achieved in L1, although it may be possible for the two languages to develop at similar rates. However, older learners may have knowledge of literacy to transfer over from a stronger first language. In many contexts, schools are measured by how many children pass academic exams, which may necessitate and encourage a 'teaching to the test' mentality amongst teachers. However, this could mean that the more important aspects of learning are neglected.

In the classroom a teacher should aim to provide a wide range of learning experiences, some designed to promote spontaneous learning, or to bring about communicative use, or to focus on underlying knowledge, skills, strategies, or to promote awareness of pattern and function, or to assist the learner to develop control in the use of the language. They all are effective strategies but for different purposes, in different context, with different learners, at different stages of development. The balance to be struck between these various strategies at particular points in time with particular learners remains a matter for a teacher to decide. The methodology adopted by the teacher at any particular moment should be designed to respond to the particular needs of the learner.

The learners need to be provided with adequate feedback and with some ideas as how a learner is progressing. Awareness of progress is an incentive to further learning. It is important for learners to know the criteria upon which their performance is being evaluated – whether this can be communicative success, appropriacy to context, accuracy in formal terms, or in combinations.

Besides, the learners need socio-cultural data and direct experience of another culture. We point out cultural awareness, which means the foundation of communication and it involves the ability to understand adequately value orientation, mentality, beliefs and perceptions. It becomes central when we have to interact with

people from other cultures. People see, interpret and evaluate things in different ways. What is considered an appropriate behavior in one culture is frequently inappropriate in another one. Misunderstandings arise when we use our meanings to make sense of a reality. Misinterpretations occur primarily when we lack awareness of our own behavioral rules and project them on others. In absence of better knowledge we tend to assume, instead of finding out what a behavior means to the person involved, e.g. a straight look into your face is regarded as disrespectful in Uzbekistan.

Through EL the pupils and students learn culture of the native speakers, and through cultural information and guided reflection upon this in the classroom, the learners can be helped to build up a cultural awareness and sensitivity that may lead to greater understanding and tolerance of diversity. One of the aims of intercultural teaching and learning language and culture is acculturation as a result of that the bridge between their own communicative and cultural systems and the target language speech community will be built. This means a considerable difference in the emphasis placed on cultural aspects and on appropriacy between L1 developers and L2/FL learners.

Thus, EL teaching and learning enable a learner not only to experience another language and culture through special linguo-cultural material and engaging in communicative activities, but also to reflect the experience in real intercultural communication.

5.3. Language learning principles

Language learning principles are generally sorted into three sub-groupings: *Cognitive Principles*, *Affective Principles* and *Linguistic Principles*. Principles are seen as theory to which teachers need to match classroom practices. Here are brief summaries of the principles that fall into three groups⁵⁹ (see Table 7 on the next page).

It is important to realize that we should get our pupils and students to develop communicative fluency, not just language

⁵⁹ English4room/info/

accuracy; we should equip our students with tools for generating unrehearsed language performance in the English classroom.

Table 7. Cognitive, affective and linguistic skills

Subgroups of principles	Principles	Interpretation of principles
Cognitive	Automaticity	Subconscious processing of language with peripheral attention to language forms.
	Meaningful Learning	This can be contrasted to <i>Rote Learning</i> , and is thought to lead to better long term retention.
	Anticipation of Rewards	Learners are driven to act by the anticipation of rewards, tangible or intangible.
	Intrinsic Motivation:	The most potent learning «rewards» are intrinsically motivated within the learner.
	Strategic Investment	The time and learning strategies learners invest into the language learning process.
Affective	Language Ego	Learning a new language involves developing a new mode of thinking - a new language «ego».
	Self-confidence	Success in learning something can be equated to the belief in learners that they <i>can</i> learn it;
	Risk-Taking	Taking risks and experimenting «beyond» what is certain creates better long-term retention.
	Language-Culture Connection	Learning a language also involves learning of cultural values and thinking.
Linguistic	Native Language Effect	A learner's native language creates both facilitating and interfering effects on learning.
	Inter-language	At least some of the learner's development in a new language can be seen as systematic.

	Communicative Competence	Fluency and <i>use</i> are just as important as accuracy and <i>usage</i> - instruction needs.
	Orientation for pragmatic aims.	To be aimed at organizational, pragmatic and strategic competence as well as psychomotor skills.

To summarize the specifics of EL teaching and learning the long-term goals for language teachers are defined:

- to help learners form and develop a positive attitude toward language learning;
- to provide learners with a successful experience in language learning;
- to encourage learners to work productively and cooperatively;
- to give learners control over their own learning.

In practice of teaching an extensive using of «authentic communication». particularly in the early stages of learning showed, that students often developed fluency at the expense of accuracy, resulting in learners' good communicative skills but a poor command of grammar and a high level of fossilization.

Proposals as to how accuracy and fluency can be realized within the framework of the current communicative methodology include: 1) incorporating a more explicit treatment of grammar within a text-based curriculum; 2) building a focus on structure (form) into a task-based teaching through activities centered on consciousness raising or noticing grammatical features of input or output; 3) using activities that require «stretched output», activities that expand or «restructure» the learner's grammatical system through increased communicative demands and attention to linguistic forms.

5.4. System of exercises

The main form of activity organization at the lesson is an exercise as repetition of the same typical operations and actions many times. Using exercises at the lesson demands understanding the types and kinds of exercises and their purpose, what place an exercise occurs in the system of exercises and what results can be achieved doing a certain exercise.

Exercises must be created as a system. By the system of exercises we understand organization of teaching actions in algorithm (logical consecutive) in accordance with increasing of language and operational difficulties. It was mentioned, that the system of exercises includes itself tasks and activities. Van-de Branden defines a task as «... activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective and which necessitates the use of language»⁶⁰. That is, by understanding language input and by producing language output; better still, by interacting with other people in real-life situations through the use of EL, the goal that the learner had in mind could be better achieved.

The appointed requirements to the system of exercises are:

1) Actions must correspond to the given goal and nature of phenomenon.

2) Consecution of exercises must correspond to stages of skills formation (from imitative exercises to production in accordance with one stimulus).

In methodology different classifications of exercises have been worked out. In our opinion, the more effective system of exercises was suggested by V.A.Buhbinder⁶¹. They are 1) informative exercises; 2) operational exercises and 3) motivational exercises. They provide acquiring language, speech acts or operations and speech activity in FL. The core and kinds of this system of exercises you find in the Table 8.

Table 8. The system of exercises by V.A. Buhbinder

Type of exercises	Aim of exercises	Kinds of exercises	Interpretation
Information	Understanding and fixing knowledge about language units	Comparing; pronunciation of sounds, words, phrases;	Language learning

⁶⁰ Van de Branden K. Task-based language education: From theory to practice. -Cambridge: CUP, 2007.

⁶¹ Бухбиндер В.А. О системе упражнений. // Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам: Хрестоматия. Под ред. Леонтьева А.А. -М.: Русский язык, 1991. -С 93-95.

		grouping, matching, transformation, etc.	
Operational	Developing subskills for language units' usage and speech automatisms. This type of exercises is used to train operational mechanisms of speech organization on the basis of language units.	Practicing lexical and grammar combinations; filling the gaps, transformation, reorganization, conversion.	Skills getting (obtaining)
Motivational	Developing or improving communicative skills in text production and reception in the real condition and situation of oral and written speech. The stimulus is presented in all kinds of these exercises	Question-answering, situations, drama, role-play, retelling the text, extending the idea, text compression, control, etc.	Skills using

The other traditional systems of exercises, reflected in the domestic methodology consist of language and communicative exercises. It is necessary to remember that language units are means of communication, that's why this kind of exercises must be oriented to the operations as preparation stage for communication.

Language exercises (skills getting/obtaining) are used as training and preparatory operations. The material for this type of exercises is language units. During doing this type of exercises the following operations are sprung into action: 1) observation; 2) analysis; 3) comparison; 4) choosing; 5) transformation; 6) substitution and omitting; 7) generalization or finding analogues.

In methodology the following exercises are suggested: 1) imitative; 2) analytical; 3) operation-training; 4) constructive; d) reproductive. Language exercises bring character of some language aspect (pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar exercises).

The next type of exercises is communicative ones (skills using), with the help of which communicative skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing are developed. They have a communicative task directed at the content of the speech, to practice, reception and production of speech. There different material is used. During doing these type of exercises the following operations are sprung into action: 1) statement; 2) asking; 3) confirmation; 4) agreement or disagreement; 5) disclaimer; 6) clarification. Stimulus for utterance is a communicative goal. It is necessary to follow from intention to selection of language units. For example: *Say what you are going to do in the evening.* The result of doing this type of exercises is production of the whole text according to the topic or situation. Communicative exercises are simulations and situations.

The kinds of such exercises are: 1) question-answer; 2) situation; 3) reproduction; 4) discussion; 5) description; 6) initiation; 7) game; 8) translation.

The following requirements are put to communicative exercises:

- Tasks to exercises must have communicative character as possible.

- Exercises must deal with a situation and stimulus.

- Exercises must be created to provide unmistakable and quick fulfillment of them.

The mentioned a task-based language teaching considers exercises as giving learners direct and immediate experience of language use in communication. Focused tasks, pre-tasks and feedback on tasks enable learners to notice language forms, to use them under real operating conditions and to receive feedback on

their language use. Priority is given to getting something done through language rather than practicing predetermined language items. The language of the task therefore is not being predictable. Attention is paid to the task outcome or product and not to whether the learners used a particular language form to complete the task.

It is necessary during the pre-tasks and tasks activities check the understanding of tasks by learners what they have to do. While the tasks are being done a teacher assists them with any problems and input language items if the help is requested. After learners have done a task a teacher gives a feedback to: 1) whether the learners successfully accomplished a task; 2) examine input language that they needed but didn't use; 3) point out significant errors; 4) tell learners what they did well.

Authentic tasks are those that require the learners to use the target language in a way that simulates its use in real life outside the language classroom. When learners are asked to fill in the blanks, change verbs from Simple Past to Simple Present, give the correct forms of adjectives or adverbs and complete substitution tables, they are not therefore performing authentic tasks. Examples of authentic tasks would be *writing a complaint about any abnormality around somebody* (e.g. the wanton cutting down trees in the city or village, etc.).

Authentic text is a text which is not written or spoken for language teaching purposes. Examples of authentic text are newspaper articles, popular songs, novels, radio interviews, traditional fairy tales, myths and legends, different conversational talk which organized by native-speakers. A story that is written to exemplify the use of reported speech, a dialogue scripted to exemplify ways of inviting and linguistically simplified version of a novel are not authentic texts.

Questions:

1. What do we mean by the «language acquisition»?
2. What are the differences between language acquisition L1 and FL?
3. What have you found out about language experience?

4. Give your explanation of the term «inter-language».
5. What can you say about «bottom-up» data-driven processing and «top-down» conceptually-driven processing? Is it necessary for a future teacher to know about these types of processing?
6. What proficiency levels in FLT can you name?
7. What is the role of these principles in the FLT process?
8. What classification of exercises do you know?

Tasks:

1. Think about criteria of distinguishing principles into cognitive, affective and linguistic? Tell about their realization in the ELT process.

2. Study the content of the table below and add other criteria and kinds of exercises.

Criteria for classification of communicative exercises	Kinds of exercises
1. Types of speech activity	<p>Speaking: situational, descriptive, problem-solving, story-telling, game-playing, etc.,</p> <p>Listening: listening with wandering gaps; ticking lexical items; listening and labeling; guessing from the text; listening and matching; completing gaps in the text; ticking true or false statements; transferring information to a table; commenting on the text.</p> <p>Reading: scanning, skimming, jig-saw reading, reading two or more texts and find one problem, retelling the text, etc.</p> <p>Writing: paragraph writing, dictation, essay, report, annotation, etc.</p>
2. Character of speech activity:	<p>Productive and receptive.</p> <p>Prepared and spontaneous (unprepared).</p> <p>Oral and written.</p>

3. Explain the purpose of exercises from the view-point of language experience.

4. Analyze surface and deeper Levels of Language Proficiency. Think about their development via different activities.

5. In you log write about a situation when you can use only communicative types of exercises.

Independent work:

1. Study «Typical Techniques», which were described by Diane Larsen-Freeman⁶². Expanded descriptions of some common/typical techniques closely associated with the Direct Method. The listing here is in summary form only.

Think and add suitable to the direct method techniques.

1. Reading Aloud (*Reading sections of passages, plays or dialogues out loud*).

2. Question and Answer Exercise (*Asking questions in the target language and having students answer in full sentences.*)

3. Student Self-Correction (*Teacher facilitates opportunities for students to self-correct using follow-up questions, tone, etc.*)

4. Conversational practice (*Teacher asks question for involving student into the conversation*).

5. Fill-in-the-blank Exercise (*Items use target language only and inductive rather than explicit grammar rules.*)

6. Dictation (*Teacher reads a passage aloud various amount of times at various tempos, students write down what they hear*).

7. Map drawing (*Teacher reads a passage three times: 1) in normal speed, 2) phrase by phrase, 3) again in normal speed*).

8. Paragraph Writing (*Students write a paragraph in their own words using the target language and various models.*)

2. Study the phases of working on the speech activities (taken from R.P.Millrood⁶³). Work out different exercises and distribute them in accordance with the given phases.

⁶² Larsen-Freeman D. Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching. 2-d ed. -OUP, 2003. -Pp. 30-31.

⁶³ Millrood R P English Teaching Methodology – M.: Drofa, 2007 -P.

Communicative teaching is often organized in the three-phase framework: *pre-activity*, *while-activity* and *post-activity*. *Pre-activity* is organized to arouse interest in the learners towards the main task, to motivate performance, to activate in learners their prior knowledge and to prepare them for the language that may be necessary to perform the main task. *While-activity* is organized as oral or written communication and based on engaging the learners in the communicative tasks. *Post-reading activity* is a reflection on the ideas and language that was produced during the main activity. This phase also includes additional language drills and integration with other skills.

Phases	Procedures	
	Teacher	Learners
Pre-activity	Increasing motivation. Activation of prior knowledge.	Getting involved. Reviewing prior knowledge.
While-activity	Using the information gap and other techniques.	Participating in activities.
Post activity	Reflection on the used techniques.	Reflection on doing activities.

CHAPTER 2. HISTORICAL SURVEY OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES METHODOLOGY

1. Foreign language as an educational subject The questions to be discussed:

- 1.1. Features of a foreign language as a curricular subject.
- 1.2. The importance of FL learning in Uzbekistan.
- 1.3. English as an international language.

Key terms: curricular subject, features of the subject, linguo-cultural context, language education, multilingualism, polyculturalism, language education diversity/variety, international language, global language, lingua franca, values of FL education, convergence.

1.1. Features of a foreign language as a curricular subject

The Resolution of President Islam Karimov «On measures for further improvement the system of foreign languages learning» (December 10, 2012)⁶⁴ is a key factor for modernization of teaching foreign languages at all stages, in which the importance of teaching and learning English across the country were pointed out. So, a foreign language becomes one of the important educational subjects, at all educational institutions.

The specific features of a foreign language as an educational subject are shown in its purposes. In fact that FL as the subject doesn't strive for teaching theoretical knowledge more over information about linguistic science. If we say about many other subjects such as physics, chemistry, and others they are aimed at acquiring theoretical knowledge.

⁶⁴ http://www.uzbekembassy.mv/news/april_2013.htm

The specific features of this subject are to acquire FL for communication with native and non-native speakers, exactly, to acquire language means, behavioral patterns and discourse strategies for organization of communication. The EL is the goal and means of teaching and learning.

The difference between learning a FL and the native language (Uzbek or Russian as a subject) is manifested in the direction of the FL to developing communicative skills on the basis of another new language code, where the place of the language is the means of communication. This idea permeates the whole EL teaching process.⁶⁵ The level of communicative competence in the native language as the result of education is more fluent than in FL. There are some limitations in FL communicative skills, because the social function of the native and FL are not the same. The Uzbek (native) language has an official status and it is the language of everyday communication, FL is the means of education and familiarization with other cultures; means of communication in the classroom and outside it.

Another specific feature of FL is concluded in its non-subjectiveness and heterogeneousness. FL is means of forming and then formulating ideas of the objective reality. The substance and consistency of backgrounds of this subject are taken from literature, history, etc. In other words, the subject for speech (topics or themes) is borrowed from other disciplines. Heterogeneousness of FL is seen in knowing all aspects of language and mastering language subskills and skills, and also additional abilities are necessary for productive organization of communication in the target language.

Nowadays within this subject we must teach both the language and the culture. It means the importance of the linguo-cultural context of education, where the objects of teaching and learning under this subject are 1) language and culture, 2) speech, and 3) speech activities (listening, speaking, reading and writing). From the position of methodology this subject (the pointed out components of this subject) is organized within three categories: 1) language and

⁶⁵ Гез Н.И., Ляховицкий М.В., Миролюбов А.А. Методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. -М.: Высшая школа, 1982. -С.38.

culture, 2) language and culture teaching, 3) language and culture learning.

The FL as the subject at school, lyceum and college is compulsory and has a practical character. The teaching and learning FL at these institutions contributes to speech development and improvement of the level of the language proficiency including the native language. The interdisciplinary links are taken into consideration at school, lyceum and college. Teaching FL at lyceum and college is considered as a profile education. The interdisciplinary depends on the profile of lyceum and college (e.g. humanitarian or technical). College students learn FL to obtain the additional information for future vocations, that's why the FL links with the vocation-oriented subjects.

FL teaching at college can be defined at the micro level (in terms, for example, of vocabulary and vocation-oriented information) and at macro level – the professional communicative tasks, the genre of formats of those communicative tasks, and the modalities through which they are enacted⁶⁶. For example, the EL teaching curriculum for a Medical College is based on the main language tasks and language skills that the future health care providers would need to be successful in this field. The acquired language skills as a result of education at a Medical college include areas of informational use of English in interaction with patients and their families (such as offering reassurance) and in interaction with colleagues (completing routine forms, charts, and instructions). The skills also touch upon documented interpersonal usage of English that the medical nurses would need (such as expressing empathy).

1.2. The importance of FL learning in Uzbekistan

The FL education has social and personally-oriented values. Dynamic processes in all spheres in Uzbekistan need acquiring one or two FL. The richness of the country under the conditions of market economy and information technologies development can be

⁶⁶ Salas S. Mercado L A. & et.all. English for Specific Purposes: Negotiating Needs, possibilities, and Promises// English Teaching Forum. No 4, 2013 -P 13-14.

achieved with the help of human resources – the important factor of economic and social progress. The FL education contributes to solve this important objective. According to the view of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan we should create the necessary conditions for the youth to acquire deep knowledge and modern professions and train a highly qualified workforce, young specialists capable of taking on responsibility for the future and further development of the country.⁶⁷ President I. Karimov also states that in the system of education we attach a great importance to teaching pupils not merely liberal arts and vocational skills, but also required learning of foreign languages, for this is critical for them to maintain proactive communication with their counterparts abroad, get extensive knowledge of everything that is going on around the globe, and command the august world of intellectual treasure.⁶⁸

At present time personally-oriented value of FL education is called forth the followings:

1. understanding the importance of FL as a means of communication in multilingual and polycultural world;
2. having imaginations about requirements to his/her level of FL proficiency at all stages of education and technologies of its assessment;
3. individuals need in learning FL and its practical using.

Exactly the last one determines prestige of the FL and its learning for individuals.

Under the conditions of developing multilingualism we can no longer afford to remain monolingual. Successive reforming occurred in Uzbekistan demands all peoples to speak a variety of languages. Learning FL no longer a pastime: it is a necessity. It is known that learning a foreign language results in students achieving greater divergent thinking, creativity, and cognitive development compared to monolingual students. When students learn a FL they have a tendency of outscoring those who are proficient in only a single language on tests of nonverbal and verbal intelligence.

⁶⁷ Address by President I. Karimov at the Opening Ceremony of International Conference 18 February 2012.

⁶⁸ Ibid.

Global objective of any educational system is preparation of young generation for adequate participation in all fields of activity of a society. For achievement of this objective educational process should be under construction in view of features of progress of a modern polycultural society for which plurality of cooperating languages and cultures are characteristics, first, and secondly, plurality of texts and the text formats circulating in global information space, created by modern means of a mass communication.

Development of multilingualism in Uzbekistan means learning FL, but at the same time it aims to strengthen and develop the native and second languages of those living in Uzbekistan. The language and cultural diversity are dealt with as value elements of the world cultural heritage and the philosophy of intercultural social interaction in any multilingual and polycultural space.

1.3. English as an international language

English has become an international language and its range of functions is increasing everywhere including Uzbekistan.

International Language Hegemony of the English language is a global phenomenon and the onset of modern technology, the computer; and as the choice language of the academia will further strengthen it. Melvia A. Hasman reported about three factors of English spreading: 1) usage in science, technology and commerce; 2) the ability to incorporate vocabulary from other languages; 3) the acceptability of various English dialects⁶⁹. Today, in the information age, developing information-communication technology and Internet-mediation communication demands knowing English. International cooperation in all spheres of life is organized on the English language.

For the last period English occupied the function of *lingua franca* – language-mediator for the representatives of communication. Sometimes it is called the language of international

⁶⁹ Hasman M.A. The Role of English in the 21st Century// English Teaching Forum. V.38, No1. - Pp.3.

politics and diplomacy, business communication and international conferences. It is also understood as language-mediator for non-native speakers within intercultural communication. Ann Ife states, «This may involve interaction between mother tongue (L1) speakers and those using a second or foreign language (L2); or between speakers using different varieties of the same L1, as within the varied English speaking or Spanish-speaking world, where cultural assumptions are not necessarily shared, in spite of a shared language»⁷⁰. Thus, all parties use a language adopted for the purposes of wider communication.

From the linguistic point of view the simplicity of language structures is recognized in the *lingua franca*.

It is time to answer the question «Why is it important for us to learn English?» All non-native speakers may distinguish the following major reasons:

1. English may be a factor for obtaining better employment opportunities.
2. English is the medium of communication for business, recreation and competitive tournaments.
3. English is almost mandatory for learners pursuing higher academic achievements and publishing of one's findings.
4. The knowledge of English may provide higher social standing or identity in many cases.

Therefore, the English language empowers a person both in terms of social and material power. Thus we can see the attraction towards learning English.

The choices that the language communities have is either to have subtractive learning of English and forget one's own linguistic heritage, as is happening mostly in developing countries; or to make the learning process additive by retaining one's own language intact. It can be assumed that the later alternative is more acceptable.

Spreading English makes an appearance of many topical issues; all people are interested in them. The first, the role of other foreign languages is decreasing. It follows to decreasing hours for teaching

⁷⁰ Ife A. A Role for English as Lingua Franca in the Foreign Language Classroom?/ Soler E.A., Safond Jorda M.P. (eds). Intercultural language Use and Language Learning. -Springer, 2007. -P 79.

other foreign languages as German, French at educational institutions and as effect to unemployment for the specialists of these languages.

The second, it leads us towards convergence of all world languages into one giant English language. Because of the advent of printing, and more recently, media, languages, specifically English, are being standardized so that there is uniformity in the manner we write and speak. Many believe this to be a positive step towards world unification. There may be advantages in uniformity, but the question is – does it outweigh the disadvantages that it might bring in the form of ‘language death’? The prominence of English might be an indicator of decline of other languages. When a language is lost, it is not only the means of communication that is lost with it. There are contextual and cultural associations with languages, and in addition, it also forms the corpora of accumulated knowledge of a community. All this will also be lost with the dying language. Moreover, there is a strong affinity of the language with the identity of a person or a community. Although English may provide with alternate identity, the primary form of identity shall be lost, especially if the learning of English is subtractive in terms of the first language.

Questions:

1. Think about core of the FL as the subject.
2. Are there any differences between the FL and native language as subjects?
3. What do we mean by the linguo-cultural education?
4. Discuss the role of FL knowing?
5. Explain the terms «multilingual» and «polycultural»?
6. Name the reasons and factors of spreading English as the Global language.

Tasks:

1. Discuss positive and negative sides of the Global language?
2. Tell about the benefits of learning the English language at all stages of education for your carrier?

Independent work:

1. Describe the FL as a subject from the position of cultural and developing goals of education in the written form.

2. Search the information about specific features of the English language as lingua franca and prepare the written presentation.

2. Teaching foreign languages in the world

The questions to be discussed:

2.1. Historical survey of FL teaching in the world.

2.2. Language education in Europe.

2.3. Language education in the United States.

Key terms: tutor, practice versus learning rules, formal study versus informal use, grammar-translation method, structural syllabus, direct method, language diversity, audio-lingual method, Transformational Generative Grammar, Input Hypothesis, language immersion, minimalist approach, directed practice, Pimsleur method, Silent way, Total physical response, blended learning, private tutoring,

2.1. Historical survey of FL teaching in the world

Language teaching has been around and changing over the centuries. It is very interesting to look back at the history of FL. It serves us to get to know the different trends and choose the best way to teach the FL.

The history of FL teaching goes back at least to the ancient Greeks. They were interested in what they could learn about mind and the will through language learning. The Romans were probably the first to study a FL officially. They studied Greek, taught by Greek tutors and slaves. Their approach was less philosophical and more practical than that of Greeks.

In Europe before the 16 century, much of the language teaching enclosed teaching Latin to priests. In the 16 and 17

centuries, French was a lingua franca for speaking to foreigners. Mostly court members spoke French, and also it was a required language for travelers, traders and soldiers. French was greatly taught throughout this period, and a study of documents, textbooks, literature indicate that language teachers of that time were considering the same issues that are being considered today. These contained issues about practice versus learning rules and formal study versus informal use.

The status of Latin changed during this period from a living language that learners needed to be able to read, write and speak, to a dead language which was studied as an intellectual exercise. The analysis of the grammar and rhetoric of Classical Latin became the model language teaching between the 17 and 19 centuries, a time when thought about language teaching became fixed in Europe. Emphasis was on learning grammar rules and vocabulary by rote, translations, and practice in writing sample sentences. The translated or written sentences by students were examples of grammatical points and usually had not much relationship to the real world. This method became known as *the grammar-translation method*. Though some people tried to challenge this type of language education, it was difficult to overcome the attitude that Classical Latin (and to a lesser degree Greek) was the most ideal language and the way it was taught was the model for the way language should be taught. When modern languages were taught as a part of the curriculum, beginning in the 18 century, they were usually taught using the same method as Latin.

The grammar-translation method was the dominant FL teaching method in Europe from the 1840s to the 1940s, and a version of it continues to be widely used in some parts of the world, even today. However, even as early as the mid-19th, theorists were beginning to doubt about the principles behind the grammar-translation method. Changes were beginning to happen. There was an impressively large demand for ability to speak FL, and various reformers began reconsidering the nature of language and of learning. Among these reformers were two Frenchmen, C.Marcel and F.Gouin, and an Englishman, T.Pendergast. Through their unrelated observations, they concluded that the way that children learned language was

relevant to how adults should learn language. Marcel emphasized the significance of understanding meaning in language learning. Pendergast proposed the *first structural syllabus*. He proposed arranging grammatical structures so that the easiest were taught first. Gouin believed that children learned language through using language for a sequence of related actions. He stressed presenting each item in context and using gestures to supplement verbal meaning.

Though the ideas of these and other reformers had some influence for a time, they didn't become widespread or last long. They were outside of the established educational circles, and the networks of conferences and journals which exist today didn't exist then to spread their ideas.

Nevertheless, in the late 1800s and early 1900s, linguists became interested in the problem of the best way to teach languages. These reformers, as Henry Sweet of England, Wilhelm Victor of Germany, and Paul Passy of France, believed that language teaching should be based on scientific knowledge about language, that it should begin with speaking and expand to other skills, that words and sentences should be presented in context, that grammar should be taught inductively, and that translation should, for the most part, be avoided. These ideas spread, and were consolidated in what became known as the *Direct method*, first of the natural methods. The Direct method became popular in language schools, but it was not very practical with larger classes or in public schools.

In the early to mid-1900s developments in other fields such as psychology, behaviorism has had a great effect on language teaching resulting in the audio-lingual method. *The audio-lingual method* has students listen to or view tapes of language models acting in situations. Students practice with variety of drills, and their instructor emphasizes the use of the target language at all times. The audio-lingual method was used by the United States Army for «crash» instruction in FL during World War II. Despite the documented success of these programs, they are no longer common.

In the years following World War II, great changes took place that influenced on language teaching and learning. Language diversity greatly increased so there were more languages to learn.

Expansion of schooling meant that language learning was no longer the privileged of the elite but something necessary for widening range of people. More opportunities for international travel and business and international social and cultural exchanges increased the demand for language learning. As a result, renewed efforts were made in the 1950s and 1960s to 1) use new technology (e.g., tape recorders, radios, TV and computers) effectively in language teaching, 2) explore new educational models (e.g., bilingual education, individualized instruction, etc.) and 3) establish methodological innovations (audio-lingual method). Yet, the desired increase in the effectiveness of language education didn't come about, and some of the theoretical footings of the developments were called into issue.

The start of the mid-1960s is distinguished by a range of theoretical challenges to the audio-lingual method. Linguist Noam Chomsky challenged the behaviorist model of language learning. He proposed a theory called *Transformational Generative Grammar*, as per which learners do not acquire an endless list of rules but limited set of transformations which can be used over and over again, (e.g., a sentence is changed from affirmative to a negative sentence by adding not and the auxiliary verb.) so that the language learner can form big number of sentences.

Other theorists have also proposed ideas influencing language teaching. Stephen Krashen, for example, studied the way that children learn language and applied it to adult language learning. He proposed the *Input Hypothesis*, which states that language is acquired by using comprehensible input (the language that one hears in the environment) which is slightly beyond the learners' present proficiency.

There have been big developments since the early 1970s. Individualized instruction, development of communicative approach, more humanistic approach to language learning and finally a greater stress on authenticity in language learning has become more required. Some «new methods» have gained followings.

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is an approach to the teaching languages that emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. Despite a number of

criticisms, it continues to be popular, particularly in Europe, where constructivist views on language learning and education in general dominate academic discourse.

Language immersion puts students in a situation where they must use a FL, whether or not they know it. This creates fluency, but not accuracy of usage. French-language immersion programs are common in Canada in the state school system as part of the drive towards bilingualism.

Minimalist/Methodologist approach (Paul Rowe's minimalist/Methodologist approach) is underpinned with Paul Nation's three actions of successful ESL (English as a second language) teachers. Initially it was written specifically for unqualified, inexperienced people teaching in EFL (English as FL) situations. Still experienced language teachers are also responding positively to its simplicity. Language items are usually provided using flashcards. There is a focus on language-in-context and multi-functional practices.

Directed practice has students repeat phrases. This method is used by US diplomatic courses. It can quickly provide phrasebook-type knowledge of the language. Within these limits, the student's usage is accurate and precise. Conversely the student's choice of what to say is not flexible.

Learning by teaching is a widespread method in Germany (Jean-Pol Martin). The students take the teacher's role and teach their peers. An important target is developing web-sensibility.

The Pimsleur language learning system is based on the research of and model programs developed by American language teacher Paul Pimsleur. Over a dozen audio-tape programs now exist to teach various languages using the Pimsleur Method.

Several methodologies that emphasize understanding language in order to learn, rather than producing it, exist as varieties of *the comprehension approach*. These include *Total Physical Response* and *the natural approach* of Steven Krashen and Tracy D.Terrell.

The Silent Way is a discovery learning approach, proposed by Galeb Gattegno in the 50s of the last century. It is often considered to be one of the humanistic approaches. It is called *The Silent Way* because the teacher is usually silent, leaving room for students to talk and explore the language. It is often associated with Cuisenaire

rods and wall charts where words are colour-coded; each phoneme a different colour.

Besides voluminous methods and approaches there are certain learning strategies that play big role in language teaching/learning.

Code switching, i.e. changing between languages at some point in a sentence or utterance, is commonly used communication strategy among language learners and bilinguals. While traditional methods of formal instruction often discourage code switching, students, especially those placed in a language immersion situation, often use it. If viewed as a learning strategy, wherein the student uses the target language for any element of an utterance that they are unable to produce in the target language, then it has the advantages that it encourages fluency development and motivation and a sense of accomplishment by enabling the student to discuss topics of interest to him or her early in the learning process – before requisite vocabulary has been memorized.

Blended learning combines face-to-face teaching with distance education, frequently electronic, either computer-based or web-based. It has been a major growth point in the ELT (English language Teaching) industry over the last two decades.

Some people, yet, use the phrase «Blended Learning» to refer to learning taking place while focus is on other activities. For example, playing a card game that requires calling for cards may allow blended learning of numbers (1 to 10).

Private tutoring, i.e. tutoring by a native speaker can be one of the most effective ways of learning. However, it requires a skilled, motivated native tutor, which can be a rare, expensive commodity. That tutor may draw on one or several of the above methods.

Besides proposed methods and approaches through history, there are also some other means that broaden the choice of learning FL like language study holidays, language education on the internet, etc.

An increasing number of people are now combining holidays with language study in the native country. This enables the student to experience the target culture by meeting local people. Such a holiday often combines formal lessons, cultural excursions, leisure activities and homestay, perhaps with time to travel in the country

afterwards. Language study holidays are popular across Europe due to the ease of transportation and to the small geographical distances. Many individuals travel to the UK alone to learn English.

The internet has emerged as a powerful medium to teach and learn FLs which provides a beneficial supplement to real world language schooling. Websites provide language exchange, i.e. two users with complementary language skills, e.g., a native English speaker and a native Chinese speaker who are eager to learn one another's language from different countries, can teach each other their languages.

There are a number of portals that offer language content, some in interactive form. Content typically comprises phrases with translation in multiple languages, text speech engines, learning activities such as quizzes or puzzles based on language concepts for free.

2.2. Language education in Europe

1995 European Commission's White Paper «Teaching and learning – Towards the learning society», stated that «upon completing initial training, everyone should be proficient in two Community FL». The Lisbon Summit of 2000 defined languages as one of the five key skills.

In fact, even in 1974, at least one FL was compulsory in all but two European countries (Ireland and the United Kingdom, apart from Scotland). By 1998 nearly all pupils in Europe studied at least one FL as part of their compulsory education, the only exception being the Republic of Ireland, where primary and secondary schoolchildren learn both Irish and English, but neither is considered a FL. Pupils in upper secondary education learn at least two FLs in Belgium's Flemish community, Denmark, Netherlands, Germany, Luxembourg, Finland, Sweden, Switzerland, Greece, Cyprus, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Serbia, Slovenia and Slovakia.

In Europe, at the start of FL teaching, pupils have lessons for three to four hours a week. Compulsory lessons in a FL normally start at the end of primary school or the start of secondary school. In

Luxembourg, Norway, Italy and Malta, on the other hand, the first FL starts at age six and in Belgium's Flemish community at age 10. About half of the EU's primary school pupils learn a FL.

In majority of countries, the curricula list the FL from which pupils may choose. They commonly offer from two to six languages (English, French, German, Spanish, Russian, Italian, Dutch). The effort to diversify the offer gained momentum in the 1900s. In practice, however, few schools offer all languages listed in the curricula. Significantly, in many countries pupils are not free to choose the first – or sometimes even the second – compulsory FL. In most such cases, English is mandatory.

Available statistics on the breakdown of pupils by FL studied show that English is overall the most studied language, at both primary and secondary level. The highest percentages of English learners are found above all in the EU countries. Only in some countries do French or German come first, although one or other is often taught as the second language in the EU countries. Russian, German, and English most frequently appear as the second compulsory language in central and eastern European countries.

Many Europeans learn FL at a much faster rate than American students because their language education is more intensive and may start at a younger age.

Despite the high rate of FL teaching in schools, the number of adults claiming to speak a FL is generally lower than might be expected. This is particularly true of native English speakers: in recent survey, 62% of people can't speak any other languages apart from English, 38% of Britons speak at least one FL, 18% speak two and only 6% of the population speaks three or more.

The EU average showed that 56% speak at least one FL, 28% speak at least two and 11% speak three or more. The survey confirmed that English was the most widely-spoken FL. 51% of EU citizens can have a conversation in English.

In some countries, learners have lessons taken entirely in a FL: for example, more than half European countries with minority or regional language community use partial immersion to teach both the minority and the state language.

In the 1960s and 1970s, some central and eastern European countries created a system of bilingual schools for well-performing pupils. Subjects other than languages were taught in a FL. In the 1990s this system was opened to all general education, although some countries still make candidates sit an entrance exam. At the same time Belgium's French community, France, The Netherlands, Austria and Finland also started bilingual schooling schemes. Germany meanwhile had established some bilingual schools in the late 1960s.

Many European countries have adapted their FL teaching at the national level to the frameworks and standards articulated by the Council of Europe's language policy and activities. Modern Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. A Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) developed and revised over the past decades has had high influence. It was said before that, the Framework is a planning instrument that provides a common basis and terminology for describing objectives, methods and approaches, skills, practices and assessments in language teaching, and it is used for planning syllabuses, examinations, teaching materials, and teacher training programs throughout Europe.

The basic objectives of FL teaching and the major methodological approaches are the same in all EU. All curricula explicitly or implicitly refer to the communicative approach. The prime objective is to enable learners to communicate and express themselves in a FL. All curricula therefore emphasize those objectives and contents that pertain to communication. These are expressed by way of four areas of proficiency, known as the four major skills: listening, reading, speaking, and writing. Most often, these skills are given equal treatment in terms of priority. Some countries, though emphasize oral and aural skills (speaking and listening), which are sometimes associated with reading skills. Grammatical knowledge is as a rule presented as a means of achieving communication proficiency. The role and importance of grammar are thus subordinate to communication-related objectives. The only differences observed between countries relate primarily to the extent to which this is so. Consequently, some curricula do not explicitly require the achievement of a given level of grammatical

proficiency. Other curricula instead clearly set out grammatical objectives, or even draw up lists of grammatical elements to be taught.

2.3. Language education in the United States

Most students start learning a FL in high school or late middle school. Students are sometimes required to take a certain amount (on average two years) of FL study in order to graduate; in some states or school systems; this is a requirement only of certain graduation plans (e.g., college preparatory).

The most popular language is Spanish, due to the large number of recent Spanish-speaking immigrants to the US. Other popular languages are French, German and Japanese. Latin used to be more common, but has fallen from favour somewhat. During the Cold War, the US government forced for Russian education, and some schools still maintain their Russian programs. Other languages recently gaining popularity are Chinese (especially Mandarin) and Arabic.

Questions:

1. When did begin the history of FLT in the world?
2. Why did Latin language as FL dominate in the world?
3. Can you explain the core of the Grammar translation method?
4. Why the Direct method is effective in FLT?
5. Think about advantages of the Audio-lingual method.
6. Think about the basic objectives of FL teaching and the major methodological approaches in EU.
7. What can you say about FLT in USA and Britain?

Independent work:

1. Study the material about Foreign Language Teaching in Schools in Europe in the Internet recourse: <http://www.eurdice.org>.
2. Find information about FLT in Great Britain and prepare the presentation.

3. Teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan

The questions to be discussed:

3.1. The historical review of teaching foreign languages in settlements of Uzbeks at ancient times.

3.2. The main periods of teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan.

3.3. The features of the V-VII periods of foreign languages teaching in Uzbekistan.

Key terms: history of FL teaching development, periods of teaching FL, maktab and madras, gymnasiums, bilinguism, multilinguism, classical and practical directions, scientific works, training the FL teachers, the clergy educational institutions, Russian-speaking schools, Uzbek-speaking schools, National curriculum, FL textbooks, FLT methodology.

3.1. The historical review of teaching foreign languages in settlements of Uzbeks at ancient times

Teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan has a long-lasting history that was described in details by prof. J.J. Jalolov in his works⁷¹.

From the ancient times bilinguism and multilinguism were widely spread on the territory of Uzbekistan. The Uzbek people learned the Tajik language and other languages from childhood. For example, Amir Timur since his childhood freely spoke in Turkish and Tajik languages⁷².

Peoples living at that time in this area always knew languages of each other. The Uzbek people tried to learn languages of neighboring and distant states. At that time among the population of

⁷¹ Jalolov J.J. *Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign Languages Teaching Methodology.* -Toshkent: O'qituvchi, 2012. -P-133-144.

⁷² See the book by J.J.Jalolov: Yakubovsky A.Yu// In book: *History of the people of Uzbekistan Timur and his time. V. 1. p. VII., ch. I.* - Tashkent: AN UZSSR, 1950. - P.345.

our homeland the Arabic language also became widely extended, as an effect of spreading Islamic religion.

A lot of archival documents gave evidence that until the second half of the XX century maktab and madrasah students (Muslim schools) had acquired the Arabic alphabet and vocabulary, learned by heart some parts of the Koran, learned to read and write the Shariat Laws. Self-study of the FL was extended, sometimes the students focused on classical literature of the East, learning by heart poems. The main goal of the Arabic language learning was to know it as the language of religion, while the Persian language was the language of science, literature and trade. The level of language proficiency and learning period depended on qualification of teachers and students' needs. It is known that progressive thinkers and scientist of the time such as Muhammad Musa Khoesmiy, Ahmad Ferghani, Abu Nasr Farabi, Abu Rayihan Beruni, Abu Ibn Sino, Ulugbek, Alisher Navoi and others were polyglots. Knowing different languages they could study the works of the Eastern and Western scientists and created their own original works⁷³.

In Central Asia (before joining Russia) the oriental languages teaching was conducted under two directions: 1) classical – teaching of the Arabic language at maktab and madrasah where the attention was paid to grammar, orthoepy (rules for correct pronunciation) and stylistic features; 2) practical method of acquiring the language – while trading with representatives of alien countries.

As a result of annexing Turkestan by the Russian Tsar, a peculiar bilateral system of education took place in the territory of Uzbekistan. On the one hand a widespread network of elementary Muslim schools under the government of mosques and madrasah was functioning where the main objective was to teach the Islam doctrines. On the other hand schools with Russian-speaking teaching started to be organized. By 1867 their quantity reached 10 schools. According to academician V.V.Bartold, under the governor of area Kauffman the Muslim organizations, including educational

⁷³ Jalolov J., G.Tojjeva. Historical outline of foreign language teaching (FLT) in Uzbekistan. In: Advanced Science Journal – USA. – 2012 – Volume 2012 Issue 5. – Pp. 58.

institutions were opened»⁷⁴. Migration of a large number of the Russian-speaking population into Uzbek land and bourgeois changes in the local conditions influenced the education system. Secondary educational institutions for the Russian-speaking population were opened in this region.

By 1906, lessons were conducted in Russian in five gymnasiums for boys and five gymnasiums for girls, in seminaries for teachers, in the Tashkent military school and in many other educational institutions. Alongside with this, four-year Russian - native schools were opened. The purpose was to teach the Russian language to local people for their further work in various organizations.

At that time FL teaching and learning in Uzbekistan was dictated by political and practical goals. In the seventies of the XIX century it was important to study the European languages across Russia because of the rivalry between Russia and Britain in colonization of Eastern countries. Depending on the dominant position of FL in Uzbekistan many words were borrowed from different languages into the Uzbek language.

3.2. The main periods of teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan

The main periods of teaching FL in Uzbekistan were defined by R.A.Zaripova⁷⁵ and some periods was clarified and added by J.J.Jalalov⁷⁶. Taking into consideration J.J.Jalalov's clarifications the history of teaching and learning FL in Uzbekistan can be divided into the following periods:

- the I period – before 1917;
- the II period – from 1917 up to the beginning of 1930;
- the III period – from 1930 up to the first half of 1940;

⁷⁴See the book by J.J.Jalolov: Bartold V.V. History of cultural life of Turkestan. V.1, p 1 - M: Publishing house of east literature 1961 - P. 297.

⁷⁵ Зарипова Р.А. Изучение иностранных языков в Туркестане (1865-1924 гг.) Нукус. Каракалпакстан. 1971. – 152 с

⁷⁶ Jalolov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign Languages Teaching Methodology -Toshkent. O'qituvchi, 2012. -P-133-144.

- the IV period – from the middle of 1940 up to the beginning of 1960;

- the V period – from 1960 up to the beginning of 1970;

- the VI period – from 1970 up to 1990;

- the VII period – from 1991 – to the present time.

The specifics of the first four periods (I, II, III, IV) can be characterized with reference to J.J. Jalolov and A.A. Klevan's article⁷⁷.

At the first period the West-European languages were taught at Cadet Corps and the Russian gymnasiums were opened in Tashkent, Samarkand, Ferghana (former Scobelev), Kokand and Andijan. But the children of workers had no opportunity to study there.

At gymnasiums for the boys the German and French languages were compulsory. The local population studied at maktab and madrasahs, where the Arabic and Persian languages were taught. But the level of the language proficiency was very low.

In Turkestan FL teaching was based on grammar-translating methods under Russian educational traditions. Then they gave «the green light» to the direct method (without a native language as a mediator) within which the oral speech was paid a great attention to⁷⁸.

After the October Revolution the system of education was rebuilt. Teaching FL was introduced into the teaching plans of schools; the number of schools where English became compulsory was increased. However, FL was not taught at all schools because the shortage of FL teachers. It was necessary to train FL teachers, so in 1918 the Turkistan Oriental Institute was established.

During 1920-1922 the qualified FL teachers moved to Turkestan from Moscow and Petrograd. In 1920 the Turkestan State University was opened, that laid down the basis of development of national culture of the population of Central Asia.

In 1924 the Turkistan Oriental Institute was reconstructed and became one of the divisions (oriental faculty) of the Turkestan State

⁷⁷ Джалалов Д.Д., Клевань А.А. К истории преподавания иностранных языков в Узбекистане.// Ученые записки Вып. 7 -Т. НИИПН. 1964. -С. 320-336.

⁷⁸ Зарипова Р.А. Изучение иностранных языков в Туркестане (1865-1924 гг.) Нукус: Каракалпакстан, 1971. – С. 145

University, which focused on FL teaching. After formation of the Uzbek Socialist Republic FL were taught at some schools with the Russian language orientation. Especially the German language dominated; the ex-prisoners of war from the Austria-Hungarian Army and the gymnasium teachers were invited as the German teachers. Most of them had no imagination about the methodology of FL teaching which caused a low language performance. At that time FL were not taught at the Uzbek schools because they were dealing with primary education. Only at the Pedagogical College FL was introduced because they trained FL teachers.

Beginning with 1926-1927 the 7-year Uzbek schools were opened, where FL were introduced gradually. Thus, it became necessary to open FL courses for teachers' training.

In 1932 the Decree «On curriculums and conditions of the primary and secondary education» was approved, where the necessity of obtaining the knowledge of one of the FL by all students was proposed. In 1935 the Decree «On conditions and objectives of the primary and secondary education» was announced which intended the elaboration of measures for improvement schools' activity and development of the 7-year education in the rural areas of Uzbekistan. FL as a curricular subject was introduced at all Uzbek and Russian schools in cities and towns of the republic. In 1936-1937 the English language was taught at 20 schools, the French language – at 5 schools of the republic.

During that period the textbooks and other teaching materials were worked out for schools. The first original German text-book for the 5-th form of the Uzbek schools was published in 1935. The advantage of this text-book was: it recommended a combined method of teaching aimed at speaking, translation, acquiring grammar and pronunciation sub-skills with the help of comparative analysis of the Uzbek and German sounds and structures, using various visual aids.

Beginning with 1940 the German textbooks were reworked out by the local German language teachers taking into consideration the specifics of the Uzbek language. The first German-Uzbek languages dictionary was compiled in 1940.

The period of the Second World War was characterized with extending the FL teaching at schools given the military time needs, requirements and conditions. The development of FL education was continued in the post-war period. In 1947 the Decrees «On improvement of FL teaching at schools» and «On FL teachers training», then in 1948 «On improvement of FL teaching at schools of Uzbekistan and organization of FL teachers training» were adopted by the Cabinet of Ministers. This authority obliged the Ministry of Education to provide compulsory teaching of one of the FL (English, French, German and Spanish) at all urban schools. That's why under the Ministry of Education a special division of FL and the section of the Higher Teaching-methodological Council to help teachers' activity and improve FLT were founded. The staff of methodologist-inspectors of FLT was set out in Tashkent and other regional Education departments and institutes of teachers advanced training. Training of FL teachers was carried out at the Tashkent pedagogical institute and at the philology faculty of Samarkand state university. In 1948-1949 in Uzbekistan there was a mass introduction of FLT at 5-10 forms of schools, and at some schools learning of FL began at the 3-d form.

In 1954 the faculty of FL was founded in Karakalpakstan Pedagogical Institute. Beginning with 1956-1957 the Arabic, Farsi, Chinese, Hindi and Urdu languages have been taught at schools.

In 1957 the first collection «The matters of the FL teaching methodology» was published by the Ministry of Education of Uzbekistan.

Dealing with four periods in the history of FL teaching in Uzbekistan the following matters have been considered:

1. In the first period FL in the Uzbek educational institutions were divided into two categories: the first – Eastern languages in the clergy educational institutions; the second – at Russian-speaking schools – the European languages. The local methodical materials for Uzbeks were not published.

2. Scientific research works in the sphere of methodology of FL teaching appeared in the middle of 1950. Prior to that, local textbooks, the methodical materials, and scientific books were not published in Uzbekistan.

3. Russian methodology was widely used which was not appropriate for local educational conditions because it didn't take into consideration the national context.

3.3. The features of the V-VII periods of foreign languages teaching in Uzbekistan

In 1961 the Decree «On improvement of FL teaching» was adopted, where the current conditions of FL teaching at schools and Higher Educational establishments and also shortcomings were analyzed, the objectives and measures for preventing gaps were defined. To increase the learners' motivation for FL learning in classrooms and out-of-class activity and bringing up the learners in the angle of internationalism the FL parties, festivals and contest were organized. Technical teaching aids found their application in the practice of FL teaching.

Since 1961-1962 the special groups to teach other disciplines in the FL had been organized in Tashkent and Samarkand State Universities. The Bukhara, Fergana, Kokand Pedagogical Institutes trained FL teachers.

Beginning with the 1960th the elaboration and development of the FL methodology with reference to the national-context of Uzbekistan began.

In 1961-1964 the first English, German and French textbooks for 5 and 8 forms were published. But these textbooks were created on the material of the curricula for Russian schools. At the same time the specifics of the Uzbek language was taken into consideration. The mass implementation of FL textbooks was consistent with the development of theoretical matters. The published theoretical works promoted the effectiveness of FLT in the conditions of Uzbekistan. The scientists and teachers tried to solve the issues of the selection of the language material that was the base for the creation of the National curricula. In 1968 the first project of the National Curriculum for FL teaching at schools was worked out and it was introduced into the educational process in 1970.

Novel original FL textbooks for schools on the basis of the National Curriculum were published during 1970-1974. Thus, the linguo-didactic principle of taking into consideration the native language in the conditions of Uzbekistan was materialized in the curricula and textbooks.

This period is characterized by using grammar-translation and textual-translation, direct, cognitive and combined methods and approaches to FL teaching and learning.

This period was also a very fruitful for scientific-research activity. Several candidate and doctoral theses devoted to the important issues of FL methodology and philology were defended.

In 1970-1980 the Doctors of philological sciences (A.A.Abduazizov, J.J.Buranov, M.E.Umarhodjaev), professors in foreign linguistics and FL methodology (S.Saidov, J.Jalolov) appeared. Since the period gaining Independence of Uzbekistan the number of Doctors of philological and pedagogical sciences in the field of FL has increased (Sh.Safarov, K.Musaev, B.Tursunov, B.Rizaev, M.Nusharov, I.Mirzaev, H.Orzikulov, M.Holbekov, S.Rahimov, B.Samadov, H.Otajanov, D.Ashurova, M.Rasulova, G.Hoshimov, T.Sattarov, D.Yakubov, G.Makhkamova). Their doctoral theses had an immense contribution to the development of linguistic and methodology sciences in the field of FL teaching in the Republic of Uzbekistan.

The great merit of FLT methodology development in Uzbekistan belongs to professor J.J.Jalolov. His original innovative ideas were reflected in the monograph «Issues of the content of the foreign languages teaching»⁷⁹, the textbook «Foreign language teaching methodology»⁸⁰ and the EL textbooks for schools and «Teachers' guide books».⁸¹

⁷⁹ Джалалов Д.Д. Проблемы содержания обучения иностранному языку. -Т.: Фан, 1987.

⁸⁰ Jalolov J.J.Чет тил уқитиш методикаси. -Т.: Уқитувчи, 1996; Jalolov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi Foreign Languages Teaching Methodology. -Toshkent: O'qituvchi, 2012.

⁸¹ Джалалов Д.Д., Стравчинская Г.И. Учебник английского языка для 5 класса узбекской школы. -Т.: Уқитувчи, 1972 (8-е изд. в 1981); Джалалов Д.Д., Стравчинская Г.И. Книга для учителя к учебнику английского языка для 5 класса узбекской школы. -Т. Уқитувчи, 1973; Джалалов Д.Д., Стравчинская Г.И. Учебник английского языка для 4 класса узбекской школы. -Т.: Уқитувчи, 1982. (5-е изд. в 1986); Джалалов Д.Д., Стравчинская Г.И. Книга для учителя к учебнику английского языка для 4 класса узбекской школы. -Т. Уқитувчи, 1983; Джалалов Д.Д., Стравчинская Г.И. Учебник английского языка для 6 класса узбекской школы. -Т.: Уқитувчи,

After proclaiming the Independence of Uzbekistan in 1991 the main attention was paid to the reforming of the educational system. In 1992 «The Law on Education» and «National program of personnel training» came into force in Uzbekistan. In these directive documents the acquiring FL has become a necessity of the personnel training to meet the requirements of economy and policy of Uzbekistan and the whole world. On the basis of the set of directive educational documents the up-to-date State Educational Standards, teaching plans, curricula and syllabuses, FL course-books, teaching and methodical manuals for all educational stages have been created. The content of the FL teaching and learning is varied depending on the stage and type of educational establishment.

Beginning with 1980 the cognitive and communicative methods of FLT has been introduced. At present the communicative, intercultural and linguo-cultural approaches to co-teaching and co-learning FL and culture are being widely used in Uzbekistan.

Questions:

1. What are the main periods in the history of FL methodology development?
2. What were the main features of the first and second periods?
3. What do you think about 1941-1945 period of FLT?
4. Why did German take the dominant position?
5. What institutes were specialized for FL teachers training?
6. Can you say about methods of FLT in 1950-1970?
7. When was the first National Curriculum elaborated?
8. Is it necessary to take into consideration the native language in FLT? Give your arguments.
9. What innovations are introduced into the FLT in Uzbekistan at present?

1972; Джалалов Д.Д., Стравчинская Г.И. Книга для учителя к учебнику английского языка для 6 класса узбекской школы. -Т. Ўқитувчи, 1973; Д.Д.Джалалов Книга для чтения для 5-6-классов English Reader. . -Т. Ўқитувчи, 1979; Жалалов Ж. English 10 -Т. Ўқитувчи, 2002. Жалалов Ж English 11 -Т.: Ўқитувчи, 2005.

Tasks:

1. Describe the specifics of FL teaching in the ancient times.
2. Tell about three periods of educational system reforming.
3. Analyze the main peculiarities of FLT methodology of the VI and VII periods.

Independent work:

1. Study the historical survey of FLT in Uzbekistan. Find the additional information and prepare the presentation.
2. Think about scientific researches done in the FL methodology and their contribution into the theory and practice of FLT.

Part II. TEACHING THE FOUR MAIN ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS AT SCHOOL, LYCEUM AND COLLEGE

CHAPTER 1. Teaching English language material

1. Teaching English vocabulary

The questions to be discussed:

- 1.1. The role of vocabulary in FLT.
- 1.2. What is vocabulary and what should be taught?
- 1.3. Different approaches to recognition of lexical (vocabulary) complexity.
- 1.4. Selection of vocabulary minimum.
- 1.5. Stages and ways of teaching vocabulary.

Key terms: vocabulary, word, lexicon, formal, functional, semantic, style, active (productive) minimum, passive (receptive) minimum, combinative, stylistic, frequency, word-building, polysemantic words, synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, context, definition, interpretation, static stage, dynamic stage, criteria of selection, pre-activity, while-activity, post-activity.

1.1. The role of vocabulary in FLT

The term «curriculum» includes the totality of the knowledge that is expected to be imparted to the learner in a school, lyceum or college. It provides a comprehensive plan on which the entire system of learning and teaching can be based. Hence, the curriculum should plan the use of receptive and productive skills, mastery of vocabulary, and acquaintance with the culture and literature of the people who use English as their first language⁸².

⁸² Мильруд Р.П., Максимова И.Р. Современные концептуальные принципы коммуникативного обучения иностранным языкам // Иностранные языки в школе – М., 2000 - №4 – С 9-15

Teaching vocabulary is a very important objective in the curriculum. According to psychologists, human beings learn the life experiences by words, because thoughts are made by words. Word is a central unit of a language: language first of all is the system of words. Without a sufficient vocabulary, students cannot communicate effectively and express ideas. Having a limited vocabulary is also a barrier that prevents students from learning a foreign language. If learners do not know how to expand their vocabulary, they gradually lose interest in learning.

The necessity of vocabulary enrichment is pointed out in curriculum. Fortunately, for students and teachers, the most vocabulary growth takes place through incidental learning, that is, through exposure to comprehensible language in reading, listening, speaking, audios and videos and so on.

It is necessary to study both theoretical and practical approaches to teaching vocabulary. Thus, knowing the vocabulary selecting criteria is significant for an effective learning.

The main practical aim of teaching vocabulary in the primary and secondary schools is to develop the learners' vocabulary subskills as a basic component of all language and communicative activities. One should realize that the terms "vocabulary" and "words" are not the same.

Learning a new language is basically a matter of learning the vocabulary of that language. Not being able to find the words you need to express is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language. Without doubt vocabulary is not the only thing you have to know about the language. Other levels of language (grammar, phonetic, phonological, and stylistic) are also important.

Nevertheless it is possible to have good knowledge of how the language system works and yet not be able to communicate in it; whereas if we have the vocabulary we need assimilate to communicate.

Anyone who learns a new language is likely to recognize more words than he/she can produce. It is difficult to produce a word correctly. It is necessary to pronounce or spell it in the right way, to use it in the correct grammatical form, to use it appropriately to the context. It may therefore be important for a teacher to decide which

words are appropriate and relevant for students age and stage. What words can form the 'productive' or 'active' vocabulary? The teacher also should decide which words she/he wishes her/his students merely to recognize. In other words, what words are considered as the 'receptive' or 'passive' vocabulary. The production of words (while speaking or writing) in the target language takes much greater efforts from the learner. Of course, in productive vocabulary, the learner has an advantage to choose the word he wishes to use: whereas in receptive vocabulary (as in listening or reading) he has to handle with the language level of the speaker or writer.

1.2. What is vocabulary and what should be taught?

Vocabulary can be defined, roughly, as the words we have to teach in a foreign language class. However, a new item of the vocabulary may occur not in the form of a single word: for example, *pen-holder* and *merry-go-round*, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea. There are also multi-word idioms such as *take the bull by the horns*, where the meaning of the phrase cannot be deduced from the analysis of the component words. A useful convention would be to cover all such cases as vocabulary «items» rather than «words». It is also called mental lexicon that is «vocabulary in mind»⁸³. It consists of the smallest independent meaningful units of speech. These units of speech are called words. The words have the word forms and meanings assigned to them. Words in the mental lexicon create lexical networks. Once activated, a lexical item stimulates the spreading of other associated lexical items, which in its turn causes the activation of a bigger network. Mental lexicon is stored in our memory and it is the process of mapping the meanings in the mind and putting these memory traces into some word groups. Mental lexicon performs the functions of word storage, retrieval, comprehension and use. The storage of words in the mental lexicon is the result of a person's cognitive processes in real-world situations. As a result of cognitive processes, the words make up the situation sets (associated with

⁸³ Ur P. A Course in Language Teaching. Practice and theory. -Cambridge: CUP, 2003. -Pp. 82-90.

a particular situation, objects, phenomena or processes), semantic sets (associated with a concept) and collocation sets (associated with other words by habitual everyday use).

Language is created and developed by the society with the aims to interact and transmit material elements of a culture. The language as a means of communication was and always remains the constant participant of the society and people's activity. That's why the study of the vocabulary is intertwined with all the other aspects of the language:

a) with pronunciation: the lexical meaning is expressed with the help of phonic means of the language:

- short and long vowels (fill-feel, knit-neat)
- open and close vowels (beg-bag)
- voiceless and voiced consonants (lad-let);

b) with morphology: book- books;

c) with syntax: structural forms;

d) with spelling: fair tale – fare tail;

e) with stylistics: father, pa, daddy, pop, old man.

Under the vocabulary subskills we mean the ability:

- to transfer a word from the distant memory to immediate memory. The retrieval of the words from distant memory may be implemented through the activation of the mental lexicon. The activation is an attempt to map the idea onto words. Sometimes the meaning cannot be mapped onto the words and it becomes the cause of the «tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon» when the meaning needs to be expressed but the form cannot be retrieved from the memory.

- to check the correct selection of a particular word in the given situation. Here we may see the approximate word usage which can be hampered by the absence of the corresponding word in processing memory or in the mental storage. In this case the language users resort to lexical strategies such as circumlocution (putting the idea in a different way), word coinage (creating a non-existent word) and derivation (forming a word from the one that is known to the language user). Another strategy is using gestures and mimicry.

- to evaluate combinability of the word chosen instantly with other vocabulary items. A process of cognition produces the meaning, that a person is willing to communicate in the circumstances. It is necessary to consider the «word pragmatics», i.e. to see that a word does not elicit an unwanted reaction from other participants in the communication. Using a word means recognizing certain grammar norms and rules. Finally, the word is accessed in memory and is produced either in graphical or oral form.

- to choose the proper paradigmatic form of the word quickly suitable for a particular structure. This case is related to the use of words in both the speech production and comprehension cognitive processes. The perception of the situation presupposes looking for an appropriate word in the «master-file» (the main storage of words)).

What should be taught? The learner has to know how does a word sound like (its pronunciation) and how does it look like (its spelling form). These are fairly obvious characteristics, and one or the other will be perceived by the learner when encountering the item for the first time. In teaching, we need to make sure that both these aspects are accurately presented and learned. Another point is grammar. The grammar of a new item will need to be taught if this is not obviously covered by general grammatical rules. An item may have an unpredictable change of form in certain grammatical contexts or may have some idiosyncratic ways of connecting with other words in sentences; it is important to provide learners with this information at the same time as we teach the basic form. When teaching a new verb, for example, we might give also its past form, if this is irregular (*go, went*), and we might note if it is transitive or intransitive. Similarly, when teaching a noun, we may wish to present its plural form, if irregular (*foot, feet*), or draw learners' attention to the fact that it has no plural at all (*advice, information*). We may present verbs such as *want* and *enjoy* together with the verb form that follows them (*want+to do, enjoy+doing*), or adjectives or verbs together with their following prepositions (*wait for, listen to*). The collocations typical of particular items are another factor that makes a particular combination sound «*right*» or «*wrong*» in a given context. So this is another piece of information about a new item which it may be worth teaching. When introducing words like

decision and *conclusion*, for example, we may note that you take *or* make the one, but usually come to the other; similarly, you throw a ball *but* toss a coin; you may talk about *someone being* dead tired *but it sounds odd to say* dead fatigued. Another typical feature is idiomatic word use or collocations. They often serve as instruments of individual expressive power. Collocations are also often noted in dictionaries, either by providing the whole collocation under one of the head-words, or by a note in parenthesis. Teacher should appeal learners' attention to the differentiative features of idiomatic expressions with word combinations.

By methodological typology of the language material we mean distribution of lexical units into groups in accordance with the degree of their complexity for assimilation.

1.3. Different approaches to recognition of lexical (vocabulary) complexity

There are different approaches to recognition of lexical (vocabulary) complexity:

- taking into account qualitative characteristics of words, that is formal, functional and semantic peculiarities of a particular word and complexity of their assimilation under the condition of contacted languages. When people are speaking or writing, their choice of words depends on the situation they are in. A variety of the language in a communicative situation is called a language style. It may be appropriate to use an informal style with close friends, a neutral style with business acquaintances and a formal style with an employer. Often in communication it is necessary to select specific vocabulary that helps to convey the message in the best way. People switch the vocabulary they use when they talk to different specialists or non-specialists, to adults or children, to indifferent or sensitive people. The selection of vocabulary for the purpose of achieving the best communicative result is called language register³⁴.

³⁴ Millrood R.P. English Teaching Methodology. -M.: Drofa, 2007 -P 93-94.

- taking into account quantitative characteristics of words (metaphorical word usage and word polysemy which is represented by homophones with a variety of assigned meanings) which imply wide use of words as well as their length which is measured in the number of letters or syllables.

The world is formed as the symbols of things and so are words in our mind. The word reminds us the symbol of the object and circumstance of the second signal system, for instance: when you hear or read the word «bread» you can easily imagine «food». The relationship between notions should be taken into consideration while teaching vocabulary. Firstly, in other words, there are narrow and wide-spread notions, for example: woman, man – person; daughter, son - child. Secondly, coinciding – two notions are different in their meanings: to visit– to come; thirdly, partly coinciding notions - one notion can partly cover the other one: scientist-methodist, pedagogue-musician; fourthly, words which do not coincide with each other, for example: pen-twilight, algorithm-holiday.

You can see the differences in the Table 9.

Table 9. Differences in the word notion

Relationships between notions	Uzbek	English	Spanish	Deutch	French	Russian
Fully the same	Suv	water	agua	wasser	eau	вода
Partly	qo‘l	1.arm 2.hand	1.brazo 2.mano	1.arm 2.hand	1.bras 2.main	рука
Fully different	Shanbalik	_____	_____	_____	_____	Суб-ботник
	_____	Lunch	_____	_____	_____	_____
	_____	_____	Siesta	_____	_____	_____
	_____	_____	_____	Herr	_____	_____
	_____	_____	_____	_____	Grand dejeneur	_____

Words are very complicated in their meanings, material forms (phoneme, morpheme, grapheme) and expressions of connection between the objects and circumstances (its denotations).

Pay attention to the following examples:

Uzbek	English	Spanish	Deutch	French	Russian
Bormoq kelmoq	Go come	Ir verir	Gehen kommen	Ailer venir	Ийти

It can be clearly seen from the table that the infinitive form in Uzbek and other foreign languages has its significant but in Russian there is not significant of infinitive, it can be expressed in the context.

The associative communication is of great importance for memorizing and using new words. There are five types of associative communication: 1. synonyms; 2. antonyms; 3. equally related notions: table-chair (furniture); 4. widening of the meaning: table-furniture, apple-fruit; 5. connection of the notions: illness-death (cause and effect relations), soldier-army (the relations between the part and the whole).

1.4. Selection of vocabulary minimum

The term «selection» is widely spread in methodology of FLT. Vocabulary selection concerns solution of two problems: 1) defining units/items and principles (criteria) of selection.

Word-meaning is a practically rational for unit/item of lexical minimum selection. A word, word-combination, or phrase can be considered as a unit of selection.

Under the principle of selection we understand the measurement of indications, on which the evaluation of the lexicon is organized.

In accordance with indications' characteristics all the principles are distinguished into interrelated groups:

1 group – statistical principles:

- *frequency* (the total number of the word occurrence in the source or sources);

-*range* (words that occur across a wide variety of texts).

2 group – methodical principles:

- *thematic* (related to the topics given in the curriculum);

- *semantic* (words which reflect the main concepts of the topic, or situation);

- *learnability* (spelling, phonological difficulties, syntactic properties, polysemy, false friends, cultural aspects).

3 group – linguistic principles:

- *combinability*,

- *word-building value*,

- *polysemantic words*,

- *stylistic unboundedness*.

Methodological preparation of a new vocabulary should be done in two stages. The first stage correlates with the selection of the words for teaching. This stage is called static, then dynamic stage follows.

The phenomenon of making microsystem for students learning according to certain scientific criteria is called as methodological choice.

The active (productive) vocabulary is used in oral speech, passive (receptive) is used in written speech. The active (productive) minimum of foreign language in schools includes approximately 1000-1200 words. Passive (receptive) vocabulary is chosen in compliance of the active (productive) minimum.

The basic principles of selection of the active (productive) minimum vocabulary are:

- semantic approach;

- combinative approach;

- stylistic approach;

- frequency approach;

- word-building value;

- value of polysemantic words;

- excluding synonyms;

- excluding international words.

The active (productive) minimum of vocabulary is selected from topics and communicative situations, dialogues and written speech, video- and audio-texts.

The criteria of selection of the passive (receptive) minimum vocabulary are:

- derivability;
- polysemantic character;
- frequency and wide usage;
- topical associations;
- semantic and word-building value.

1.5. Stages and ways of teaching vocabulary

The process of development of vocabulary subskills in the English classrooms proposes three stages.

Stage I is related to the presentation of a new vocabulary. The aim is to introduce a new word and disclose the meaning of each word. Ways and techniques to convey the meaning of a word are:

Direct way

- dictionaries – used in conveying the meaning of a word;
- synonyms– items that mean the same, or nearly the same; for example, *clever, smart* may serve as synonyms of *intelligent*;
- antonyms– items that mean the opposite; *rich* is an antonym of *poor*;
- hyponyms – items that serve as specific examples of a general concept; *dog, lion, mouse* are hyponyms of *animal*;
- morphological analysis (word building) – *You may wish to teach the common prefixes and suffixes: for example, it learners know the meaning of sub-, un- and -able, this will help them guess the meanings of words like substandard, ungrateful and untranslatable. They should, however, be warned that in many common words the affixes no longer have any obvious connection with their root meaning (for example, subject, comfortable). New combinations of prefixes are not unusual, and the learner is expected to gather the meaning from understanding of the components (ultra-modern, super-hero). Another way to learn the vocabulary structure is combining two words (two nouns, or a gerund and a noun, or a noun and a verb) to make one item: compound word, or two separate, sometimes hyphenated words (bookcase, follow-up, swimming pool).*

- contextual guessing – understanding the meaning through the context, or previous experience;
- definitions – explanation of meaning in English with the words familiar for learners;
- examples – situational and interesting information which can motivate learners;
- interpretation – if there is no equivalent in the native language;
- matching – synonyms, antonyms;
- analysis of the structure – familiar components of the word;
- making list of family words – finding the meaning of the general word via familiar words;
- familiar or famous (international) words.

Visual

- demonstration of school paraphernalia or drawings on the black board (realia);
- illustration material-pictures / objects;
- models;
- demonstration of movements, mime, body language;
- pictograms, pictures, schemes.

Translation

- giving an equivalent;
- translation-interpretation;
- comparing a foreign word to the native language word.

The choice of a successful way of semantization depends on the following factors:

- 1) whether the word belongs to the active (productive) or passive (receptive) vocabulary minimum;
- 2) on the stage of learning: at the junior level – visual techniques, speech-patterns, translation; at the intermediate level – synonyms, antonyms, word-building analysis; at the senior level - context. definitions;
- 3) on the level of the language performance of the learners in a certain stage of education;
- 4) on the qualitative characteristics of a word.

While introducing new vocabulary can be used direct and indirect ways for semantization. The more effective way is direct as definition, context, etc.

It is time to deal with the matters, first, how to work on a new word. There are 2 ways: 1) a word in isolation; 2) via the context.

The second, how to work on an isolated word:

- when you deal with proper names, geographical names;
- sometimes you can give some words to develop the language guessing abilities (the first word is given in the context, the rest – in isolation: a runner – in the context; a jumper – will be easily guessed);
- when teaching the students to work with a dictionary.

The work on a new word in the context is more widely used, in particular, in a phrase, in a situation, in a story, in question-answer form, in a talk. It leads to better assimilation of new words.

Stage II – drilling, its aim is to create or form the stereotypes of usage of a new word.

Stage III – situational (communicative practice) aimed to developing or improving the vocabulary subskills in the aspect of using vocabulary in the speech.

People can communicate using 400-500 words. An educated person uses 3000-5000 words to express his ideas in the written and spoken forms of speech. A person should know more than 3000-5000 words for reading and listening. Famous writers and poets use 20-25 thousand words in their works.

Many language teaching programmes aspire to teach only about 2000 words. Are the remaining words learnt from a dictionary? Definitely not. If the meanings have not been supplied by outside sources, as it were, then where have they been found? The answer is, of course, that we guess the meanings of the words by hearing them used in a certain situation or by reading them in a certain context and guessing their meaning from the context⁸⁵.

In connection with the matter of guessing importance in the communicative activity (during reading or listening) it is necessary to discuss some ways to learn words in the context in detail.

Inferring the word meaning from the context allows the student to infer or guess the meaning from the context or illustrations. Through the context students obtain a general understanding of an

⁸⁵ Lado R., Fries C. *Lessons in Vocabulary*. - Michigan: The University of Michigan Press, 1990.

unfamiliar word if 1) they continue reading, if students know something about the content of reading or listening materials from their knowledge of the first language reading; 2) students know how the meaning of the words they learn refers to parts of reality.

For this purpose teachers need to know how to train students' subskills. The teacher can use the following techniques (for efficient readers) suggested by Yang Zhihong⁸⁶:

1. Look at the unknown word and decide its part of speech. Is it a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb?

2. Look at the clause or sentence containing unknown word. If the unknown word is a noun, what does this noun do, or what is done to it? And what adjectives describe it? What verb is it near? If it is a verb, what nouns does it go with? Is it modified by an adverb? If it is an adjective, what noun does it go with? If it is an adverb, what verb is it modifying?

3. Look at the relationship between the clause or sentences containing the unknown word and other sentences or paragraphs. Sometimes this relationship will be signaled by conjunctions like but, because, if, when, or by adverbs like however, as a result. The possible types of relationship include cause and effect, contrast, time, exemplification, and summary.

4. Use the knowledge you have gained from steps 1 to 3 to guess the meaning of the word.

5. Check if your guess is correct.

a) See the part of speech of your guess is the same.

b) Replace the unknown word with your guess. Does the sentence make sense?

c) Break the unknown word into its prefix, root, and suffix, if it possible. Is the meaning of the prefix and root correspond to your guess?

Through a range of instructional activities, student can actively and consciously develop their vocabulary subskills. Meaningful instruction should of course include the explicit teaching of word meaning and discussion about words and their prefixes, suffixes, and roots. But it should also include dictionary exercises, word

⁸⁶ Yang Zhihong. Learning words. // English Teaching Forum. 2000. V.38, No3. - P. 19.

family activities, semantic mapping, semantic feature analysis, word associations, synonym and antonym activities, cognate awareness exercises, practice with lexical sets, classification activities.

Although classroom instruction of these types of vocabulary work cannot account for all the words students need to learn to assimilate vocabulary via direct teaching.

The process of vocabulary acquisition has a certain laws and rules. The first encounter with the word is sometimes more important than its frequency in exercises. That is why it is essential to «prime the word», i.e. to prepare the learners for the encounter with the new word through activation of prior knowledge and creating the necessity of using the word. Development of vocabulary in mind depends on the complexity of the concepts that are expressed with the help of words, because words with a concrete meaning are acquired easier and sooner than abstract ones. Learners acquire separate meanings of a word. First they acquire one component of meaning and then another. Basic terms (e.g. potato) are learned before superordinate words (vegetables). The storage of words in memory depends on the depth of meaning processing. The deeper learners get the meaning of the words in examples and associations, the stronger memory traces will be. Receptive skills come before productive skills and the learners find it easier first to understand a word and then to use it. The knowledge of a vocabulary item comes before the knowledge of a vocabulary collocation, i.e. the learners first acquire words and then learn how to combine them in collocations. Words are best remembered in their situational context (combination with other words) yet situational context can limit the potential use of the words to particular situations only. In a motivation activity the word is remembered the best. Motivation activities are more important than continuous repetitions.

There is a three-phase framework of teaching vocabulary. They can be broken down into three phases such as pre-activity, while-activity and post-activity (Table 10).

Table 10. Phases and activities

Phase	Activity
Pre-activity	Exploring vocabulary forms (word derivation models). Exploring vocabulary meaning (synonyms, antonyms, polysemy). Exploring potential vocabulary use.
While-activity	Deriving words (e.g. creating the necessary form of the words). Using vocabulary (e.g. choose the right synonym). Communicating the message (e.g. describe the gadget using technical jargon) .
Post-activity	Reflecting on task fulfillment: focusing on vocabulary use; integrating vocabulary with teaching communicative skills (reading, listening, writing and speaking).

Questions:

1. What is the difference between word and vocabulary terms?
2. What aspects of the language are connected with the vocabulary?
3. Why do we enrich vocabulary?
5. How do you explain the term «mental lexicon»?
6. What kinds of abilities are meant by vocabulary subskills?
7. What are the basic principles and criteria for selection the active vocabulary minimum?
8. What is the methodological preparation of new vocabulary?
9. Describe the three-phase framework of teaching vocabulary.

Tasks:

1. Give the explanation of terms «resource of choice», «criterion of choice», «unit of choice» and mark the statements as T (true), F (false) or D (debatable).

Statements	T	F	D
1. Vocabulary is more important in communication than grammar.			
2. Vocabulary is stored in our memory as separate units.			
3. Vocabulary is stored in our memory as collocations.			
4. Vocabulary is stored in our memory as networks.			
5. Recalling a word always means activating many words in memory.			
6. One word of the same language means the same for different people.			
7. Any meaning can be expressed by a word in any language.			

2. As it has been mentioned there are some types of vocabulary sets (situation sets, semantic sets and collocation sets), match the following vocabulary units with the types of «vocabulary sets».

Vocabulary items	Vocabulary sets
1. Custom-built car	Situation set
2. Rust-proof paint	
3. Far-reaching consequences	Semantic set
4. Drought-affected regions	Collocation set
5. The worst flood ever	
6. Wintry showers	
7. Beggarly pay	

3. Find out one word which is used in the sense of: a physical organ; 'a group', 'corpse', 'masses' and 'trunk' or 'mainpart'. (Make your own examples).

4. Read this extract; find out phrasal verbs with the verb «talk» and explain their meanings.

Every time I try to talk up a new idea to my boss, he talks down to me, or talks around the issue. I can talk back to him but fail to talk him into anything. We can talk over and out the problem but

there is no way to talk him round. So we are just talking away. I talk up but we never come to talking through.

5. Think about activities for learning vocabulary through speaking.

Independent work:

1. Decide which are the core words in these sets. What reasons would you give?

a) cause, bring about, effect, instigate, precipitate

b) slim, slender, thin, emaciated, scrawny

c) aspire, seek, desire, aim, strive

d) assign, give to, hand over, allot, distribute, delegate

e) grief, distress, bereavement, sorrow, affliction, trouble.

2. Find the active vocabulary in the given text taking into account the selection principles.

This is old Market Hill. At the bottom, is Market Square, and Queen's Walk is just at the top. At the bottom right corner, there is a travel agency. Just opposite it, is the supermarket. Next to it, is a large school that extends to the next corner. Halfway to the top of the hill there is a zebra crossing and a traffic light. Nearby is the main post office. Between the post office and the travel agency, there is a new fast food restaurant. Behind the post office, there is a very nice park where we usually go for a walk.

3. Within one theme create a system of exercises for developing vocabulary skills.

4. Make up your own while-activity and post-activity tasks for EL classrooms at school, lyceum and college.

5. Look through these sites for further information. Write down your own notes on the topic.

[Short Vocabulary Activities for the ESL Teacher - Readers provide the...](#)

[Using the Internet to teach English for Special Purposes \(ESP\) effective...for-teaching-vocabulary/](#)

2. Teaching English grammar

The questions to be discussed:

- 2.1. Cognitive aspect of acquiring grammar.
- 2.2. Selection of the grammar material.
- 2.3. The factors and ways of developing grammar subskills.
- 2.4. Principles of teaching grammar.

Key terms: grammar, grammar acts, grammar mechanisms, grammar phenomenon, factors, active and passive grammar minimum, productive and reproductive speech, speech patterns, grammar unit/item, criteria of selection, grammar subskills, grammar exercises.

2.1. Cognitive aspect of acquiring grammar

There are a number of reasons why there occur different concepts about «grammar» when one comes across this term. While it is perceived as a part of Linguistics in the course of mother tongue at the secondary school, in teaching/learning foreign language it is considered to be the grammatical side of the speech. According to various scientific sources the word «grammar» could be limited in two notions: 1) the grammatical side of the speech – structural organization of ideas in speaking, listening, reading and writing (e.g., using articles; speech patterns; verb forms of the person adequately to the context) and 2) grammar phenomenon and abstractions (e.g., the first place of the subject in the sentence; the plural form of the noun).

There is a wealth of literature on methodology where one can see such terms as acquiring «grammar mechanisms» as developing grammar subskills and others. The term «mechanism» is used to describe the events in action. It is more decent to use in short «grammar mechanisms» (V.S.Setlin) than «using grammar elements in speech activity».

V.S. Setlin has divided the process of acquisition of the grammar mechanisms into three parts: 1) acquiring grammar actions; 2)

studying/ learning the suggested material; 3) mastering grammar generalizations.

Grammar actions have the leading position in the grammar mechanisms of speech. Assimilation of grammar actions is classified by the formation of automatized subskills of speech grammar. Learning the suggested material of grammar is defined by memorizing grammar forms. Memorizing and using notions and rules are called as generalization mastering.

The study of the suggested material is called learning grammar units of the foreign language, mastering grammar actions, i.e. developing subskills. Linking (auxiliary) words and grammar morphemes are learned as a material whilst changing words, word combinations and adhering word order are acquired as subskill.

The notion of grammar material is not a form of grammar phenomenon. The term «form» is associated with the structure of a sentence or a word construction in the plan of the content and expression.

Thus teaching English grammar is associated with assimilation of grammar mechanisms.

The active and passive grammar had been the matter of discussion for a long period. I.V. Rakhmanov used the terms active and passive material in association with mastering the reproductive and receptive speech.

The active grammar means grammar phenomena used in reproductive as well as in productive speech. In some sources the active grammar is called as «grammar of speaking».

The notion of passive grammar, according to the methodological doctrine of L.V.Scherba, consists of grammar phenomena and their abstractions used in speech perception (reading, listening). Grammar rules of the English language in our brains should be so automatic and familiar to us as to native speakers that we should know when the rules are being violated.

2.2. Selection of the grammar material

Micro-form, micro-meaning and micro-usage are recognized as the unit of grammar selection. The grammar phenomena for the oral

speech of the learners are selected from the real live speech of foreign native speakers and fictions. The resource of selection active grammar is the spoken literary language. Passive grammar minimum is selected from the written texts for students' receptive speech development.

Active and passive minima do not differ very much as in vocabulary (active minimum is in the passive input), active minimum is selected for all stages of the secondary schools and passive grammar minimum is selected only for lyceums and colleges – for advanced students.

The formation of grammar minima directly deals with the speech themes and vocabulary minima which impact on the grammar selection.

The methodological criteria in preparation of educational grammar are classified as follow.

Criteria of selecting *active* grammar minimum:

1. Criterion of prevalence of grammar phenomena in oral and written speech. The most frequent phenomena in people's speech are «picked up» from the all grammar system or material.

2. Criterion of being grammar unit as a sample. It requires the ability to developing grammar subskills through given samples (e.g., building noun, adjective, adverb with the help of suffixes).

3. Criterion of isolation of mono-semantic facts. With the aim to prevent difficulties the most frequent and stylistically appropriate units are selected, but only one of the grammar form to excluding synonyms is selected.

Criteria of selecting *passive* grammar minimum:

1. Criterion of wide usage in literary written style of speech.

2. Criterion of polysemantics.

The element of action and criteria of selecting grammar material are directly linked. Some of them function as the main, others as complementary. Types of speech activity need various language material input. The most demanding in them are reading and listening. The grammar input for speaking and writing is relatively less than for reading and listening.

The preparation of the English language grammar material requires successful approaches to the selection, distribution and

methodical typology of the content of grammar teaching. That's why the selection should be relevant to the above criteria.

The next task of preparation of language material is the presentation of the selected minimum. The distribution of the grammar minimum requires functional approach (according to the communicative tasks). Grammar is divided into communicative units (sentence), so the speech pattern performs as a unit of distribution.

The speech pattern embodies in itself all sides of speech, i.e. vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and graphic aspects, as speech pattern is considered to be the unit of learning and distribution.

Reproductive way of learning English is based on speech patterns leading to expected results. The speech pattern means a model of a sentence/utterance which is recognized as a grammar unit/item.

Grammar was distributed in two ways: with the help of the rules and speech patterns. The third way is «lexical approach» which is used when the grammar phenomenon is presented in isolation: if it is used in the only sentence, it needs to be learned without a rule, it should be learnt as a word (lexical item). According to the current educational requirements the method of grammar distribution means using primarily speech patterns, and necessary grammar rules if it is necessary.

The process of distribution consists of three stages: 1) defining the general sequence; 2) distribution among the grades; 3) distribution in a school year. Each stage has its own methodological criteria.

General distribution is measured according to the criterion of importance of grammar phenomena. For example, in distribution of present indefinite and present continuous tenses of the English language, the first one is considered to be the most important for the speech process. The most important grammar phenomena are distributed at the initial stage of education.

Besides, the importance of distribution of grammar among grades occurs when one takes into account the criterion of correlation of grammar with vocabulary. The vocabulary in this case

is of primary significance which in its turn influences the distribution of grammar units.

The third stage is a very complex process of distribution. Here are detected the cases of positive or negative transfer of language experience of students. This instructional measure is a major factor of preventing difficulties, i.e. this criterion is directed to prevent the expected grammar errors in the language acquisition. It is called preventing difficulties appearing in the speech.

The first and second distribution is presented in syllabus. The third one is reflected in the English language coursebooks.

The result of analysis of translingual and intralingual comparison of the selected language material are the basis of the grammar typology determination.

It was emphasized in the typology of vocabulary material, that the grammatical facts for learning are also differentiated. The details of easy/difficult acquisition are looked thoroughly. Identification of difficulties and their typology give the opportunity to create a system of exercises, to work out ways of teaching and assign the time period of assimilating the material. The typology of grammar material can be associated with the typology of difficulties in the process of assimilation.

It is known that identification of the difficulties is a multistage instructional organization: analysis of language errors, comparison of the contacted languages (a foreign and native languages) and contrast of the dissimilar elements. The analysis of the errors, comparing and contrasting are organized according to grammatical meaning, form and usage.

Grammar phenomena are taught for developing grammar subskills with the aim to communicate. The process of developing students' grammar subskills is organized within three stages:

1. Presentation stage, in which we introduce the grammar structure, either inductively or deductively. There are a variety of techniques and resources that can be used during this stage. Selection of them should be made according to teacher strengths, student preferences, and the nature of the grammar phenomenon.

2. Focused practice stage, in which the learner manipulates the structure in question while all other variables are held constantly.

The goal of this stage is to allow the learner to gain control of the form without pressure and distraction trying to use the proper form of communication.

3. Communicative practice stage, in which the learner is engaged in communicative activities to practice the structures being learned.

It is necessary to pay attention also to teachers' feedback and error correction which can take place throughout the aforementioned two stages, in particular, on the 2-d stage when correction should be predominantly straightforward and immediate; on the 3-d stage communication should not be interrupted, but the teacher should take notes of the errors and deal with them after the communicative exercises.

Moreover grammar facts presented in the speech patterns are introduced orally to learners at the lower and middle stages of education, and in written form at the middle and higher stages. Grammar phenomenon is presented via speech pattern or a rule, or via lexical approach. There are two kinds of rules: rule-instruction and rule-generalization.

The rule-instruction is a mental activity aimed at using or reading/listening comprehension of structures, in psycholinguistics the rule is studied in speech issues, this program is called algorithm. Introducing the rule is the advance guiding base directed to providing speech act. In other words, a rule can be defined as a base of speech practice.

The rule-generalization is a simple theoretical information related to grammar material that was learned in the process of speech acquisition. The rule should be laconic, clear and accurately formulated directed to using or recognizing grammar phenomenon.

The rule and model are methodological notions with the same essence. The usage of the model provides capturing of the structural form in person's mind. Verbal abstraction is expressed by words occurred discursively. The speech patterns play the role of samples for composing sentences. Discursiveness must be limited as much as possible.

2.3. The factors and ways of developing grammar skills

As it was mentioned, presentation of grammar material is organized either inductively or deductively. Inductive presentation begins from examples and transfers to abstraction; deductive one presents a rule (or a speech pattern) then practices examples. The rule- generalization appears when there are more than one example. Only one structure can be learned without rule within lexical approach.

Many factors should be taken into account in introducing a structure to students:

1. The factor of relation to the nature of grammar phenomenon. Similarity of the form, clarity of the meaning requires using of inductive method.
2. The factor of similarity and difference between native and a foreign language structures. Similarity makes to use induction and difference makes to use deduction.
3. The factor of acquiring language experience.
4. The factor of learning micro-units of new structures via different methods.

The choice of the inductive and deductive methods must be rational and relevant.

Doing exercises at the focused and communicative stages promotes developing of grammar subskills. It is necessary to stress that grammar subskill is a complex of operations and actions that provides adequate and automatized usage and memorization of morphologic-syntactic structures of speech. Morphologic subskill involves formation and usage, as well as operations and actions with the structure (noun suffixes, verb suffixes. grammar units that came before noun, e.g., articles, prepositions. etc.). Syntactic subskill includes word order, building word combinations. The subskill of using structure is made up by changing words and inserting the words into place.

The development of speech skills of students is organized via skill-getting and skill-using exercises which are characterized by the process of manipulating and using the structures in the different contexts.

There is a strong tendency for grammar or structural points to occur with one of three aspects of the language⁸⁷ such as:

1) social factors related to the social roles of interlocutors, intentions and situations, register of speech and others peculiarities;

b) semantic factors related to “negotiation of meanings”, for example, in expressions of location, time, space, degree, quantity, probability, etc. with focus on morphological, lexical and syntactic contrast:

3) discourse factors related to the topic of continuity, word order, and sequencing of new and old information, which effect the forms that propositions take in the context of discourse.

All of these factors interact with each other, as well as with the structure of the language.

The grammar instructions should take into account these factors in the educational process. Each factor dictates using of some of the techniques for successful communication: 1) social – dynamic interactional techniques (e.g. dramatization); 2) semantic – listening and responding; demonstration; illustration; static techniques; 3) discourse – text generation and manipulation; explanation.

2.4. Principles of teaching grammar

Grammar language material is taught according to the given instructional principles:

I. The principle of developing grammar mechanisms. Teaching structure is associated with the developing of the grammar mechanisms. The grammar mechanism consists of three mentioned parts, as subskills, material and generalization.

Grammar subskills have a special place among the automatized components of speech activity in acquisition of grammar mechanisms. Grammar subskills are developed as reproductive and receptive skills of oral/written speech.

Grammar skills are composed of generalizations appropriate to rules, i.e. they contain grammar abstractions.

⁸⁷ Celce-Murcia M., Hills Sh. *Techniques and resources in teaching grammar*. – Oxford: OUP, 1988 – P.8-10

The methods of developing grammar subskills of English are connected with peculiarities of speech activity and difficulties of interrelations of grammar structures of the native language and second language/ foreign language.

Teaching grammar mechanisms of speech must be fulfilled by taking into account the mother tongue of students from the one side and secondly by overcoming negative influence of mother tongue to the English language speech process: a) the rule can be explained in the mother tongue, whereas the meaning of the structures and their usage should be expressed in English; b) the development of reproductive skills is achieved by regulation of grammar actions and cognitive operations, code switching and appropriate structure selection, all these in combination allow avoiding negative influence of the mother tongue. All these facts must be reflected in exercises and instructions (rules).

Secondly, the content of the teaching grammar mechanisms of speech in English involves the study of linking (auxiliary) words and inflexions. Its acquisition requires creating exact and steady images in students' minds. It is achieved along with acquisition of the skills and also by creating an opportunity to memorize the material.

The third content of acquiring grammar mechanisms of speech includes assimilation of generalizations on the base of materials and actions. Generalizations are learned inductively. The process of learning structures consists of two stages: a) learners understand the rules in the process of doing exercises; b) they discover grammar actions and materials of speech as generalizations.

II. The principle of communicative orientation: a) grammar subskills are acquired in the content of speech activities; b) special grammar exercises can be used at the initial stage of the subskills development.

III. The principle of practical learning of grammar. It reveals learning structures that are important and sufficient for oral and written speech.

IV. The structural principle of teaching grammar. The structural approach to teaching grammar is a well-grounded instruction. A new vocabulary unit is presented in the known speech pattern, and

the unknown pattern is presented on the base of acquired vocabulary material.

V. The principle of teaching grammar in speech situations. In teaching English it is referred as situational approach (in American methodology *role-play*).

VI. The principle of conscious acquisition of grammar. Consciousness presupposes a focus on some elements of the learned speech patterns (sentences).

VII. The principle of differentiated teaching grammar based on the assimilation of the active and passive units which are sorted into reproductive and receptive speech. There are different actions and operation for reproduction and reception.

Besides the aforementioned general principles there are also special principles of teaching grammar (worked out by V.S.Setlin).

The system of teaching grammar consists of developing grammar subskills, acquiring grammar material and learning generalization. In its turn it requires doing exercises aimed at developing skills and acquiring the material. In short exercises are means of overcoming difficulties of structures and assimilation of actions and generalizations. There are some samples of exercises aimed at teaching EL grammar:

1. To discover the structure in the perceived text.
2. To differ new structure from the other known structures.
3. Naming the received/read structures.
4. To analyze the sentence from grammatical point of view.
5. To continue teacher's story using relevant structures.
6. To use the structure uttered by a students or a teacher.
7. To systemize grammar material (e.g., making up sentences in present, past and future tenses).
8. To use freely structures in speech situation.
9. To describe the picture in the present (past, future) tense in English.
10. To make up conversation using the appropriate structures.
11. To use didactic handouts for grammar exercises (individual approach).
12. To translate the sentence (paragraph) that contains difficult structure, etc.

Questions:

1. What is grammar?
2. What do we mean by the active and passive grammar?
3. Describe the essence of methodological preparation of grammar and its stages.
4. Think over the grammar item, criteria and source of selection.
5. What are the stages of developing grammar skills?
6. Describe principles of teaching grammar.

Tasks:

1. Analyze the ways of presentation of the active and passive grammar in the EL coursebooks of school, lyceum and college.
2. Work out the grammar exercises related to one theme.

Independent work:

1. Analyze the grammar exercises presented in the EL coursebooks for school, lyceum and college in accordance with the given questions.
 - Is practice for grammar subskills included?
 - Do the presentation and practice activities include the integration of other language subskills and skills?
 - Does the subskills-work-progress in terms of complexity and difficulty, in line with the grammatical progression of the course?
 - Is the reading/listening text used for introducing new grammar items?
2. Study the matters about technology of teaching grammar described in the book «Foreign language teaching methodology» (2012, Pp. 180-186) by J.J.Jalolov.

3. Teaching English pronunciation

The questions to be discussed:

- 3.1. The essence of teaching pronunciation.
- 3.2. Distribution and typology of pronunciation material.
- 3.3. Ways and principles of developing pronunciation subskills.

Key terms: pronunciation subskill, phonetic material, pronunciation minimum, content of teaching pronunciation (CTP), pronunciation norm, pronunciation unit, phonetic phenomenon, phonetic system, phonetic exercise, phoneme/sound, approximation.

3.1. The essence of teaching pronunciation

Pronunciation plays a special role in the content of language material. Pronunciation mechanism envelops three parts as hearing (acoustic), uttering (motor) and meaning (semantic). Mastering phonetic side of the language, i.e. mastering pronunciation subskill is one of the core conditions of successful communication. We need to answer a question: What does pronunciation mean in the aspect of FLT?

Current opinion in FLT methodology regarding teaching pronunciation in the English classroom has at least two generally accepted theoretical cornerstones⁸⁸. The suprasegmental features of English – stress, rhythm intonation, linking (connection of speech across words boundaries, where one ends in a vowel sound and the next begins with a consonant sound, or vice versa), reduction, and deletion – are called prosodies. These contribute more to meaning and overall listener perception of nonnative speaker fluency than do the segmentals, the individual vowel and consonant sounds. Although rules for suprasegmental use exist, these rules are broader and have much more variation than involved in learning articulation of the individual sounds. Because supra-segmentals carry more

⁸⁸ Parker M. Pronunciation and Grammar. Using Video and Audio Activities. // English Teaching Forum. 2000. V.38. No 1. –P.25.

meaning and are difficult to learn, they require more focused, structured attention and more practice than the segmentals.

Second, pronunciation taught in isolation does not carry over to improved pronunciation in actual communication. This is true for both the segmental features and supra-segmental elements. Practicing sounds and prosodic elements in structure drill is important and useful, more communicative activities using connected speech are crucial in helping to build automaticity and carryover.

There a question appears – Is it possible to achieve a perfect pronunciation in English? Training specialists have the exact answer: it is difficult to achieve perfect pronunciation in teaching language at school, that's why the requirements are determined on the assumption of approximation. According to this assumption of approximation, it is available to limit the phonetic input and it is tolerated lower quality of some sounds articulation. But both of them occur in the bounds of non-infringement of process of oral communication. At the same time it is important to achieve the high level of approximation in articulating the long – short vowel sounds in English, voiced and unvoiced consonants in the end of the word, otherwise the meaning will be changed or even lost. For example: bed – bet.

Approximated pronunciation is firstly characterized by the conditions of the secondary education, i.e. the unnatural environment of teaching English, so pronunciation is more complex than vocabulary and grammar.

The main requirement is acquiring relatively fluent English pronunciation. Firstly it provides comprehension of communicants, secondly it demands acquiring middle speed of speech (it is known the speed of the EL speech – average pronunciation 130-150 words per minute. Keeping in mind that oral speech units exist only in sound images and that pronunciation is mixed with vocabulary and grammar subskills, they are usually acquired integrally. Pronunciation sub-skill provides the expression of speech units through relevant sounds.

The issue of when to start teaching pronunciation was the reason of various discussions. It is not logical to define a certain

grade or stage in methodology as mastering pronunciation goes together with development of language skills. It is necessary to realize that almost all sounds are introduced in the initial stage of education; the middle stage continues teaching new sound combinations, stress and intonation; in the middle or higher stages pronunciation sub-skills are improved. Through listening pronunciation sub-skills are developing.

3.2. Distribution and typology of pronunciation material

EL phonetic minimum is selected in concordance with the vocabulary and grammar minima. Language material usually consists of active and passive minima. The notions of active and passive in phonetic (pronunciation) minimum are treated differently. Active and passive pronunciation minima are learned simultaneously. They are included in the complex of the language sub-skills and appear in speaking and listening.

Active and passive minima are distinguished as follow: active minimum admits approximation, but it is not found in passive one. Active minimum works in the range of limited phonetic material and in passive it is possible to meet variants of the English language phonemes.

Pronunciation minimum is general for a certain stage, for example, for secondary schools in spite of the learners' language experience. Pronunciation minimum includes sounds, sound combinations, stress, and main types of intonation.

It is known that pronunciation units that are easy to learn are not taught in separate exercises, because they are not included into the content of teaching pronunciation. Thus minimum doesn't consider language experience, and the content of teaching pronunciation includes only difficult for assimilation phonetic phenomena that require special time and efforts.

There is a classification that takes into account the difficulties of assimilation which groups are included in the content of teaching pronunciation (CTP): difficult phenomena referring to articulation, opposition, position and acoustics.

The phonetic material is selected in compliance with the following criteria: (1) compliance with the need of communication; (2) appropriate style and standardized pronunciation; (4) prevalence.

According to the first criterion, there phonemes and intonation models are selected that have different meaning, as pronunciation minimum includes all phonemes (but not their variants).

Appropriate style for selection takes as a base full style of pronunciation, i.e., literary, academic style. Literary style could seem to be more artificial but it is more suitable for secondary education. As a standard, the Received Pronunciation (RP) is admitted. Pronunciation minimum excludes the dialectal variants of pronunciation and conversation style of speech.

Prevalence is also like criteria of style and norm. The most used phonetic units are selected and included into phonetic minimum.

In addition, the most used intonation models in speech and difficult phonetic phenomena are included into minimum. In keeping the criteria, the phonetic peculiarities of the EL are taken into consideration.

In distribution of vocabulary and grammar material the first issue was to divide into active and passive. Distribution of phonetic material in pronunciation is particular. Distribution of phonetic material occurs according to the following scientific-methodical criteria: 1) speech orientation; 2) distribution of difficulties. The received lexical-grammatical distribution predetermines pronunciation distribution.

Typology of pronunciation material. The most appropriate methodological way is that phonetic material is distributed into types for developing pronunciation subskills.

There are two types in the FLT methodology. The first leads to find reasonable methods of teaching pronunciation through dividing all units of phonetic minimum into easy and difficult.

According to the second type only difficult units of the content of teaching pronunciation are divided into noted above four groups as articulation, opposition, position and acoustics.

From the content of typology we see that it covers sounds, sound units and phonetic phenomena. Typology of intonation is of another kind.

Methodical typology of the pronunciation units is allowed for all stages such as presentation, focused practice and communicative practice for developing pronunciation sub-skills.

3.3. Ways and principles of developing pronunciation subskills

Presentation of the pronunciation material occurs through the utterance of phonetic units by a teacher and hearing of the students. It is very important to solve the problems of presenting a pronunciation unit alone, in a word or in a sentence objectively for development of pronunciation sub-skills.

The following approaches are used for teaching pronunciation:

1. Articulatory approach – explanation of sounds articulation to students. The stages of working: 1) orientation – giving instructions about positions of the organs of speech for sound pronunciation; 2) articulation – students pronounce a sound; 3) pronunciation training in various combinations via exercises.

2. Acoustic approach to teaching pronunciation where emphasis is put on the conscious assimilation articulation features, on listening and imitation. Exercises are based on repetition and imitation

3. Differentiated approach proposes using of different analyses for developing pronunciation sub-skills from all positions. Here the more attention is paid to listening. Besides ways of articulation of a sound are explained articulation, even attracting the mother tongue.

Thus, the main methods of teaching pronunciation are imitation and analysis. Imitative method is natural and simple. But it is based on unconscious acquisition of the language and its pronunciation.

Imitation requires from the teacher accurate pronunciation and from the learners sharp hearing ability.

Analysis-method, on the contrary, requires the work through consciousness, which results in the development of logical thinking. Understanding and uttering of a pronunciation unit is fulfilled via analysis.

Imitative method can be used alone when the existing pronunciation skill has a positive influence, but the analysis-method is always accompanied by imitation.

Phonetic exercises support the developing pronunciation sub-skills of the English language. It is necessary to point out that an exercise is a mental action directed to repetition, acquisition and development of actions.

Mastering pronunciation in the process of teaching English very much differs from learning lexical and grammar material, hence from learning native language pronunciation. Pronunciation is taught according to the following principles:

1. Taking into account the results of the comparative analysis of the English phonetic systems and typical errors of students' speech. Comparative analysis helps to define the difference and similarity between phonetic systems of the contacted languages.

2. Synchronous formation of speech action and hearing images of English pronunciation. Teaching pronunciation sub-skills of hearing and speech actions compose inseparable unit. Oral utterance is controlled by hearing analyzer.

3. Using reasonable methods in teaching pronunciation. At the beginning stage an imitation is recommended. Taking into consideration important pronunciation peculiarities of the learned language only the teacher who has language experience can be a sample of English pronunciation.

4. Wide using of educational technical means in teaching pronunciation. Acquisition of phonetic material is not restrained by a teacher's pronunciation. Learners hear a live speech of the teacher, or his/her recorded speech and speeches of other persons (speakers).

5. Separate usage of ways of pronunciation material presentation. According to the difficulty of the English phonetic units in methodology they are usually presented in a sentence, in a word or separately. Learners hear the sound in the sentence, in the word or separately, but in utterance they learn some of them separately, and others in the sentences.

The most relevant features of pronunciation – stress, rhythm, and intonation – play a greater role in English communication under school conditions than individual sound themselves. Therefore, teaching speech from the perspective of supra-segmentals seems indispensable, in communicative language teaching settings learning pronunciation should not be limited to finding stress and comparing

individual vowel and consonant sounds in a given word. It is necessary to develop a communicative competence where pronunciation is reflected in the linguistic competence.

Questions:

1. What can you say about the core of acquiring approximated pronunciation?
2. What are the main principles (criteria) of selecting phonetic/pronunciation minimum?
3. What elements does the content of teaching pronunciation include?
4. What backgrounds are put into the distribution and typology of phonetic material?
5. Describe the methods and ways of teaching pronunciation.
6. Name the principles of teaching pronunciation.
7. What do you think, should we work on the pronunciation at lyceums and colleges?

Tasks:

1. Analyze the terms concerning the matters of developing pronunciation skills.
2. Make up exercises on teaching pronunciation.
3. Analyze the presentation of phonetic drills in the English language coursebooks at school.

Independent work:

1. Find the additional information about ways, techniques of working on the pronunciation material at school.
2. Read about Letters-and-sounds approach. Think about other integrative approaches, for example whole-language approach.

A teacher teaches children individual sounds of the letters that are classified into several phases including so called tricky words (those that are exceptions to the rules: I, me and etc.) per phase. Having been introduced to certain amount of graphemes, children

are encouraged to sound out the individual phonemes within a particular word and blend them all together afterwards. For instance, *s, a, t, p, i, n* are set 1 of phase 2 phonics; once children know how to properly say the sounds e.g. *s* is for *snake*, *a* is for *apple* and etc. they are asked to read the graphemes within a particular word and blend them into a word: *s a t -sat, p i n -pin*.

CHAPTER 2. Teaching communicative skills in English

1. Teaching listening in English

The questions to be discussed:

- 1.1. Cognitive process of listening as a type of speech activity.
- 1.2. Difficulties in teaching listening comprehension.
- 1.3. Ways and stages of developing listening skills.

Key terms: listening comprehension, bottom-up and top-down models of processing, cognitive mechanism, kind of memory, schemata, frame, script, scenario, linguistic/language skills, acoustic perception, teaching listening, pronunciation subskills, listening practice, sounds discrimination, multiple skills, audio text,

1.1. Cognitive process of listening as a type of speech activity

The ability to hear is a natural process that develops in all normal infants. Indeed, most of us begin to hear sounds before we are even born. The physical components of listening process combine with the cognitive development in a child, resulting in sophisticated listening skills. The ability to discriminate sounds at a very early age appears to be evident not only in the mother tongue but in other language, too. The natural ability to hear, however, is often mistaken for fully developed skills that needs no further fine turning. It is necessary to understand that L1 listeners (the mother tongue) often need training in how to listen just as much as FL listeners do.

In real life we often listen to understand information with a certain purpose to each other. Verbal (oral) communication is the necessity of human, which is conducted via speaking and listening to get information and understand the received information. Hence, listening is considered as a speech activity. If students do not understand the meaning of the speech in a complete form, it means that they lack listening comprehension skills.

In order to decode the message sent by the speaker the listener has to use his linguistic knowledge and divide the stream of sounds into meaningful units, and then compare these items with the shared knowledge between him/her and the speaker in order to get the meaning of the sentence.

During communication a listener switch analyzers to perceive and understand the message. When we say «Did you listen?» we try to analyze did he understand or not. In one word «listening comprehension» means to understand message. Perception and comprehension of the message go simultaneously. We can divide them into different sentences to express different meaning.

Thus, listening is a complex skill of a student. While speaking a student selects the language units and compensates for his deficiencies; while listening he/she can not take the control over the language that is used. He must be prepared to cope with a wide range of extralinguistic and linguistic performance factors, which are out of his/her control (background noise, distance, accent, dialect). He/she also needs to be familiar with the characteristics of spoken language to get the information. Among the language skills speaking and listening are the part of the oral speech. It is difficult to distinguish them when we use the term «listening comprehension». So it would be better if we call this process as «listening-speaking comprehension».

In native speech we understand the meaning and the form of speech immediately, but in a foreign language it is difficult. We should have vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation subskills to perceive and comprehend received information. In other words, listening skills can be developed by teaching vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. Vocabulary helps you to understand the main

idea of the audio text and grammar helps you to understand the meaning of the text concretely.

Listening has unconditioned character which has the following elements: the desire and ability to listen for the successful recognition and analysis of the sound. As a listener is a processor of language he/she has to go through three processes of listening:

a. Processing sound/Perception skills:

As the complete perception doesn't emerge only from the source of sound, listeners split the stream of sound and detect word boundaries, contracted forms, vocabulary, sentence and clause boundaries, stress (especially the long words) and effect on the rest of the words, the significance of intonation and other language-related features, changes in pitch, tone and speed of delivery, word order pattern, grammatical word classes, auxiliary words, basic syntactic patterns, cohesive devices, etc.

b. Processing meaning/ Analysis skills:

It's a very important stage as researches show syntax is lost in the memory within a very short time whereas meaning is retained for much longer. They say that, 'memory works with propositions, not with sentences'. While listening, listeners categorize the received speech into meaningful sections, identify redundant material, keep hold of chunks of the sentences, think ahead and use language data to anticipate what a speaker is going to say, accumulate information in the memory by organizing them and avoid too much immediate details.

c. Processing knowledge and context/ Synthesis skills:

Here, 'context' refers to physical setting, the number of listener and speakers, their roles and their relationship to each other while 'linguistic knowledge' refers to their knowledge of the target language brought to the listening experience. Every context has its individual frame of reference, social attitude and topics. So, members of a particular culture have particular rules of speech behavior and certain topic which instigate particular understanding. Listening is assumed to be 'interplay' between language and brain, which requires the «activation of contextual information and previous knowledge» where listeners guess and predict, organize and confirm meaning from the context.

However, none of these micro-skills is either used or effective in isolation or is called listening. Successful listening refers to 'the integration of these component skills' and listening is nothing but the coordination of the component 'skills'.

It is very important to make and choose the text. It should be interesting and be adequate to learner's age. If the learner is interested in the text, he/she will read it with pleasure. Activities in this stage would be interesting and easy including face to face interaction, using visual and tangible topics, clear description of the listening procedure, minimum use of written language, and immediate and ongoing responses and etc. So that learners can easily keep pace with the text and activity.

Listening to short chunks, music image, personal stories, teacher's talk, small question – answer, and interview may be applied in this stage.

The main source of getting information by listening is teacher's speech, tape recorder, radio; in any case, recording must be authentic. Recording two to three times is preferred in order to avoid rewind that may discrete attention of the listeners, films, filmstrip, TV program and many others.

One more important features of listened text is to clarify its' simplicities and difficulties. It is significant to know difficulties and their causes.

The process of obtaining knowledge has sensitive and logical sides. These qualities come together in listening teaching. The mechanisms of listening are studied well in the theory.

Psychologists stress that mechanism to understand speech is the first step. This mechanism is closely connected with the mechanism of listening memory, while understanding speech it helps to understand a part of speech automatically.

Let's read information about speech recognition and memory working suggested J. Flowerdew and L. Miller in the book "Second Language Listening. Theory and Practice".⁸⁹

⁸⁹ Flowerdew J., Miller L. Second language listening Theory and practice. -8-th ed. -Cambridge: CUP, 2013. -P.23-24.

We have three types of memory: sensory memory, short-term memory, and long-term memory. Auditory message is first received by sensory memory from environment around us. The sensory memory, which detects the signals, is activated, and the message is held for a period of not more than one second. In this period, the message is held in its exact form, then, depending on a number of factors, such as the quality of the message, the urgency of the message, and the source of the message, it is either passed on to our short-memory or lost.

*In the short-term memory, we begin to process the message consciously, but we have fewer 15 second to decide what to do with it. We have to decide whether the message contains old r new information. If it is old information, we check it against what is already held in our long-term memory. If it is **new** information, we have to begin to try to match the information with our existing knowledge and make “sense” of the message. If we are able to make sense of the message, then it can be committed to our long-term memory and be fully assessed.*

Our long memory contains a huge amount of information, and the new message is placed within the systems we have developed. In placing the new information, we must make decision about its usefulness; whether it will be needed again soon, or later; and how to categorize the special syntactic, semantic, and phonological features of the message. Once this is done, we can hold the new message in our long-term memory for as long as we wish.

The level of understanding the message is connected with speaking and listening experience. That’s why it is recommended to teach listening and speaking integratively.

There are two approaches to listening process: bottom-up and top-down approaches. We will describe these models based on the aforementioned book by J.Flowerdew and L.Miller.

According to the bottom-up model, listeners build understanding by starting with the smallest units of the acoustic message: individual sounds, or phonemes. These are then combined into words, which in turn, together make up phrases, clauses, and

sentences. Finally, individual sentences combine to create ideas and concepts and relationship between them.

Top-down model emphasizes the use of previous knowledge in processing text rather than relying upon the individual sounds and words. Listeners rely on more than just the acoustic signals to decode a verbal message; they rely on the prior contextual knowledge as well. In applying contextual knowledge to interpret, listeners use pre-established patterns of knowledge and discourse structure stored in memory. Pre-established patterns, or structure expectations include knowledge related to schemata, frame, script, and scenario, although schemata is often used as a cover term. A schemata consists of an active organization of past experience. Frame organizes knowledge about certain properties of objects, events, and action, which typically belong together. A script deals with event sequences. A scenario consists of representations of situations or events from long-term memory.

Listening involves these processings, however, some individuals prefer to rely more on top-down processing, while others favour a bottom-up one. Beginners need to spend more time on developing bottom-up skills of decoding. Advance students need to develop top-down skills and apply schematic knowledge, because they have mastered basic phonology and syntax and know the specificity of discourse organization.

These processings are related to development of listening mechanism.

In listening there is a mechanism of comparison of the signals coming to the memory. Comparison may be correct or incorrect depending on the person's previous experience.

Listener's experience is the trace left by listening and speaking in brains while comparing them listener succeeds in recognizing them. Next mechanism is called anticipation, which means prediction. When mechanism works there is a possibility to guess the content of the audio text (through words and combinations). One more mechanism is understanding audio text logically. By forming these mechanisms, the listening/comprehensive skill of students is developed.

1.2. Difficulties in teaching listening comprehension

According to some scholars listening is influenced by the following factors:

- Inner factors (interest, level of attention and concentration, conviction of significance of the information, degree of development of phonemic memory, individual peculiarities of pupils' quick-wittedness, reaction and quick transfer from one intellectual operation to another, etc) which are strictly personal;
- Outer factors (the linguistic structure of an audio-text, its content, some situational factors).

Some training specialists specify some other difficulties of listening –extra-linguistic and linguistic ones.

I. To the extra-linguistic difficulties we refer:

- the volume of the auditory memory;
- a kind of speech to be listened to;
- tempo of speech. From the very beginning period of teaching tempo of speech must be normal (200-250 syllables/min);
- the number of presentation and the volume of an utterance. The volume and character of a text for LC in junior classes – descriptive texts consisting of 3-6 sentences (1-2 min.), at the intermediate stage – 10-15 sentences (2-3 min.), in senior stage – 20-25 sentences (3 min.);
- peculiarities of the speaker's timbre
- props and reference – points of perception:
 - a) semantic (intonation, rhythm, pauses, logical stress, parenthetical phrases);
 - b) formal props (pictures, title);
 - c) visual verbal props (voc. notes).

II. The linguistic difficulties are:

- a) phonetic (phonemic oppositions, or contrast sounds: short-long, voiced-voiceless, different intonation patterns and their meaning), tempo, indistinct (defective) pronunciation;
- b) lexical (antonyms, lexical constructions, interruptions, etc. are difficult to comprehend); homonyms, paronyms;
- c) grammatical (tense forms, elliptical words and sentences, analytical forms);

- d) compositional structure of a text (description or narration or reflection, the beginning or the end of the story);
- e) structural peculiarities of a text;
- f) the presence of proper names, geographical names, terms;
- g) a major linguistic difficulty is the extension of sentences in a text for LC. The more complicated syntax of a sentence is, the more difficult it is to comprehend it, because it requires a retentive shorten memory. (7+-2 lexical units deep);
- h) peculiar stylistic devices, implication, dialectisms, slang words, jargonisms, euphemisms.

Modern methodological literature contains instructions about influence of a context on a text comprehension. It may be of 3 kinds:

- favourable;
- neutral;
- unfavourable.

Favourable influence is produced by a text, which:

- * is interesting to the pupils of a particular age-group from the point of view of emotional colouring;
- * has a simple plot;
- * is logically characterized by the development of events;
- * is free from too many details;
- * doesn't contain too many proper and geographical names, terminology;
- * has but several evidently unfamiliar words distributed, preferably presented not at the beginning of the text or a context (Context is a sentence or a group of sentences united by a sense – common idea).

One of the main task of communicative competence development is the mastering listening skills. In curriculum listening is the object and means of FLT.

The purpose of revealing difficulties for students' listening comprehension is to work out the ways of preventing them from instructional point of view. Remedy of difficulties demands time, work and doing special exercises.

1.3. Ways and stages of developing listening skills

In the secondary schools listening process is a part of the active learning process to help students to acquire a certain level of listening skills.

Thus listening is a complex skill which deserves special attention. The teacher should realize what key task can be most important for students, in particular:

- prediction skills;
- scanning abilities for extracting specific information;
- skimming abilities for getting the general idea;
- abilities for extracting detailed information;
- the ability to recognize function and discourse pattern;

The teacher needs instructional model that accounts not only for the core factors of how listeners process information (bottom-up, top-down, integration process) but also all the dimensions that may affect the way messages are perceived and processed.

Listening comprehension is developed by doing the necessary tasks shaped as a system or complex. From the first lesson of FLT in schools is paid attention to the development of listening skills.

It is necessary to point out that the grammatical and lexical material that is assimilated by learners in speaking and reading is also regarded to teaching listening. Teacher's speech is important for students listening skills development because it is a sample of the English language. Teacher should organize English classrooms in English.

Listening comprehension (LC) exercises are leading during the lesson. The goal of practical lesson is to get information in English. Content of speaking and listening/ reading materials is assimilated by listening.

LC as a means of teaching is used as 1) a way of introduction of the language material in oral form (in a talk, in speech patterns); 2) a means of developing well-set acoustic images of language phenomena (words) together with their meanings, which is ensured by multiple perception of the same material by the ear; 3) a means of acquiring pronunciation subskills because giving only instruction won't help learners to pronounce a sound other than their mother

tongue if they don't hear how it is pronounced by a teacher or by the speaker; 4) a means of mastering can be technique of reading aloud.

LC as the means of teaching allows multiple listening of one and the same speech material while LC as a communicative activity constitutes a skill of speech comprehension by ear at single (presented but once) perception (presentation).

Listening is an act of interpreting speech that one receives through ears. Hearing is an act of receiving the language through ears without interpretation. In real life we can hear somebody speak but actually do not listen to what is being said. Listening is a communicative skill to get the meaning from what we hear. People listen in order to remember what they hear verbally or for the sake of meaning retention. They listen in order to evaluate critically what they hear or to give supportive empathy. They can derive aesthetic pleasure from what they hear or to produce a listener's feedback. They can fulfill the instructions in the received text.

Listening to the spoken language involves hearing the sounds, recognizing words, understanding different accents, understanding intonation, coping with «noise» (external interference and indistinct pronunciation), recognizing sentences, predicting the meaning, understanding a whole discourse.

There are different ways of teaching LC in practice. One of them is teaching language materials firstly then language skills. Via this method all student should must study words and word phrases, sentences then students' attention is paid to content of the learned material. This method is considered as inefficient because it take much time.

The second way is developing integrative skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing. This method is more effective in teaching LC, because students have opportunity to practice LC during writing, reading and speaking on the basis of the concrete language material (language units and texts). As resources for teaching listening technical tools such as radio, tape recorders, language laboratories, internet resources – audio, video can be used.

Perception 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. Learners are very slow in grasping what they hear because they are conscious of the linguistic forms they perceive by the ear. These results in misunderstanding or a complete failure of understanding. When listening in the English classrooms the students should be very attentive and work hard in mastering listening skills.

Teaching students in listening skills is accompanied with difficulties for both teachers and students.

They are unknown language, unintelligible manner of presentation, unfamiliar topic, lack of own experience, no visual clues, no expectation about the text. That's why it is necessary for teachers to

- raise students awareness about characteristics of spontaneous speech;
- teach them how to construct from key words and use the context and their knowledge of English to help them understand the message;
- develop students' awareness in formation of predictions;
- organize intensive listening practice;
- use visual support for the audio text (pictures, sketches), contextualizing the listening situation;
- give a chance to listen audio text more than once to understand the main idea and get accustomed to the voices;
- organize peer-evaluation before the class feedback.

The teachers should take into consideration the following three main factors which can ensure success in developing learners' skills in listening: (1) linguistic material for listening; (2) the content of the material suggested for listening comprehension; (3) conditions in which the material is presented.

If to organize LC of a text presented by a teacher or using audio texts the teacher must do:

1) organization of introductory talk with the aim to prepare learners for comprehension of a text by the ear;

2) preparation of students for listening with focus on the situation and encouraging students to predict (working at the title of a text; removing the language difficulties of the text (phonetic, lexical, grammatical);

3) direction to the primary comprehension of the text;

4) primary presentation of the audio text to the pupils with the help of visual supports (pictures, adequate to the content of the text) or verbal supports (key-words, word combinations, phrases);

5) check up understanding of the general content of the text. LC is a means of assessment of students' comprehension when they hear or read aloud a text. Properly used oral language ensures learners' progress in language learning and, consequently, arouses their interest in the subject;

6) the second presentation of the text listening with task performance (listening for details, listening for the gist, listening for inferences).

7) organization of feedback. It can be organized within 1) not deep understanding; 2) general understanding; 3) fully understanding; 4) understanding from critical point of view.

Systems of exercises for LC are divided into two: special and non- special exercises.

In non-special exercises LC – for example, at the beginning of the lesson learners should listen to the teacher's topic.

Special exercises divided into 2 groups: 1) preparatory exercises and 2) real LC exercises. The object of the preparatory exercises is acoustic signal. The aim of this type of exercises is preventing difficulties (remedy work).

We can refer phonetic exercises aimed at perception of separate words on the flow of speech by the year, separate comprehending phrases and understanding their rhythmic and intonation pattern, types of sentences.

The requirements to the speech exercises for teaching LC are as follows: they should provide proper drill in LC with the regard of its psychological and linguistic nature as a language activity (limited time of comprehension, tempo of speech), peculiarities of different language activities (dialogue, monologue); they should have educational character, i.e. they should help learners to overcome grammatical, lexical and structural difficulties of LC not in isolation, as it takes place in language exercises, but in connection with speech; they should provide the development of listening skills

step by step in accordance with the level of learners' command of the target language, the character of the text etc.

Exercises in comprehension includes working on the language form, meaning and function (lexical, grammatical, phonetical material of an audio text).

Such exercises should provide intuitive comprehension of language material, which can be made possible if: a) well-set auditory images of language phenomena are created; b) long-term and short-term auditory memory are developed; c) inner speech in the target language is developed, but it has a broken character.

Aim of the preparatory exercises is to prevent or overcome linguistic and psychological difficulties before the presentation of an audiotext, so that the listener could concentrate his/her attention on comprehension of the content.

For example: listen to a pair of words and say what sounds are the same in them; try to recognize a new word among the familiar ones (clap your hands...); name nouns which are most often used with the following adjective; define the function of a word (is it a verb, noun or adj.).

The aim of the speech exercises is to develop skills of comprehension of speech. Via this type of exercises we teach students to divide an audiotext into parts, to find the main idea of a text, to extract new information from the text. Speech exercises are differentiated according to the developing auditory subskills in a dialogue and a monologue.

Ways of checking up understanding. You can control LC:

a) oral and in the written form;
b) in the mother tongue or in the target language depending on the language performance level of students;

c) extralinguistic and linguistic ways - draw, underline, perform an action. Pupils are supposed to know the requirements of listening to particular text (e.g. the number of details).

- Multiple choice tests (choose the correct answer out of 3-4);
- Fill in the blanks in the graphic variant;
- Answer the questions;
- Choose a suitable picture;
- A discussion;

- Underline the correct answer (or raise your hand when...);
- Make up an outline of the story;
- Perform an action;
- Retell the text according to the plan/ key-words;
- Put the pictures in the logical order, described in the story;
- Colour the picture according to the content of the text;
- Draw a picture of...

Questions:

1. What are difficulties in teaching listening skills?
2. Tell about mechanism of listening process?
3. Does practice listening in the language lab help you to develop English skill?
4. How does it promote your learning?
5. Do watching movies or using videos help to develop listening comprehension? Prove your statements.
6. How does interaction with students and teacher help you to improve listening skills?
7. What kind of exercises are used for forming listening skills?

Tasks:

1. Listen to the dialogue which is recorded by non-native speakers. Do you understand their speech? Analyze differences in voice, intonation and think about specificity of the lingua franca.
2. Think about special ways or remedy exercises for teaching listening comprehension to young learners.
3. The listening exercises are given below as samples. Choose the text and make up exercises to the pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening stages.
 - listening and filling in the gaps;
 - listening and ticking lexical items and grammar structures used in the text;
 - listening and answering questions;
 - listening and ticking the true or false statements;
 - listening and completing the chart
 - listening and commenting on the content of the text;

- listening and reasoning;
- listening and picking up details of the text;
- predicting the content of text on the bases the given words.

Independent work:

1. Organize the work in the given sequence.

- Find ten interesting short jokes, stories, advertisements or poems (not more than a minute long) and record yourself reading them, each into a different cassette.

- Borrow two or three extra tape recorders and place them at different locations around the room.

- Put two or three of your cassettes next to each machine. Show learners how to 'play' and 'rewind' the tapes and how to keep the volume level down. Then invite them to wander freely around the different places, changing tape or location at will, with the aim of choosing their favorite recording - or, possibly, filling in a worksheet you provide.

- Make sure they play tapes softly and that they don't all gather round one machine - but otherwise leave the control of the activity to them.

- Afterwards get feedback on what they enjoyed or learnt.

2. *What do you think ...*

The language classroom should have plenty of meaningful interactive activities.

A teacher's feedback to the student should be given frequently or infrequently, so students will develop independence.

A communicative class should give special attention to accuracy or fluency.

2. Teaching speaking in English

The questions to be discussed:

2.1. Speaking as a speech activity and a skill.

2.2. Approaches to learning and teaching speaking.

2.3. Teaching speaking within a communicative competence framework.

2.4. Teaching dialogue and monologue.

2.5. Ways and stages of teaching speaking English.

Key terms: speaking, a speech activity, oral/verbal communication, expressing idea, utterance, statement, monologue, dialogue, associative relation, paradigmatic and syntagmatic relation, interference, reproduction, arrangement of the material, discourse, genres of oral conversation, stimulus and reaction, appropriacy, reinforcement, bottom-up and top-down approaches, group speech, constructive models, exercises, activity.

2.1. Speaking as a speech activity and a skill

Speaking as a skill of oral communication is considered one of the speech activities. Psychological content of speaking is expressing ideas. In a simpler way speaking as a methodological concept envelops: 1) the process of expressing idea; 2) utterance; 3) oral speech; 4) statement. Answering a question or even a whole monologue can be the expression of idea. So speaking is an integral part of oral conversation. Speaking is the use of a certain lexical, grammatical or phonetic phenomena in the aim of expressing the idea. The proverb «First think then speak» proves this idea. So verbalization of ideas is speaking skill.

Teaching speaking in English is considered as a medium practical goal, i.e. at the beginning stage of the education students learn speaking and listening but reading and writing used as a means of teaching. At the higher level, when reading and writing becomes a goal, speaking turns into a means of teaching. Speaking has three functions: a means of communication, a means of teaching and practical aim of teaching.

Teaching speaking in English is conducted as a three-phase speech activity. First of all the learner has to be motivated. In this part the intention of speaking appears. In the expressing part of the idea speaker begins to analysing process began to work. Speaker needs to stick in memory (associative relation) for performing this process. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relation is also observed, in paradigmatic relation inner connections is compared based on different features of the word. It can be seen in the words with the same pronunciation but different spelling (write – right, son–sun); close in meaning (little–small); opposite in meaning (come–leave,

give–take). Sintagmatic relationship plays important role in learning to speak here we can see the usage of words in different word-combinations.

Speaker chooses ready word or grammatical units from the memory. Usually materials of mother tongue are always ready in memory. However interference is observed (order of words in a foreign language and mother tongue).

The third part of speaking is performing or express an idea, pronouncing, namely, it consists of usage of it in outer speech. Realization of all these three parts helps to make speaking process⁹⁰.

Speaking skill should be taught integratively with other skills (writing, listening and reading).

We can express our opinion verbally/orally in two ways namely monologue and dialogue. Teaching monologue and dialogue is one of the main requirements of the curriculum. The teacher should know the main features of both forms. For instance the usage of complete clauses and structural forms are essential for monologue, but ready models or elliptical sentences are essential for dialogue.

For performing oral speech learners should gain some psycho-physiological mechanisms. They are the mechanism of reproduction (some elements are used in a ready form some of them are reproduced in the process of speech, for instance, prepared phrases consist of 25 % in the English speech), the mechanism of choice (speaker should use different words and speech patterns during the speech and they can be found quickly or slowly in memory toward taking shape of associative relations), the mechanism of joining (in the process of joining the words and sentences, the speaker will form new combinations), the mechanism of arrangement (while feeling the language in comparison with the abstract model operations of text arrangements are made not remembering the theories of linguistics), the mechanism of feeling beforehand (in order to speak fluently, it is important to feel the speech in advance what the speaker intend to say and be ready to continue the sequences, the mechanism of feeling beforehand appears in two

⁹⁰ Jalalov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign Language Teaching Methodology. -T.. O'qituvchi, 2012 -P 235-238.

meanings: to use the language material and predict the maintenance), and the last one is discourse mechanism. The last mechanism is based on logical thought, when learner uses it, consciously he/she estimates the speech situation and understands the speech partners ideas and gets it nonverbal manner, response properly, he uses main point and situation of speaking knowledge.

According to ideas of some foreign language psychologists, speaking is not either a communication process or utterance but it is a means of statement or expression of the idea⁹¹. There are certain genres of oral conversation. They are description (telling the details to an active listener), narration (telling the development of events), reasoning (telling one's train of thought to an active listener), identification (talking about one's likes and dislikes), language-in-action (people doing things and talking), comment (opinions and points of view), service encounters (buying and selling goods and services), debate and argument (seeking a solution and pursuing one's point), learning (use of language in learning) and decision making (people working towards a decision)⁹². The ability to perform these genres is a proof of the skill level.

2.2. Approaches to learning and teaching speaking

Speaking in the English language has been considered the most challenging of the four skills given the fact that it involves a complex process of constructing meaning. This process requires speakers to make decisions about why, how and when to communicate depending on the cultural and social context in which the speaking act occurs. Additionally, it involves a dynamic interrelation between speakers and hearers that results in their simultaneous interaction of producing and processing spoken discourse under time constraints. Given all these defining aspects of the complex and intricate nature of spoken discourse, increasing research conducted over the last few decades has recognized

⁹¹ Зимняя И.А. Психологические аспекты обучения говорению на иностранном языке. – М.: Просвещение, 1978. – С. 58.

⁹² See: Millrood R.P. English Teaching Methodology. -M.: Drofa, 2007. –P. 111.

speaking as an interactive, social and contextualized communicative event. Therefore, the key role of the speaking skill in developing learners' communicative competence has also become evident, since this skill requires learners to be in possession of knowledge about how to produce not only linguistically correct but also pragmatically appropriate utterances. Drawing on these considerations, this subtheme first outlines the advances that have been made in learning the skill of speaking over the last decades. It then considers how this knowledge becomes the basis for teaching speaking from a communicative perspective. Finally, it presents the importance of integrating this skill within a communicative competence framework so that learners can acquire their English language communicative competence through speaking⁹³.

Up to the end of the 1960s, the field of language learning was influenced by environmentalist ideas that paid attention to the learning process as being conditioned by the external environment rather than by human internal mental processes. Moreover, mastering a series of structures in a linear way was paramount. Within such an approach, the primacy of speaking was obvious since it was assumed that language was primarily an oral phenomenon. Thus, learning to speak a language, in a similar way to any other type of learning, followed a stimulus-response-reinforcement pattern which involved constant practice and the formation of good habits. In this pattern, speakers were first exposed to linguistic input as a type of external *stimulus* and their *response* consisted of imitating and repeating such input. If this was done correctly, they received a positive *reinforcement* by other language users within their same environment. The continuous practice of this speech-pattern until good habits were formed resulted in learning how to speak. Consequently, it was assumed that speaking a language involved just repeating, imitating and memorizing the input that speakers were exposed to. These assumptions deriving from the environmentalist view of learning to speak gave rise to the

⁹³ Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills. Edited by Esther Uso-Juan, Alicia Martínez-Flor. – Berlin, 2006. –P. 140.

Audiolingual teaching approach. This instructional method emphasized the importance of starting with the teaching of oral skills, rather than the written ones, by applying the fixed order of listening-speaking-reading-writing for each structure. Thus, learners were engaged in a series of activities, such as exercises and substitution exercises, which focused on repeating grammatical structures and patterns through intense aural-oral practice. However, rather than fostering spoken interaction, this type of oral activities was simply a way of teaching pronunciation skills and grammatical accuracy. Consequently, although it can be assumed that this approach to learning and teaching speaking stressed the development of oral skills, speaking was merely considered as an effective medium for providing language input and facilitating memorization rather than as a discourse skill in its own right. In fact, significant aspects, such as the role that internal mental processes play when learning to produce new and more complex grammatical structures, were neglected under this view. The task of paying attention to those processes was the focus of study in the following years.

Another approach is speaking within an innatist. By the late 1960s, the previous view of learning to speak as a mechanical process consisting in the oral repetition of grammatical structures was challenged by Chomsky's theory of language development⁹⁴. His assumption that children are born with an innate potential for language acquisition was the basis for the innatist approach to language learning. Thus, as a result of this assumption and together with the discipline of psycholinguistics that aimed to test Chomsky's innatist theory, the mental and cognitive processes involved in generating language began to gain importance. Within such an approach, it was claimed that regardless of the environment where speakers were to produce language, they had the internal faculty or competence in Chomsky's terms, to create and understand an infinite amount of discourse. This language ability was possibly

⁹⁴ Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills. Edited by Esther Uso-Juan, Alicia Martínez-Flor. – Berlin, 2006. –P 142

due to the fact that speakers had internalized a system of rules which could be transformed into new structures by applying a series of cognitive strategies. Given this process, speakers' role changed from merely receiving input and repeating it, as was the view in the environmentalist approach, to actively thinking how to produce language. Consequently, it was assumed that speaking a language was a decontextualized process which just involved the mental transformation of such an internalized system of rules.

These innatist assumptions about learning to speak did not result in any specific teaching methodology. However, the emphasis on practicing exercises and repeating grammatical structures advocated by the audiolingual approach was replaced by «an interest in cognitive methods which would enable language learners to hypothesis about language structures and grammatical patterns»⁹⁵. In this type of methods, learners took on a more important role in that they were provided with opportunities to use the language more creatively and innovatively after having been taught the necessary grammatical rules. Although this approach recognized the relevance of speakers' mental construction of the language system in order to be able to produce it, speaking was still considered to be an abstract process occurring in isolation.

In fact, this innatist view of learning and teaching speaking did not take into account relevant aspects of language use in communication, such as the relationship between language and meaning (i.e., the functions of language) or the importance of the social context in which language is produced. The consideration of these aspects took place in subsequent years.

There is also another approach which is called interactionist. This approach is based on interactionist ideas that emphasized the role of the linguistic environment in interaction with the innate capacity for language development.

⁹⁵ See: Burns and Joyce, 1997. -P. 43

2.3. Teaching speaking within a communicative competence framework

Communicative approaches to English language teaching have undergone significant changes over the past two decades. A strong background influence is associated with the work developed by Hymes, who was the first to argue that Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance did not pay attention to aspects of language in use and related issues of appropriacy of an utterance to a particular situation. Thus, he proposed the term *communicative competence* to account for those rules of language use in social context as well as the norms of appropriacy⁹⁶.

Considering how a proper operationalization of this term into an instructional framework could contribute to make the process of English language teaching more effective, different models of communicative competence have been developed by specifying which components should integrate a communicative competence construct.

In such a construct, it can be assumed that the role of speaking is of paramount importance to facilitate the acquisition of communicative competence. Figure 4 (on the next page) shows the diagram representing this framework with speaking positioned at its core.

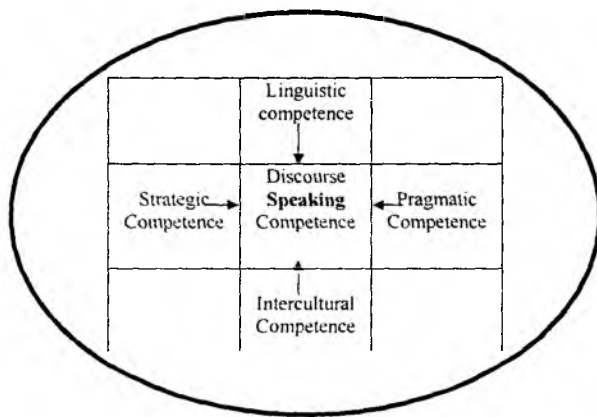
The proposed communicative competence framework has at its heart the speaking skill since it is the manifestation of producing spoken discourse and a way of manifesting the rest of the components. Discourse competence involves speakers' ability to use a variety of discourse features to achieve a unified spoken text given a particular purpose and the situational context where it is produced.

Such discourse features refer to knowledge of discourse markers (e.g., well, oh, I see, okay), the management of various conversational rules (e.g., turn-taking mechanisms, how to open and

⁹⁶ Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills. Edited by Esther Uso-Juan, Alicia Martínez-Flor. – Berlin, 2006. –P. 140-145

close a conversation), cohesion and coherence, as well as formal schemata (e.g., knowledge of how different discourse types, or genres, are organized).

Figure 4. Components of the speaking competence



Making effective use of all these features during the process of producing a cohesive and coherent spoken text at the discourse level requires a highly active role on the part of speakers. They have to be concerned with the form (i.e., how to produce linguistically correct utterances) and with the appropriacy (i.e., how to make pragmatically appropriate utterances given particular sociocultural norms).

Additionally, they need to be strategically competent so that they can make adjustments during the ongoing process of speaking in cases where the intended purpose fails to be delivered properly⁹⁷. Consequently, an activation of speakers' knowledge from the other components proposed in the framework displayed in Figure 4 (that is, linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural and strategic) is necessary to develop an overall communicative ability when producing a piece of

⁹⁷ See. Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills Edited by Esther Uso-Juan, Alicia Martínez-Flor. – Berlin, 2006. –P. 147-150. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000.

spoken discourse. Each of these components is described in turn below.

Discourse analysis or competence produces distinction between interactional and transactional function of the language. The information-transferring function is called *transactional*. Transactional function of the language is *message-oriented*. The purpose is to get things done. Examples are science reports, news stories, eye witness accounts to the police, a talk between a patient and a doctor, etc. In all the cases it is necessary to extract the salient details, to sequence and to present them to the listener or to the audience. This function is performed for «bringing the message across» and for «getting things done».

Other types of conversation are different. People chat with each other for pleasure. They talk in order to feel comfortable and to be friendly with each other. This function of the language is called interactional. Interactional function of the language is *listener-oriented*. The purpose is to «oil the wheels of communication». Such speech consists of friendly dialogues⁹⁸.

Linguistic competence consists of those elements of the linguistic system, such as phonology, grammar and vocabulary that allow speakers to produce linguistically acceptable utterances. Regarding phonological aspects, speakers need to possess knowledge of suprasegmental, or prosodic, features of the language such as rhythm, stress and intonation.

Apart from being able to pronounce the words so that they can be understood, speakers' linguistic competence also entails knowledge of the grammatical system. Thus, speakers need to know aspects of morphology and syntax that will allow them to form questions produce basic utterances in the language and organize them in an acceptable word order. Similarly, speakers' ability to choose the most relevant vocabulary or lexicon for a given situation will also contribute to the elaboration of their spoken text.

The mastery of these three linguistic aspects (i.e., pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary) is, therefore, essential for the successful

⁹⁸ Millrood R.P. English Teaching Methodology. - M.: Drofa, 2007 -P. 114

production of a piece of spoken discourse since it allows speakers to build grammatically well-formed utterances in an accurate and unhesitating way. However, it has been claimed that it is possible to communicate orally with very little linguistic knowledge if a good use of pragmatic and cultural factors is made. These factors refer to the next two components proposed in the framework, which are also interrelated to build discourse competence through speaking.

Pragmatic competence involves speakers' knowledge of the function or illocutionary force implied in the utterance they intend to produce as well as the contextual factors that affect the appropriacy of such an utterance. Thus, speakers need to master two types of pragmatic knowledge: one dealing with pragmalinguistics and the other focusing on sociopragmatic aspects.

On the one hand, pragmalinguistics addresses those linguistic resources that speakers can make use of to convey a particular communicative act. In other words, depending on the meaning speakers want to express, they can choose a particular form from among the wide range of linguistic realizations they may have available.

On the other hand, sociopragmatics deals with speakers' appropriate use of those linguistic forms according to the context where the particular utterance is produced, the specific roles the participants play within that contextual situation and the politeness variables of social distance, power and degree of imposition. These politeness factors and the way speakers may use them to *save face* play a paramount role in successful communication.

Intercultural competence refers to the knowledge of how to produce an appropriate spoken text within a particular sociocultural context. Thus, it involves knowledge of both cultural and non-verbal communication factors on the part of the speaker. Regarding the cultural factors, speakers need to be aware of the rules of behavior that exist in a particular community in order to avoid possible miscommunication. For instance, the length of pauses within a normal conversation may be very short in one culture, thus making the speakers quickly look for something to say, whereas in another culture pauses may be desired, and even considered polite, given the

fact that they allow time for reflection and prevent speakers from overlapping with other participants in conversation.

Knowledge of non-verbal means of communication (i.e., body language, facial expressions, eye contact, etc.) is also of paramount importance to communicate appropriately when producing a spoken text. Speakers need to pay careful attention to listeners' non-verbal movements, such as their body language or whether to maintain or avoid eye contact, in order to be able to repair their intervention if something goes wrong in the course of the exchange⁹⁹.

The last component included in the framework, which has been added to all the above-described competencies, refers to strategic competence. This competence implies speaker's knowledge of both learning and communication strategies.

On the one hand, speakers need to possess learning strategies in order to successfully construct a given piece of spoken discourse.

As has been shown, a review of the changing patterns of how speaking has been viewed over the last decades has provided us with a better understanding of why this skill has progressively come to be learned and taught as a discourse skill in its own right. Once considered as the *result* of repeating and memorizing words in isolation or just combining a series of formal linguistic rules in the abstract, speaking is nowadays recognized as an interactive, social and contextualized *process* that serves a number of functions. Given this complex communicative process in which speakers need to take account of a variety of linguistic, contextual, cultural and interactional aspects among others, the task of teaching the spoken language has been perceived as a very difficult one.

2.4. Teaching dialogue and monologue

Dialogue and monologue are taught together in practice of teaching but their teaching methods are looked through separately. If we compare these two types of speech with each other we can see exact difference between them (Table 11).

⁹⁹ See: Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills Edited by Esther Uso-Juan, Alicia Martinez-Flor – Berlin, 2006.

Table 11. Comparison of dialogue and monologue

Connection to the field	In dialogue	Marks	In monologue
communicative	in different ways	target	in one way
informative	exchanging	information	delivery
cybernetics	strong	communication	weak
psychology	alternative	speech activeness	directed
linguistics	shortened	method	completely
Paralinguistics	much	situation	less
Psychophysiologicalist	changeable	task	exact

The following types of dialogue are recommended to teach at secondary schools:

1. Information – exchange dialogue.
2. Plan – dialogue (outlined in order to work together).
3. Discussion – dialogue. To speak one’s own ideas.

Each of them involves private language material and may belong to different stages of education.

In the information– exchange speech the interlocutors will exchange concrete information with each other. Its aim is to inform interlocutors mutually or unilaterally (one-sided) and it is used at initial stage of education because of being capable to utilize ordinary and less language materials. Whereas plan – dialogue is much more complicated in the form and deeper in the meaning. That’s why the learner should know future simple tense, imperative sentences, how to refuse his/her interlocutor’s opinion and to know how to defend his/her ideas in plan – dialogue. It is suitable at the middle stage of education. While complementing discussion – dialogue it is demanded to know subordinate clauses which linked due to relation of cause and effect and to be able to use different means of modals. While using discussion – dialogue it is indispensable to know how to prove his/her opinion, how to persuade his/her interlocutor, to

be critical and to find and prove faults. The attention of the speaker is given to the core of speech. Speech experiences become developed. Discussion – pair speech is used at higher levels (lyceum and colleges). Dialogue is taught in two ways: deductive (from general to private) and inductive (from private to general)¹⁰⁰.

In deduction (top-down) entire sample of dialogue is considered as a main source. At first the sample is given to listening as a collection of dialogue identity then it is learned by heart afterwards there will be lexical changes, and it is worked on part to part and then it will be performed. According to opinion of the supporters of this trend, this direction is accustomed to learn language naturally i.e.» from the top to the low» (deductive). But in this direction learner cannot use language materials in his/her speech independently and he learns everything unconsciously and cannot have independent ideas.

In induction (bottom-up) learners learn how to work independently with beginning of simple units. Here it is not forbidden to use mount – sample but it is not for learning by heart, it is just for imitating and working on speech activities language material is also learnt. Due to this resolve to learn identity of dialogue by heart, to utilize phrases together, to make grammatical and lexical changes in replicas are not forbidden.

Usually dialogue begins with phrases which tempt to speak, to ask and to inform. At the beginning stage it is better to use questions and urgings, in the middle and higher stages information is suitable. Speaking manners of the members may be controlled beforehand - programming (algorithmic) or without controlling may be performed as a free conversation (asking questions and answering). In situational dialogue attention is given to the theme, aim and roles. Theme is to choose a topic for dialogue, resolve of speaking is to determine right commitment and

¹⁰⁰ Jalalov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign Language Teaching Methodology -T.: O'qituvchi, 2012. –P. 245-246.

roles mean to find suitable interlocutors. All mentioned things are loaded for teachers. Every member of dialogue is considered as actors of roles. It means learner is an «actor» whereas teacher is a producer, a listener and a prompter in one time.

The dialogue which is used for developing and forming of speech practice is recommended to teach by special speech activities except prepared ones. To teach dialogue involves to learn pieces of practice: to know his/her own speech task, to make a plan for conversation, to make partly changes during conversation, to be initiator, to make a situation to his/her partner in order to perform his/her task, reaction to his/her partner according to speech situation and to attract his/her partner's attention to conversation.

If these dialogue experiences are developed, learners can afford to exchange their ideas.

The more widened form of dialogue is group speech (more than two learners). To speak in pairs or in groups in foreign language is organized by means of inclination or motivation. Such factors of motivation (inclination) includes demonstration, listened or read text, film transparency film or extract), slides and of course verbal speech situations. They are very important especially at the early stage of speaking.

There are received, reproductive and constructive stages of teaching dialogue. In first stage learner listens teacher's speech and comprehends it. In reproductive stage learner make his/her own phrase imitating given sample and learner may learn text by heart at home, and retell the text with some changes.

While expressing ideas it can be used both a separate word and even the whole text as a speech material. For example: What is your name? –The word «name» is the replica of the answer. Dialogue is considered situational whereas monologue is a speech based on an exact topic. That's why it monologue is somehow more complicated than dialogue.

There are some stages of teaching monologues according to the theme:

1. Using the experience of language and personal life
2. Expressing ideas gradually

3. Make all the spoken information together

4. Showing one's own opinion

When the learner uses language experience he/she tries to utilize its most necessary linguistic and lexical sides. So, for showing what you think, principals of language and moving them into speech are also important. In the first stage, forming exercises are very helpful. In the next stage it is better to use developing exercises. And then some exercises are done by learners as: examples from real daily and family life and then let the pupils tell these examples in turn. Content of speech is more deeply expressed than using experience.

In the next step, all the information will be expressed in an integrated form. While speaking learners feel free and will be more independent. And they use the facts which they got from reading and listening. When they manage to get to the peak of speaking on the exact topic, they do some exercises like: using some facts corresponding to the topic, showing personal attitude towards some events. During this period they use widely some phrases and word combinations as: «to my mind», «it is clear that», «there is no doubt», «I believe that» etc.

With the help of the following stages we can show clearly how to teach monologues¹⁰¹:

1. With the help of teacher using speech examples

Telling it with some changes

a) inner lexical change

b) enrichment

c) transformation (changing the form)

e) finishing (ompleting)

Using it independently

2. Learners express their opinions according to the teachers' help

3. Learners show their speaking ability with the help of verbal and visual aids without teachers' support.

In the end, learners make a kind of connected text, and their opinions will be ready about this topic.

¹⁰¹ Рогова Г.В. Методика обучения иностранному языку в средней школе - М., 1991

2.5. Ways and stages of teaching speaking English

There are two approaches in teaching speaking bottom-up (induction) and top-down (deduction) approach.

Top-down approach is used for developing dialogue and monologue speech on the basis of teaching text thanks to which it is possible to use ready information or situation. In turn within bottom-up approach the teachers present linguistic units then students extend speech using them. At the beginning stage bottom-up approach is more used. It presupposes stimulus and reaction.

Some aims, criteria, and principles are specific to particular disciplines, while others are more general. Scientists typically speak differently than literary critics, philosophers differently than sociologists. In some fields, presentations typically include visual presentations of data or other material, using PowerPoint, overheads, slides, or posters.

In other disciplines, the unaccompanied spoken word is more customary. Language styles range from relatively unadorned scientific discourse to more poetic or expressive first-person speech. Genres vary as well. Discussions about a common research project within a scientific laboratory differ from discussions about the meaning of a poem or an oration. Arguments about politics take different shape than arguments about scientific experiments.

To teach field-specific elements of speaking, instructors should consider two questions: (1) what kinds or genres of speaking do learners in my field need to master? (2) what characterizes effective speech in each of these different genres?

While some criteria and genres are discipline-specific, there are also overarching principles of good speaking that are worth teaching learners. One very useful schema is audience, purpose, and occasion. Good speakers should always consider relevant traits of the audience they are addressing—e.g. their knowledge of the topic, level of understanding, interest, expectations, beliefs, and their perceptions of the speaker.

Considering these traits will help a speaker to determine what sorts of background material they need to provide, how technical or complex they can be, what arguments are most likely to be

persuasive, and how entertaining they need to be to keep the audience involved.

In addition, good speakers should be clear about their own purposes—is it to explain? to inform? to argue? to provoke? to move? to entertain? to display their abilities? to establish social connections? Often times speakers have more than one purpose, but clarity about purpose generally determines what will be said. Finally, good speakers should recognize the resources, constraints, and conventions tied up with the occasion of which they are a part—be it a poster session, a job interview, a polarized community meeting, or an academic debate. Occasions carry different senses of what is appropriate in terms of language, organization, subject matter, and style of delivery. Considering the occasion helps speakers determine how long to speak, what to focus on, whether to speak formally or informally, what visual aids are called for, and a host of other factors.

Formal speaking instruction extends back to classical antiquity, where it represented a central component of the well-rounded education that preceded the modern liberal arts curriculum. Speaking was considered an art mastered by learning its principles, studying models, and gaining experience through practice. This classic understanding is still a useful point of departure whether the goal is having learners speak to learn or learn to speak.

Learners are most likely to improve if opportunities to speak are accompanied by instruction in basic techniques and consideration of good (or bad) models. This is true whether the oral activity is formal (a podium speech or structured debate), semi-formal (a class or small group discussion), or informal (one-on-one student discussions interspersed through a lecture). Instructors are well-served not to just ‘turn learners loose’ with a speaking exercise but instead to detail the aims of the exercise, criteria distinguishing good and bad performances, and principles the learners might draw upon to guide their efforts.

While formal speaking instruction has a very long history, the importance of informal or low-stakes speaking activities has been more recently recognized. Such informal activities can have a benefit of their own as well as contributing to higher-stakes speaking assignments. In

general, the ability to speak in formal settings is grounded in and builds on more informal speaking abilities, both in terms of material discussed and in confidence as a speaker. Learners come to class with a wide range of experiences in speaking. Some learners have been encouraged to express themselves and their opinions from an early age; others have had no such experience or may even have been actively discouraged from doing so. Some learners find it very anxiety-provoking to address the class as a whole, while others revel in it. In order to provide opportunities for all learners to develop their speaking skills, instructors can use informal or low-stakes speaking activities, especially early in a term, to provide experiences in dealing orally with course ideas and to raise learners' comfort level with speaking in class.

A useful informal technique is to have learners discuss a question or issue in pairs before opening the discussion to the class as a whole. This gives learners a non-threatening experience in discussing course ideas and guarantees that all learners have something to contribute to the ensuing discussion. Such a strategy effectively restructures the social organization of the classroom, from an exclusive emphasis on learners speaking to the teacher or to the whole class, to learners communicating with learners.

In considering audience, purpose, and occasion, good speakers should also remember that speaking differs from writing. Unlike readers, listeners cannot go back and re-read what they missed, and they don't have the benefit of paragraphs and headings to help them follow the structure of an argument.

In comparison with readers, listeners generally can't process as complex language; have a harder time following highly nuanced arguments, and face stricter limits on how much information they can take in. This means that clarity, organization, and focus are especially important if speakers want their listeners to take in new information and follow their arguments. They generally need to use less complex language, more straightforward sentence structure, and clearly focus on a handful of well organized main ideas.

Speakers should build repetition into their speech with clear, orienting introductions (e.g. «I will report on...») and summaries of the main points. And they should help the audience follow along by using transitions, signposts or 'oral paragraph marks' (e.g.

«First...Second...Third,» «My next point is...»), and verbal underlining of key ideas (e.g. «The crucial finding was this:..»). All of these techniques help to ensure that a speech actually communicates ideas to an audience.

While teaching speaking it is necessary to work on the on-verbal means of communication. For example, 1) Show the differences of non-verbal communication in different cultures teacher can use oral explanation and support it by visual aids. 2) Ask students their meanings in their own culture, and what they might mean in English speaking cultures. Demonstrate variety of meanings and show how intercultural misunderstandings might occur (on the base of situation). 3) Give a situational task for using non-verbal means in the interaction.

Questions:

1. What is the psychological content of speaking?
2. How is the proverb «First think then speak» connected with speaking?
3. Is speaking considered as an aim or a means?
4. How do explain speaking as a three part speech activity?
5. What is paradigmatic and syntagmatic relation?
6. What kind of genres of oral conversation do you know?
7. What approaches to learning and teaching speaking can you tell?
8. What consists of discourse competence?
9. What is the role of teaching dialogue and monologue in speaking?
10. What strategies of teaching speaking do know?

Tasks:

1. Study the list of speaking genres, indicate real-world situations where these genres can occur. Some examples have been done for you.	
• Description	
• Narration	Telling a tale to a child

<p>to music ... take sports for instance such as chess or athletics ... many of them miss a lot in their general education ... their parents' expectations put them under stress as well...</p> <p>4. ... well ... you can have lots of emotions ... lots of love ... and you can keep in your emotions and would let it out in little bits ... it's all in your fancy and the more fancy you have the more romantic you are ...</p> <p>... in fact it's been estimated that up to 40% of all drugs prescribed in the USA are derived from rainforest resources. These resources have been used for centuries...</p>	discourse
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4. Match the ways to set up a problem for discussion with the topics for discussion.

Ways of discussion organization	Topics
1. Obstacle to a desired goal	A. What makes business successful?
2. Alternative points of views	B. A portrait of a happy family
3. Choosing among the alternatives	C. Is violence justified?
4. Rating items	D. Sleeping rough
5. Situation of challenge	E. How to remain happy?

5. *What do you think ...*

1. The language classroom should have plenty of meaningful interactive activities.

2. A teacher's feedback to the student should be given frequently or infrequently, so students will develop independence.

3. A communicative class should give special attention to accuracy or fluency.

Independent work:

1. Study the scale of oral testing criteria. Try to work out analog criteria for interview testing.

<i>Accuracy</i>		<i>Fluency</i>	
Little or no language produced	1	Little or no communication	1
Poor vocabulary, mistakes in basic grammar, may have very strong foreign accent	2	Very hesitant and brief utterances, sometimes difficult to understand	2
Adequate but not rich vocabulary, makes obvious grammar mistakes, slight foreign accent	3	Gets ideas across, but hesitantly and briefly	3
Good range of vocabulary, occasional grammar slips, slight foreign accent	4	Effective communication in short turns	4
Wide vocabulary appropriately used, virtually no grammar mistakes, native-like or slight foreign accent	5	Easy and effective communication, uses long turns	5
TOTAL SCORE OUT OF 10:			

2. Look through these sites for further information. Write down your own notes on the topic.

onestopenglish.com/skills/speaking/teaching-ideas/

3. Teaching reading in English The questions to be discussed:

- 3.1. Reading as goal and means of ELT.
- 3.2. Reading as a process.
- 3.3. Selection of texts for reading.
- 3.4. Stages and exercises for development of reading skills.

Key words: reading goal, reading as a means of teaching, communicative approach, reading skills, mechanics of reading, authentic texts, resources for reading, reading strategies, reading

aloud, anticipation and prediction, eliciting, reading activities, difficulties of reading, stages for reading.

3.1. Reading as a goal and means of ELT

Traditionally, the purpose of learning to read in a language has been to have access to the literature written in that language. In language instruction, reading materials have traditionally been chosen from literary texts that represent «higher» forms of culture.

This approach assumes that students learn to read a language by studying its vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure, not by actually reading it. In this approach, lower level learners read only sentences and paragraphs generated by textbook writers and instructors. The reading of authentic materials is limited to the works of great authors and reserved for upper level students who have developed the language skills needed to read them.

The communicative approach to language teaching has given instructors a different understanding of the role of reading in the language classroom and the types of texts that can be used in instruction. When the goal of instruction is communicative competence, everyday materials such as train schedules, newspaper articles, and travel and tourism Web sites become appropriate classroom materials, because reading them is one way communicative competence development. Instruction in reading and reading practice thus become essential parts of language teaching at every level.

Reading is type of speech activity and the goal of teaching at all stages. A person may read in order to gain information or verify existing knowledge, or in order to critique a writer's ideas or writing style. A person may also read for enjoyment, or to enhance knowledge of the language being read. The goal(s) for reading guide the reader's selection of texts.

The purpose for reading also determines the appropriate approach to reading comprehension. A person who needs to know whether she can afford to eat at a particular restaurant needs to comprehend the pricing information provided on the menu, but does not need to recognize the name of every appetizer listed. A person

reading poetry for enjoyment needs to recognize the words the poet uses and the ways they are put together, but does not need to identify main idea and supporting details. However, a person using a scientific article to support an opinion needs to know the vocabulary that is used, understand the facts and cause-effect sequences that are presented, and recognize ideas that are presented as hypotheses and givens.

In methodology of FLT the qualities of a good readers are described as follows:

1. Read extensively
2. Integrate information in the text with existing knowledge
3. Have a flexible reading style, depending on what they are reading
4. Are motivated
5. Rely on different skills interacting: perceptual processing, phonemic processing, recall
6. Read for a purpose; reading serves a function

Reading is an essential part of the EL instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways.

1. Reading to learn the language: Reading material is language input. By giving students a variety of materials to read, instructors provide multiple opportunities for students to absorb vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and discourse structure as they occur in authentic contexts. Students thus gain a more complete picture of the ways in which the elements of the language work together to convey meaning.

2. Reading for content information: Students' purpose for reading in their native language is often to obtain information about a subject they are studying, and this purpose can be useful in the language learning classroom as well. Reading for content information in the language classroom gives students both authentic reading material and an authentic purpose for reading.

3. Reading for cultural knowledge and awareness: Reading everyday materials that are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldviews of the people whose language they are studying. When students have access to newspapers, magazines, and Web sites, they are exposed to culture

in all its variety, and monolithic cultural stereotypes begin to break down.

3.2. Reading as a process

Reading is an interactive process that goes on between the reader and the text, resulting in comprehension. The text presents letters, words, sentences, and paragraphs that encode meaning. The reader uses knowledge, skills, and strategies to determine what that meaning is.

Reader knowledge, skills, and strategies include

1. Linguistic competence: the ability to recognize the elements of the writing system; knowledge of vocabulary; knowledge of how words are structured into sentences

2. Discourse competence: knowledge of discourse markers and how they connect parts of the text to one another

3. Sociolinguistic competence: knowledge about different types of texts and their usual structure and content

4. Strategic competence: the ability to use top-down strategies, as well as knowledge of the language (a bottom-up strategy)

The goal of reading and the type of text determine the specific knowledge, skills, and strategies that readers need to apply to achieve comprehension. Reading comprehension is thus much more than decoding. Reading comprehension results is when the reader knows which skills and strategies are appropriate for the type of text, and understands how to apply them to accomplish the reading purpose.

Teachers want to produce students who, even if they do not have complete control of the grammar or an extensive lexicon, can fend for themselves in communication situations. In the case of reading, this means producing students who can use reading strategies to maximize their comprehension of text, identify relevant and non-relevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension.

Within the complex process of reading, six general component skills and knowledge areas have been identified:

1. Automatic recognition skills—a virtually unconscious ability, ideally requiring little mental processing to recognize text, especially for word identification.
2. Vocabulary and structural knowledge—a sound understanding of language structure and a large recognition vocabulary.
3. Formal discourse structure knowledge—an understanding of how texts are organized and how information is put together into various genres of text (e.g., a report, a letter, a narrative).
4. Content/world background knowledge— prior knowledge of text-related information and a shared understanding of the cultural information involved in text
5. Synthesis and evaluation skills/strategies— the ability to read and compare information from multiple sources, to think critically about what one reads, and to decide what information is relevant or useful for one's purpose
6. Metacognitive knowledge and skills monitoring—an awareness of one's mental processes and the ability to reflect on what one is doing and the strategies one is employing while reading.

To accomplish this goal, the teachers focus on the process of reading rather than on its product.

1. They develop students' awareness of the reading process and reading strategies by asking students to think and talk about how they read in their native language.
2. They allow students to practice the full repertoire of reading strategies by using authentic reading tasks. They encourage students to read to learn (and have an authentic purpose for reading) by giving students some choice of reading material.
3. When working with reading tasks in class, they show students the strategies that will work best for the reading purpose and the type of text. They explain how and why students should use the strategies.
4. They have students practice reading strategies in class and ask them to practice outside of class in their reading assignments. They encourage students to be conscious of what they're doing while they complete reading assignments.
5. They encourage students to evaluate their comprehension and self-report their use of strategies. They build comprehension checks

into in-class and out-of-class reading assignments, and periodically review how and when to use particular strategies.

6. They encourage the development of reading skills and the use of reading strategies by using the target language to convey instructions and course-related information in written form: office hours, homework assignments, test content.

7. They do not assume that students will transfer strategy use from one task to another. They explicitly mention how a particular strategy can be used in a different type of reading task or with another skill.

By raising students' awareness of reading as a skill that requires active engagement, and by explicitly teaching reading strategies, the teachers help their students develop both the ability and the confidence to handle communication situations they may encounter beyond the classroom. In this way they give their students the foundation for communicative competence in the English language.

Instruction in reading strategies is not an add-on, but rather an integral part of the use of reading activities in the language classroom. Instructors can help their students become effective readers by teaching them how to use strategies before, during, and after reading.

Before reading the teacher should plan his/her actions. They concern with steps:

1. Set a purpose or decide in advance what to read for
2. Decide if more linguistic or background knowledge is needed
3. Determine whether to enter the text from the top down (attend to the overall meaning) or from the bottom up (focus on the words and phrases)

During and after reading the teachers should monitor students' comprehension of the text. To do this work it is necessary to

1. Verify predictions and check for inaccurate guesses.
2. Decide what is and is not important to understand.
3. Reread to check comprehension.
4. Ask for help.

After reading the teacher evaluate comprehension and strategy use:

- 1 Evaluate comprehension in a particular task or area.

2 Evaluate overall progress in reading and in particular types of reading tasks.

3 Decide if the strategies used were appropriate for the purpose and for the task.

4 Modify strategies if necessary.

3.3. Selection of texts for reading

For students to develop communicative competence in reading, classroom and homework reading activities must resemble real-life reading tasks that involve meaningful communication. They must therefore be authentic in three ways.

1. The reading material must be authentic: It must be the kind of material that students will need and want to be able to read when traveling, studying abroad, or using the language in other contexts outside the classroom.

When selecting texts for student assignments, remember that the difficulty of a reading text is less a function of the language, and more a function of the conceptual difficulty and the task(s) that students are expected to complete. Simplifying a text by changing the language often removes natural redundancy and makes the organization somewhat difficult for students to predict. This actually makes a text more difficult to read than if the original were used.

Rather than simplifying a text by changing its language, make it more approachable by eliciting students' existing knowledge in pre-reading discussion, reviewing new vocabulary before reading, and asking students to perform tasks that are within their competence, such as skimming to get the main idea or scanning for specific information, before they begin intensive reading.

2. The reading purpose must be authentic: Students must be reading for reasons that make sense and have relevance to them.

To identify relevant reading purposes, ask students how they plan to use the language they are learning and what topics they are interested in reading and learning about. Give them opportunities to choose their reading assignments, and encourage them to use the library, the Internet, and foreign language newsstands and bookstores to find other things they would like to read.

3. The reading approach must be authentic: Students should read the text in a way that matches the reading purpose, the type of text, and the way people normally read. This means that reading aloud will take place only in situations where it would take place outside the classroom, such as reading for pleasure. The majority of students' reading should be done silently.

Many language textbooks emphasize product (answers to comprehension questions) over process (using reading skills and strategies to understand the text), providing little or no contextual information about the reading selections or their authors, and few if any pre-reading activities. Newer textbooks may provide pre-reading activities and reading strategy guidance, but their one-size-fits-all approach may or may not be appropriate for your students.

The teacher can use the guidelines for developing reading activities given here as starting points for evaluating and adapting textbook reading activities. Use existing, or add your own, pre-reading activities and reading strategy practice as appropriate for your students. Don't make students do exercises simply because they are in the book; this destroys motivation.

Another problem with textbook reading selections is that they have been adapted to a predetermined reading level through adjustment of vocabulary, grammar, and sentence length. This makes them more immediately approachable, but it also means that they are less authentic and do not encourage students to apply the reading strategies they will need to use outside of class. When this is the case, use the textbook reading selection as a starting point to introduce a writer or topic, and then give students choices of more challenging authentic texts to read as a follow up.

3.4. Stages and exercises for development of reading skills

At the primary stage reading is considered as the goal and means of teaching, because student must be able to recognize the English script, they must be familiar with combination of letters in the spelling of words, and be able to recognize words. For this purpose reading and writing mechanics are developed together. By *mechanics* we usually refer to letter and sound recognition,

letter/sound discrimination, word recognition, and basic rules of spelling, punctuation, and capitalization, as well as recognition of whole sentences and paragraphs. These activities are for the most part cognitively undemanding unless the learners happen to come from a first language with a different graphical system. Reading subskills (mechanics) involve rapid, précis and conscious processing, such as letter and word identification and translating written symbols into corresponding sounds. They allow to the students recognize words and grammatical forms rapidly and automatically. The higher skills enable them to comprehend, synthesise, interpret, and evaluate the text.

Thus, at the beginning stage student learn mechanics of reading aloud and comprehend the content of the given simple texts. But the advanced level is directed only to reading for comprehension of the texts. A person who reads aloud and comprehends the meaning of the text is coordinating word recognition with comprehension and speaking and pronunciation ability in highly complex ways. Students whose language skills are limited are not able to process at this level, and end up having to drop one or more of the elements. Usually the dropped element is comprehension, and reading aloud becomes word calling: simply pronouncing a series of words without regard for the meaning they carry individually and together. Word calling is not productive for the student who is doing it, and it is boring for other students to listen to.

There are two ways to use reading aloud productively in the language classroom. Read aloud to your students as they follow along silently. You have the ability to use inflection and tone to help them hear what the text is saying. Following along as you read will help students move from word-by-word reading to reading in phrases and thought units, as they do in their first language.

Use the «read and look up» technique. With this technique, a student reads a phrase or sentence silently as many times as necessary, then looks up (away from the text) and tells you what the phrase or sentence says. This encourages students to read for ideas, rather than for word recognition.

EL teachers are often frustrated by the fact that students do not automatically transfer the strategies they use when reading in their

native language to reading in a language they are learning. Instead, they seem to think reading means starting at the beginning and going word by word, stopping to look up every unknown vocabulary item, until they reach the end. When they do this, students are relying exclusively on their linguistic knowledge, a bottom-up strategy. One of the most important functions of the language teacher, then, is to help students move past this idea and use top-down strategies as they do in their native language.

The students should be able to skim, scan, read intensively and extensively, according to their purpose. In order to develop flexible individual reading styles, we should provide practice in a variety of text types. Effective EL teachers show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation.

Strategies that can help students read more quickly and effectively include

1. Previewing: reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection

2. Predicting: using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content

3. Skimming and scanning: using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions

4. Guessing from context: using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up

5. Paraphrasing: stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text.

Teachers can help students learn when and how to use reading strategies in several ways.

A. By modeling the strategies aloud, talking through the processes of previewing, predicting, skimming and scanning, and paraphrasing. This shows students how the strategies work and how much they can know about a text before they begin to read word by word.

B. By allowing time in class for group and individual previewing and predicting activities as preparation for in-class or out-of-class reading. Allocating class time to these activities indicates their importance and value.

C. By using cloze (fill in the blank) exercises to review vocabulary items. This helps students to learn for guessing meaning from context.

D. By encouraging students to talk about what strategies they think will help them approach a reading assignment, and then talking after reading about what strategies they actually used. This helps students develop flexibility in their choice of strategies.

When language learners use reading strategies, they find that they can control the reading experience, and they gain confidence in their ability to read the language.

Students need to follow four basic steps when they learn reading:

1. Figure out the purpose for reading. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate reading strategies.

2. Attend to the parts of the text that are relevant to the identified purpose and ignore the rest. This selectivity enables students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory.

3. Select strategies that are appropriate to the reading task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up skills simultaneously to construct meaning.

4. Check comprehension while reading and when the reading task is completed. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, helping them learn to use alternate strategies.

Using reading activities involves more than identifying a text that is «at the right level,» writing a set of comprehension questions for students to answer after reading, handing out the assignment and sending students away to do it. A fully-developed reading activity supports students as readers through pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities.

As you design reading tasks, keep in mind that complete recall of all the information in a text is an unrealistic expectation even for native speakers. Reading activities that are meant to increase communicative competence should be success oriented and build up students' confidence in their reading ability.

Make sure students understand what the purpose for reading is: to get the main idea, obtain specific information, understand most or all of the message, enjoy a story, or decide whether or not to read more. Recognizing the purpose for reading will help students select appropriate reading strategies.

In addition to the main purpose for reading, an activity can also have one or more instructional purposes, such as practicing or reviewing specific grammatical constructions, introducing new vocabulary, or familiarizing students with the typical structure of a certain type of text.

The factors listed below can help you judge the relative ease or difficulty of a reading text for a particular purpose and a particular group of students.

1. How is the information organized? Does the story line, narrative, or instruction conform to familiar expectations? Texts in which the events are presented in natural chronological order, which have an informative title, and which present the information following an obvious organization (main ideas first, details and examples second) are easier to follow.

2. How familiar are the students with the topic? Remember that misapplication of background knowledge due to cultural differences can create major comprehension difficulties.

3. Does the text contain redundancy? At the lower levels of proficiency, listeners may find short, simple messages easier to process, but students with higher proficiency benefit from the natural redundancy of authentic language.

4. Does the text offer visual support to aid in reading comprehension? Visual aids such as photographs, maps, and diagrams help students preview the content of the text, guess the meanings of unknown words, and check comprehension while reading.

The teacher should remember that the level of difficulty of a text is not the same as the level of difficulty of a reading task. Students who lack the vocabulary to identify all of the items on a menu can still determine whether the restaurant serves steak and whether they can afford to order one.

The activities the teacher should use during pre-reading may serve as preparation in several ways. During pre-reading the teacher may:

1. Assess students' background knowledge of the topic and linguistic content of the text.

2. Give students the background knowledge necessary for comprehension of the text, or activate the existing knowledge that the students possess.

3. Clarify any cultural information which may be necessary to comprehend the passage.

4. Make students aware of the type of text they will be reading and the purpose(s) for reading.

5. Provide opportunities for group or collaborative work and for class discussion activities.

It is necessary to present the sample pre-reading activities:

1. Using the title, subtitles, and divisions within the text to predict content and organization or sequence of information.

2. Looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs and their captions.

3. Talking about the author's background, writing style, and usual topics.

4. Skimming to find the theme or main idea and eliciting related prior knowledge.

5. Reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures.

6. Reading over the comprehension questions to focus attention on finding that information while reading.

7. Constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related).

8. Doing guided practice with guessing meaning from context or checking comprehension while reading.

Pre-reading activities are most important at lower levels of language proficiency and at earlier stages of reading instruction. As students become more proficient at using reading strategies, you will be able to reduce the amount of guided pre-reading and allow students to do these activities themselves.

In while-reading activities, students check their comprehension as they read. The purpose for reading determines the appropriate type and level of comprehension.

1. When reading for specific information, students need to ask themselves, have I obtained the information I was looking for?

2. When reading for pleasure, students need to ask themselves, Do I understand the story line/sequence of ideas well enough to enjoy reading this?

3. When reading for thorough understanding (intensive reading), students need to ask themselves, Do I understand each main idea and how the author supports it? Does what I'm reading agree with my predictions, and, if not, how does it differ?

To check comprehension in this situation, students may

1. Stop at the end of each section to review and check their predictions, restate the main idea and summarize the section

2. Use the comprehension questions as guides to the text, stopping to answer them as they read

Reading ability is very difficult to assess accurately. In the communicative competence model, a student's reading level is the level at which that student is able to use reading to accomplish communication goals. This means that assessment of reading ability needs to be correlated with purposes for reading.

A student's performance when reading aloud is not a reliable indicator of that student's reading ability. A student who is perfectly capable of understanding a given text when reading it silently may stumble when asked to combine comprehension with word recognition and speaking ability in the way that reading aloud requires.

In addition, reading aloud is a task that students will rarely, if ever, need to do outside of the classroom. As a method of assessment, therefore, it is not authentic: It does not test a student's ability to use reading to accomplish a purpose or goal.

However, reading aloud can help a teacher assess whether a student is «seeing» word endings and other grammatical features when reading. To use reading aloud for this purpose, adopt the «read and look up» approach: Ask the student to read a sentence silently one or more times, until comfortable with the content, then look up and tell you what it says. This procedure allows the student to process the text, and lets you see the results of that processing and know what elements, if any, the student is missing.

Teachers often use comprehension questions to test whether students have understood what they have read. In order to test comprehension appropriately, these questions need to be coordinated with the purpose for reading. If the purpose is to find specific information, comprehension questions should focus on that information. If the purpose is to understand an opinion and the arguments that support it, comprehension questions should ask about those points.

In everyday reading situations, readers have a purpose for reading before they start. That is, they know what comprehension questions they are going to need to answer before they begin reading. To make reading assessment in the language classroom more like reading outside of the classroom, therefore, allow students to review the comprehension questions before they begin to read the test passage.

Finally, when the purpose for reading is enjoyment, comprehension questions are beside the point. As a more authentic form of assessment, have students talk or write about why they found the text enjoyable and interesting (or not).

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

1. It must have a purpose other than assessment.

2. It must require students to demonstrate their level of reading comprehension by completing some task.

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

Use this response type as a base for selecting appropriate post-reading tasks. The teachers can then develop a checklist or rubric that will allow you to evaluate each student's comprehension of specific parts of the text.

Questions:

1. Why reading is considered as speech activity. With what other types of speech activity it is interrelated?
2. What are goals and techniques for teaching reading?
3. Is reading a means of teaching?
4. Why is it important to use authentic material for reading?
5. Which strategies are used in order to stimulate students to read more quickly and effectively?
6. What is material necessary for developing reading skills of the students of schools and college?

Tasks:

1. Tell about pre-, while- and post-reading activities. Give examples.
2. Analyse the EL textbook for school, lyceum, college to reveal the following items:
 - genre of reading;
 - authenticity of the texts;
 - effectivity of the system of exercises;
 - sequence of developing reading skills.
3. Think about the difficulties of reading. Choose the text and make up exercises to this text taking into consideration remedy work..

4. Think about scanning and skimming readings.

Scanning - speedy reading to extract specific bits of information

Skimming - reading to get the general picture, without paying attention to details.

What other strategies of reading do you know?

Independent work:

1. Find the information about types of reading and prepare the presentation.

2. Selection of the text is conducted on the bases of the following criteria:

- authenticity
- readability;
- suitability;
- usability;
- resourcefulness.

Prepare the report about these criteria of selection.

3. Prepare the presentation «Jigsaw reading»

4. Teaching writing in English

Questions to be discussed:

4.1. Writing as the goal and means of EL teaching and learning.

4.2. Content of teaching writing in the EL at school, lyceum and college.

4.3. Developing writing competence at school, lyceum and college.

4.4. Approaches to teaching writing in the EL.

Key terms: writing as a means of teaching, writing is a goal of teaching, encode, graphics, handwriting, spelling, text format, genre, layout, paragraph writing, text-sample, writing activities, stages of writing, three-phase framework, pattern power, meaning, mastery, dictionary skills, word building, writing activities, proofreading activities, challenge word, text-based approach, process approach, genre approach, communicative approach, spelling, writing

4.1. Writing as a goal and means of EL teaching and learning

Writing is a complex communicative activity. It helps to communicate in the written form with the help of graphical symbols. Writing is a type of speech activity as «a communicative skill to encode, store and send messages with the help of written symbols».¹⁰² The product of this type of speech activity is a text for reading.

Writing is characterized by the three-phase structure: 1) inducement-motivation, 2) analytical-syntactical and 3) operation. Under the first phase the motive appears as an intention to communicate. The author's message has an intention to inform somebody.

In the second phase an utterance is formed and pronounced: the necessary words for producing the utterance are selected, within a set of sentences, subjective area of indicators is distributed, the predicate or a key part of the idea organization between sentences is defined.

The third phase of writing is decoding of the idea/message with the help of graphical symbols.

In the ELT the writing is the goal and means of teaching and learning. The goal of teaching writing is to teach production of written texts which students can write in the mother tongue. To produce the written text students should master mechanics of writing. That's why, in domestic methodology the two types of writing are distinguished: 1) mechanics of writing (handwriting, spelling, punctuation); 2) process of expressing ideas in a graphical form.

Writing is meant as acquiring graphical and orthographical systems of EL by students for fixation speech and language material to remember it and support acquiring oral speech. Modern approaches to teaching writing recognize its dual purpose: as a **means** (a support skill) and as an **end** (communicative skill).

¹⁰² Millrood R.P. *English Teaching Methodology*. -M.: Drofa, 2007. -P.182

Writing refers to several subskills: putting words on paper, making sentences and linking them in paragraphs, developing essays and many others. So, writing is also a support skill.

At the elementary and intermediate levels it helps to think and to learn. Writing new words and structures help students remember new words; written practice helps students focus their attention on what they are learning. It is important for developing all skills. Writing serves as learning and controlling means.

Table 12. Writing as a means and purpose in ELT

Writing to learn	Learning to write
A means of engaging students with other language skills: 1) as a means of getting students to practice a particular language point; 2) as a method of testing it.	A purpose for developing a writing skill. Practice written forms at the level of a word, sentence, structure and content organization.
Activities: note down new vocabulary, copy out grammar rules; write answers to reading and listening comprehension questions, to written tests.	Activities: writing a letter, report, narrative story, describing the picture, combining writing with other speech activities - writing a response to reading an article, writing an annotation to the text, etc.

It needs some forms of instruction and imposes an appropriate use of the language. That's why the operation and activities are divided into groups: 1) those designed to develop the writing skills and 2) which provided opportunity of practicing English. «A task which provides little or no practice for students to extend their knowledge of appropriate content or context or to raise their awareness about writing process is not really a writing task but general learning task using writing.»¹⁰³

¹⁰³ Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. . In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. - Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P 185

To understand dual purpose of writing as a subskill and communicative skill in ELT we should examine the content of the Table 12 which summarizes the above-mentioned information.

4.2. Content of teaching writing in the EL at school, lyceum and college

At the beginning level (2-4 classes) we teach graphics in EL (handwriting), i.e. teaching to write letters (alphabet) which interrelates with teaching reading as graphic-phonemic correspondence. Pupils must acquire print hand letters. At the same time we form elementary writing skills for conducting communicative-cognitive objectives in the written form. On the material of sentences and not complicated texts pupils must write:

- a) holiday and birthday congratulations in cards;
- b) personal data: name and surname, dates, address;
- c) short messages and personal letters;
- d) a plan, questions to short texts;
- e) description of pictures.

The second stage (5-9 classes) at school must provide more intensive development of writing skills in different situations of communication. Topics and capacity of writing messages is broaden; the quality of produced text in the written form is improved. The content of writing teaching within this stage differs in its informativeness and is built on the authentic material. The samples of an epistolary type as letters, cards, articles from newspapers and magazines are used for developing teenagers' writing skills:

- f) to give the information about him/herself, family, school, city/town, interests and hobby;
- g) to write a short commentary/letter in newspaper or journal with the norms and conventions of native speakers;
- h) to write personal data in questionnaire and registration document;
- i) to do note-taking (plan, copy out the key words, speech patterns) to use it for production of the text.

At an academic lyceum and vocational college the level of the language proficiency in writing must provide more effective using it as a means of teaching, self-learning and academic study. It demands involving the variety of official and unofficial situations, complicity of the produced texts, and high degree of autonomous activity.

The lyceum and college students must obtain the following skills:

- j) to describe events or facts;
- k) to send and ask an information in the extended form;
- l) to express an opinion, arguments;
- m) to comment events and facts using argumentative statements and emotional-estimation means;
- n) to write a plan and notes for an oral message;
- o) to fix a factual information during reception of oral and printed text;
- p) to write a summary, synopsis, annotation.
- q) to write a composition and essay.

4.3. Developing writing competence at school, lyceum and college

The success of writing as a communicative skill is a long-term process which is difficult and demands a lot of efforts from the teacher and students.

Subskills of EL teaching to write for the beginning stage: handwriting and spelling. There are difficulties related to: 1) inter-language interference: similar letters of the Uzbek/Russian/English languages so the native can get confused. E.g.: Тт-Tt; Pp -Rr: 2) intra-language interference: the letters which are similar in the EL are difficult. E.g.: b-d, p-q, t-f-l.

It is a very difficult process developing spelling skills in the EL. The process of developing writing subskills (handwriting and

spelling) and skills (communicative) at the beginning stage includes a set of activities¹⁰⁴:

• **Pattern power:** Write the spelling words in which [a] is spelled these ways

a _____; ey _____

ea _____ ay _____

ai _____ a-e _____

• **Meaning mastery:** Write the spelling of words that complete these sentences.

• **Dictionary skills:** 1) Write the given spelling of words in alphabetical order; b) In the dictionary entry parts of speech are shown by using the following abbreviation: n – noun; vb – verb; adj – adjective, adv – adverb. Classify the given words according to the parts of speech.

• **Word building:** A) If you change the underlined vowel in the word, you can make a new word: blend +o = blond; B) The same sounds are often spelled in different ways. Write the spelling of words that rhymes with these words. See sample. Made – aid.

• **Handwriting activity:** Practice writing of the given spelling of words that have at least one-two consonant blend in the word. Write each word three times, making sure you join the letters correctly: draft, stuck, blend, cliff,...

• **Challenge words:** Write the correct challenge words to complete the micro-text.

• **Proofreading practice:** Find the words that John spelled incorrectly, and write the words correctly at the end of each sentence.

The girl had a dream about becoming a great athlete. _____

• **Writing activities.** A) Complete this sentence to surprise your readers by writing a short story with an unexpected ending; B) Brainstorming is a good way to get ideas for a short story. Choose a spelling word, and write what it makes you think of. Write as many

¹⁰⁴ The name of these activities were taken from the Coursebook: Cook G.E., Esposito M., Gabrielson T., Turner G.R. Spelling for Word Mastery. -Toronto, London, Sydney. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co, 1984.

ideas as you can. Remember to begin the sentence with a capital letter and end with a period.

Teaching writing proposes mastering the text format as a typical layout of the text as a congratulation and condolences, telegrams, notes, signs, labels, captions, notices, menus, advertisements, personal or business letters, invitations, application for a job. CV (Curriculum Vitae), references, recipes, diaries, log-books, dictation, note-taking, reproductions, abstracts, summaries, reviews, reports, précis, synopsis, case-studies, projects, essay, stories, poems.

The knowledge for forming and developing writing subskills are presented in the Table 13.

Table 13. Knowledge for forming subskills in teaching writing

Knowledge
Knowledge of the genre. Students should be able to recognize a genre, in which they are writing, grammatical and lexical choices they need to make in order to match the text to the writing purpose. This includes knowledge of: 1. <i>content</i> : the concepts involved in the subject area; 2. <i>context</i> : the context in which the text will be read, including reader's expectations.
Knowledge of the language system. Students need to have knowledge of those aspects of the EL system necessary for the completion of the task. They should also be able to organize texts appropriately.
Knowledge of the writing process. Students need to know how to prepare a writing task: how to plan, draft, review, edit, etc.

The process of teaching writing is organized according to a three-phase framework: pre-writing, while-writing and post-writing¹⁰⁵ (see Table 14).

¹⁰³See: Millrood R.P. English Teaching Methodology. -M.: Drofa. 2007. -P.2007.

Table 14. Phases and their content

Phases	Content
Pre-writing	Schemata activation, motivation for writing, preparation for the language, familiarization with the format of the target text.
While-writing	Thesis development, writing from notes, ending up with a given phrase, proceeding from a given beginning phrase, following a plan, following a format and register, solving-problem.
Post-writing	Reflection on the spelling and reasoning errors, sharing the writing with the classmates, redrafting, peer editing.

There are various tasks, techniques and activities for developing writing as a communicative skill at the first and second stages of schools.

For organization of the work on writing an invitation we can use the letter-sample and instruction-rules¹⁰⁶:

Look at this invitation.

14 Ten avenue Prairie View, Missouri 64193 March 8, 2014	Heading
Dear Alex, We are having a pizza party on Sunday, March 2014, at 14 Ten Avenue from 3:30 –7.00 p.m. Please come and enjoy the pizza. Bring your discs if you like.	Opening salutation Body
Your friend, Mark.	Closing salutation Signature

¹⁰⁶ See activities in the book: Cook G.E., Esposito M., Gabrielson T., Turner G.R. Spelling for Word Mastery. -Toronto, London, Sydney -Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co, 1984.

This invitation has five parts: heading, opening salutation, body, closing salutation and signature. In letter writing, commas are important. Look at the commas in the heading, opening salutation, body and closing salutation of Marks' invitation.

An invitation may ask you to come to the party. Invitation tells the date, time, and place of the party. It may tell you what to wear, what to bring, what you might eat, or what you will do.

Write an invitation to ask a friend to come to a birthday party, a skating party, or a picnic. Follow the example above for your invitation. Remember to tell your friend the date, time, and place of the party.

For writing a friendly-letter you can use the following instruction-rules and tasks:

In a friendly letter, you tell about yourself and what you have been doing. You can also ask your friends about themselves and what they have been doing. A friendly letter is like a friendly conversation.

Write a friendly letter. Remember to write the heading, opening salutation, body, closing salutation, and signature, and to punctuate them correctly. Write an address on the envelope using the given below address as a sample.

	24 Acorn Street Moor City, Iowa 50573 April 3, 2014
Ms. Marilyn Peterson R. G. Profit, Inc. 414 main Avenue Detroit, Michigan 48201	

The next activity for writing is a description addresses to the 9-form students.

One day Bobur was sitting in the living room when he looked out of the window and saw his friend. He ran to the door to call him but he saw that he had mistaken a stranger for his friend.

Write a paragraph telling whom Bobir saw and describe the appearance of this boy. Proofread your paragraph for correct spelling, grammar and punctuation.

The communicative exercises can be divided into four groups¹⁰⁷, presented in the Table 15:

Table 15. Groups of exercises in teaching writing

Types of exercises	Activities
1. Reproductive using of formal supporters	- reproduction of printed or oral text on the basis of key words or speech patterns; - eliciting of text content in the written form on the basis of a plan or headline of the text; - scrambled sentences for writing a text in the logical sequence.
2. Reproduction of the content on the basis of the text	- questions to the text; - making a plan; - compression or extending of the text; - writing a headline to the text with arguments; - transformation of a dialogue into a monologue; - characteristics of heroes from the text.
3. Production on the basis of visual supports.	- describing the picture, photo; a fragment of a movie; - letter writing on the basis of a visual format-sample; - composition writing on the basis of the content of the text, the given pictures, questions or a scheme; - writing a review on the text, book, film on the basis of a format-sample.
4. Production on the basis of the language and life experience	- letter writing; - composition and essay writing; - announcement writing; - writing a review on the text, book, film.

¹⁰⁷ See: Гальскова Н.Д., Гез Н.И. Теория обучения иностранным языкам Лингводидактика и методика -М.: Академия, 2007. -С.258-259.

As we see, this system of speech exercises for developing writing skills is built on the basis of two principles: 1) from reproduction to production of the texts; 2) from verbal and visual supports to production without supports.

4.4. Approaches to teaching writing in the EL

There are three main approaches to teach writing in the EL: 1) Text-based approach; 2) Writer-based approach, 3) Genre approach; 4) Communicative approach.

1. Text-based approach/The product approach to teaching writing is oriented on the creation of a text as a product. The basis of this approach is explanation of the rules of using language units and features of discourse models. Technology of teaching is aimed at developing the language and rhetorical subskills. This approach stresses three features: grammar (rules for verbs, agreements, articles, pronouns, etc), syntax (sentence structure, sentence boundaries, stylistic choice, etc.), and mechanics (handwriting, spelling, punctuation, etc.). Besides, the teacher presents rhetorical models as types of a speech organization: (narration, explanation, reasoning, etc.) for the purpose of teaching development of writing skills. Thus, teaching writing is built on the basis of samples of written texts and analysis of their structure and content, and then their formal reproduction follows.

The procedure of this approach may be presented as a schema: presentation of a text-sample for imitation or adaptation → writing variations of the first sentences, then paragraphs, then the whole text → checking the language correction in the text → correction of the text. The main criteria of evaluation are structural and language correction. So, this approach emphasizes accuracy rather than fluency or originality.

Writing techniques and activities can be characterized as controlled (for providing the content and form), guided (as free but a form is given) and free. (Controlled writing proposes using the following activities: coping, gap-filling, re-ordering words, substituting, correcting the facts and dictation, or dictocom (a combination of dictation and composition).

Guided/parallel writing is used when we teach paragraph writing and rhetorical models. Paragraph writing can be practiced when students mastered basic skills of sentence writing and sentence combining. That's why it is usually used at the pre-intermediate and intermediate levels.

Free writing is used at the intermediate and advanced levels. Activities: writing narrations based on picture/pictures, description of facts/events, etc., information, report, review, instruction.

2. Writer-based approach/Writing as Process/Process approach to teaching writing in the EL. The focus on the writer has led to the process approach which lays stress on the activities which move students from the generalization of ideas and collection of data to the production of texts (more publication). The process approach is the dynamic, creative, unpredictable and non-linear writing. It emphasizes the writing process over the product, which is recognized as recursive process (the stages are recursive or non-linear) that encourages student to explore topics through writing.

This approach is more beneficial for advanced students, because it belongs to the creative writing and demands complicated mental operations and activities as thinking, revising and editing.

The process of creation of a written product follows getting ideas, getting started, writing drafts and revising. That's why, during creation of the written product the following stages are organized: 1) prewriting; 2) composition/grafting; 3) revising; 4) editing. The activities for usage of these stages are given in the Table 16.

Table 16. Stages and activities in process writing

Prewriting	Composition/ drafting	Revising	Editing	Publishing/ presentation
For generating, focusing and structuring: brainstorming, mind-map, speedwriting,	Writing drafting: writing plan, writing the first draft.	Seeing the first draft and developing ideas, structure and	Editing the language errors (spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, grammar)	Presentation the product to the audience (to the teacher, or to classmates).

answering questions.		language correctness in using forms.	and checking relevance of information, the order in which this is presented, the layout.	
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Within the Process approach, students explore a topic given by a teacher through writing, showing the teacher and each other their drafts, and using what they write to read over, think about, and move them on to new ideas. According to A. Raimes, this approach gives «two crucial supports: time for the students to try out their ideas and feedback on the content of what they write in their drafts ... writing process becomes a process of discovery new ideas and new language forms to express those ideas»¹⁰⁸.

L. Marshal and F. Rowland single out two phases in the process of writing: 1) creative or generative phase – thinking, reflecting and imagining and 2) critical or editing phase – analysis and editing simultaneously¹⁰⁹. In this case the creative and critical writing is emphasized.

3. **Genre approach** is more popular in teaching writing. D. Nunan explains different genres of writing as «typified by a particular structure and by grammatical forms that reflect the communicative purposes of the genre».¹¹⁰ Writing is seen as an essentially social activity in which texts are written to do things.

Having exploring different genres students get acquisition of structure and form for production the different types of texts.

The model of genre writing has a three-phase organization: 1) the target genre is modeled for students; 2) a text is jointly constructed by the teacher and students; 3) a text is independently constructed by each student. The main attention on the first stage

¹⁰⁸ Rimes A. *Techniques in Teaching Writing* -Oxford: OUP, 1983 -P.10-11

¹⁰⁹ Marshal L., Rowland F. *Learning Independently*. – Glasgow: Bell and Bain Ltd., 2003. – P 184.

¹¹⁰ Nunan D. *Second Language Teaching and Learning*. – Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers, 1999.

focuses on the function of the text-genre, its structure and content. Within the second stage the following activities are used: research and analysis of the text, note-taking, discussion, role-play. In the third stage students construct their own text on the basis of experience acquired in the previous stages. The approach acknowledges that writing takes place in social situations and reflects a particular purpose, and that learning can happen consciously through imitation and analysis, which facilitates explicit instruction¹¹¹.

For writing a composition within the process approach the writer fulfills the role of 1) a creator whose cognitive process is focus on the structure and content; 2) an inter-actor, who dialogues with a reader, 3) a user of a text/literature. This approach can be used at academic lyceums and vocational colleges or at the advanced level of teaching EL.

4. Communicative approach stresses the purpose of a piece of writing and the audience for it. Under this approach students are encouraged to behave like writers in real life and to ask themselves the crucial questions about purpose and audience: What am I writing this for? Who will read it? Taking into consideration the audience (readers) of a piece of writing, the teacher provides students with a context in which to select appropriate content, language, and levels of formality.

This approach emphasizes task-based activities that involve the exchange of information, with the focus on fluency. This approach practices a good deal of modeling and controlled practice, and also pays great attention to motivation and self-expressing. The activities used under this approach: writing instructions, cards, letters, messages, articles, job applications, reports, advertisements, projects, etc.

Questions:

1. Explain why writing presupposes is a three-phase structure.
2. Why is it considered that writing is a means of the EL learning?

¹¹¹ Badger R.G., White G. A process genre approach to language pedagogy. // J ELT 54 (2), 2000- P 163-160.

3. Think about content of teaching writing at school, lyceum and college. Can you add anything to the given information?
4. What techniques are used for developing writing subskills?
5. What speech exercises are used for developing writing skills?
6. What approaches are there in teaching writing? Discuss their effectiveness for teaching writing.
7. What writing activities do you know? Briefly describe them.
8. Is it necessary to teach pupils handwriting?
9. How much time do you usually spend on writing a presentation? Do we teach writing a presentation lyceum and college students?
10. What typical language errors are there in writing?
11. Decide what you would do *before, during and after* the writing stages. Think of the ways of the remedy of difficulties in writing.

Tasks:

1. Read and remember the following types of writing:

Imitative writing – at the beginning level of learning to write, students will simply «write down» English letters, and possibly sentences in order to learn the conventions of the orthographic code. Some forms of dictation fall into this category although dictations can serve to teach and test higher order processing as well.

Intensive (controlled) writing – usually arrears in controlled written grammar exercises. Some written tasks as essays, compositions, summary are also included into intensive writing.

Self- writing - this type means writing with only the self in mind as an audience. The most vivid example of this type of writing is note-taking where students take notes during a lecture for the purpose of later recall.

Display writing – short answer exercises, essay examinations, research reports are display writing examples, when students have to display their knowledge of language and academic skills.

Real writing – this type is done not for marks or checking by teachers. Its aim is genuine communication. Writing diaries, letters, post cards, notes, personal messages or other informal writing can take place.

2. Read and think about students spoken and written errors and techniques¹¹².

Spoken errors: When students are doing controlled practice, we are usually concerned with accuracy; so we need to correct important errors as they occur. When students are involved in a free activity (e.g. discussion, role play), we want them to develop fluency; so it is better not to interrupt by correcting too often, but to remember common errors and deal with them afterwards.

Possible techniques for correction errors:

- give the correct form; a student repeats it;
- indicate where the errors are, but let a student correct them on his/her own;
- pass the question onto another student then give the first student a chance to repeat the correct form.

To help students develop a positive attitude to errors; encourage them, focusing on what they have got right, and praise them for correct and partly correct answers, so they feel they are making progress.

Written errors: to avoid too much correction of written work, give simple writing tasks which will not lead to many mistakes and which can be corrected in class.

Correcting work in class:

- go through the answers, writing on the board only if spelling is a problem;
- let students correct their own work or exchange books and correct each other's;
- move round the class to check what they are doing.

3. Prepare a short writing activity for a lesson. The activity should develop writing skills, not just practice vocabulary and grammar.

Independent work:

1. Read the instruction for using a picture for development of writing skills. Think about pictures/photos, writing tasks and activities which are suitable for school, lyceum and college students.

¹¹² Doff A. Teach English. A training course for teachers. -CUP, 1988. - P 78

Using a picture as a topic for several writing classes gives you an opportunity to develop not merely a wide variety of tasks but also a sequence of tasks, carefully selected so that students move from one level of difficulty to another, gathering more vocabulary, knowledge of idioms and sentence structures, and organizational skills as they proceed. The picture can be used as a reference point for students to discuss a cultural phenomenon and their own experience related to it. The picture can be used as the basis for a variety of sequential tasks.

Example: In the small groups students discuss the questions related to the content of the picture «Wedding». They write down words and phrases that they can use. Then they compare the results. The teacher asks students to describe the picture in the written form using these words. Then, the teacher gives a task «Write a letter to a friend abroad about the wedding in the picture».

2. Study the procedure of teaching writing a narrative essay in the book «Great Essays» by Keith S. Folse. A. Muchmore-Vocoun, E. Vestry Solomon. Note-taking the main points of writing a narrative essay according to the given plan:

1. The structure of the narrative essay on the basis of a sample.
2. The features of paragraph writing.
3. Transitional devices.

3. Find the samples of ready-compositions and analyze their structure and content. Think about activities for teaching writing a composition in the EL. Analyse the strategy of errors correction pointed out by the teacher.

Comments on content and organization

This is a good first try,
but your topic sentence should be
more specific and unique
↓

Aside from any question, education considered a wonderful aspect of anyone's personality. It separates you from others in the universe. Education makes a person to be better used in society. It gives you knowledge about other people. And also it keeps you open-minded to another point of view. Education helps you to take a correct decision. I remember a time when I was a little girl, my father told me about a rich man, his father was a businessman and he had one child he bought him everything. But he did not let him attend school because he had already all that he needs: big houses and lots of fancy clothes. So he thought if his son goes to school it will waste his time. But after his father's death the son did not know how to take care of himself. In my opinion, it would have helped him if he had a high education. *I like this example a lot!*

This is a nice paragraph. Thanks for your hard work. But I think you could improve it by giving me more details about the rich man and his son. Why, exactly, did he not allow his son to go to school?

And what kinds of problems did the son have living on his own?

5. Assessment of language proficiency in English

The questions to be discussed:

- 5.1. Assessment as an integrative part of the teaching process.
- 5.2. Types, forms and techniques of assessment in ELT.
- 5.3. Assessment of language performance in English.
- 5.4. Language portfolio.

Key terms: assessment, control, objects of assessment, functions of assessment, forms of assessment, evaluation, testing, feedback, content feedback, form feedback, errors and mistakes, language shortcomings/ language gaps, language portfolio

5.1. Assessment as an integrative part of the teaching process

«Assessment» is a very broad term that can cover formal exams and tests, both external and internal, which are structured and built into the fabric of the academic year, as well as more informal types of assessment that teachers undertake as a part of their day-to-day practice. The term «control» is often replaced by «assessment».

In general, assessment is collecting data for revealing the level of students' language proficiency achieved within a certain time period. In language assessment, we gather information in a systematic way with the help of language testing tools.

Assessment is a part of the lesson during which the teacher evaluates how students have mastered the material and use it in reception and production of texts in the oral and written forms. For example, we may use an oral interview to gather information about students speaking abilities, then give comments based on that information, and make a decision what material and activities we should use if the students need more work on oral fluency. Thus, within the EL classroom we reveal sources and zones of learning difficulties, see the effectiveness of materials and activities, encourage students' involvement in the learning process, track learners' upgrading their English, and provide students with feedback about their EL learning progress for further classroom-based applications of language tests.

The objects of the assessment are: a) knowledge and subskills – language competence; b) using knowledge and language subskills in the process of production and reception of speech and interaction (communicative competence); c) country-study and linguo-cultural knowledge of verbal and non-verbal behavior – socio cultural competence.

The assessment in the ELT process fulfills different functions and objectives, which are shown in Table 17.

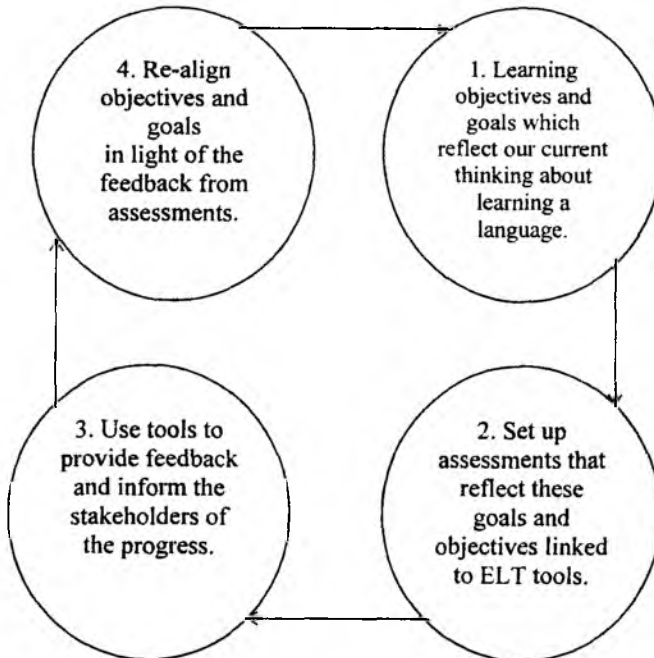
Table 17. Functions and tasks of the control

From the position of	Functions	Objectives
Learners	1) motivation and stimulation; 2) correction; 3) teaching;	1) stimulus and vehicle for gaining learning material; 2) raising creative activity of learners in promotion of self-study and self-correction; 3) opportunity to fixate self-achievement in language proficiency and in noticing shortcomings; 4) eliminating gaps in language;
Teachers	1) diagnostic; 2) checking-correction; 3) evaluation; 4) organization; 5) revising.	1) revealing the level of language performance; 2) predicting learners' abilities for acquiring material and developing strategies of learning; 3) diagnosing difficulties and shortcomings, choosing the ways of their preventing; 4) creating competitive environment for creative activity;
Who are responsible for monitoring	1) managing; 2) organization; 3) analytical.	1) monitoring the educational activity of learners and teachers; 2) monitoring the objectivity and reliability of assessment techniques of learners' achievements; 3) determining and analyzing the dynamic progress and regress in learners' achievements;

		<p>4) creating a competitive environment for teachers' and learners' creative and productive activity;</p> <p>5) analyzing the persistent control of teaching and learning processes;</p> <p>6) predicting perspectives of education system development.</p>
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We should identify learning goals and objectives with students' achievements and assessment. We need to create tools of assessment that will help us evaluate and understand whether our learning outcomes have been achieved. But we also recognize that the assessment contributes to achieving some of our communicative goals. The tools of assessment we set up can be very different both in the skills they focus on, and also in the way they are executed. The assessments might be individual, pair, or group-based. The assessments evaluation and feedback are also very important.

Figure 5. The learning cycle



The feedback could be provided by students, it could even be practiced by the students themselves and thus encourage their self-assessment. What is the outcome of this process? It is a picture of students' progress and a better understanding of whether the content of the course achieves its goal. In light of what we learn about students' performance during the learning cycle (Figure 5), some changes may need to be incorporated to the content of the course.

5.2. Types, forms and techniques of assessment in ELT

In the teaching process the summative and formative types are distinguished. **Summative assessment** often takes place at the end of a unit, module, or the whole course. The focus tends to be on the mark and the idea is to evaluate how well a student has learned what has been presented. **Formative assessment** takes place during a course, module or unit. The focus is more on gathering data about students' progress and using this data to help them improve language and fill in communicative gaps. In the teaching process the summative assessment is supported by the formative assessment data. We assess students at different stages and provide feedback that they can use to improve, re-draft or change what they are currently working on, but also to help them in their future learning (often referred to as feed-forward).

There are four stages in organizing classroom assessments: 1) planning assessment; 2) collecting data on students' learning through the assessment; 3) making judgments about students' performance, or evaluation; 4) providing appropriate feedback.

Within assessment *correction* and organizing *feedback* are differentiated. Where the lesson makes use of accurate reproduction and drilling techniques, it needs to be carefully organized, during this stage, students' errors and mistakes will be corrected almost instantly.

Organizing feedback occurs when learners have already finished a task. The teacher gives feedback to let the learners know how well they have performed in the course of activity (during the activity the teacher has picked up some of the students' mistakes

and has put them on the blackboard; now he is asking the students opinion about correctness).

There is a distinction between two different kinds of feedback. *Content feedback* concerns an assessment of how well students have performed the activity as an activity is more important than a language exercise; e.g. when students have completed a role-play the teacher first discusses with students the reasons for their decision in the simulation. *Form feedback* tells the students how well they have performed linguistically, how accurate they have been.

During the teaching process assessment eventually leads to **evaluation**. Evaluation is used as a final judgment about students' level of performance which has been measured by using different tools. Evaluation refers to the extent to which the teaching/learning objectives, stated at the beginning of a school year, term or lesson have been achieved. This judgment is formally expressed in numbers and per cent or marks, grades or informally in scores or points, which eventually can be converted into marks.

In Uzbekistan evaluation at schools, lyceum and college is organized in the frame of five-score (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) marking. Assessment conducts within: 1) current control, 2) intermediate, or interval) control, 3) final control. But it is necessary to indicate here also preliminary control, because its role is important for organizing the ELT process.

The process of assessing students' performance is done by using variety of ways, techniques and forms. There are many techniques or activities of language performance in ELT. Dictation exercises, strip stories, tests and written assignments are all examples of different types of techniques and activities suitable for English language learners. Simple dictation exercises require students to write down a passage read aloud by the teacher. These exercises offer an assessment of students' listening and writing skills. Strip stories require students to organize a short passage into the proper order after it has been taken apart and reorganized. Strip stories test reading comprehension and narrative awareness.

Testing is the most widely spread technique used for assessing students in the classroom. There are different tests: multiple choice,

matching, true-false, fill-in-the-blanks tests, cloze and dictation procedures; essay exams; oral interview – but also tests differing in scope and structure from these well-known options. Technological development has led to a number of new language testing formats, including computer-based and computer-adaptive tests, audiotape-based oral proficiency interviews, and web-based testing.

A communicative test approximates to real language use in the real world. For example, dictation and cloze tests are considered as non-communicative types, while role-play, letter and essay writing, following instruction, problem-solving, oral interview are communicative tests. But, for example, cloze tests provide a good way of gauging a student’s written, reading, grammar and vocabulary performances.

Multiple choice tests and written assignments are good ways of assessing vocabulary, reading comprehension and writing skills.

Thus, language tests are simply instruments or procedures for gathering particular kinds of information, typically information having to do with students’ language abilities. Tests have a variety of formats, length, item types, scoring criteria, and media.

The above mentioned information is presented in Table 18 as generalization and visualization.

Table 18. Types, forms, tasks, techniques of the assessment

Types of assessment	Forms of assessment	Objectives of assessment	Techniques
Preliminary control	-oral; - written; - individual; - group.	- to define the level of language proficiency, the level of cognitive and learning abilities, and motivation to EL; - to make acquainted with new requirements and teaching conditions.	- interview and tests; - oral or written tasks.

<p>Current control</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -individual, frontal, pair and group work in oral and written forms. - homework tasks; - project forms of work; - implicit control using different questions or plays; - self-control; - mutual control. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to make diagnostic of shortcomings in language performance; - to correct errors, mistakes; - to assess the level of language performance in the frame of the gained material; - to provide revising and rotation the acquired material as an addition to the new one; - to develop reflexive skills and self-evaluation; - monitoring the process of teaching and bringing up. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - oral and written assignments for forming and developing all subskills and skills in the form of topics and situations of communication;
<p>Intermediate control</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - individual, frontal, pair, group forms; -self-control and mutual control. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to define a dynamic of language proficiency of each student and whole class; - to make diagnostic of students' gaps and shortcomings in output; - to define the level of learning subskills. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - tests; - oral or written tests and assignments; - creative assignments.
<p>Final control</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - individual 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to reveal the level of language proficiency in accordance with the syllabus requirements. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - tests; - oral or written assignments.

5.3. Assessment of language performance in English

Assessment of language subskills

Linguistic competence refers to the mastery of knowledge of the language code itself. It involves controlling the format organization of the language for producing or recognizing «correct» sentences and organizing them to form texts.

Pronunciation is tested globally in different types of conversational exchange. Interview, reading aloud, etc., that go in the classroom. The purpose of testing pronunciation is not only to evaluate knowledge and award grades, but also to motivate students to be sensitive to this aspect of English. The most effective way of testing pronunciation is to actually listen to the learner. But it is not always possible in the teaching condition. So, the alternatives are: testing segments and word stress with the help of dictation exercises, listening activities designed to test the learners' ability to discriminate phonemes or group of phonemes.

The following exercises can be used for this purpose:

1. «Same or Different?»: The students listen to a pair of words or pair of sentences and indicate whether they are the same or different:

Bad – bed; suck – sock; spring – springer.

2. Fill in the Gap: the students listen to a sentence and select from a set of words the one they hear and need for the sentence:

Where did you see the..... ? (pupil, purple)

He can ... national songs? (think, sing, thin).

Vocabulary and grammar skills are the integral part of communicative skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing). They influence the effectiveness of speech reception and production. Vocabulary and grammar skills are tested when language is used.

Examples for testing vocabulary skills:

1. Choose the appropriate synonym to the given word.

Shape a) form, b) size, c) rate, d) oval

2. Complete the sentence with suitable words.

Use this _____ to find an _____ answer to the problem.
(option/ appropriate)

Do not spend _____time _____ piano.
(much/playing)

Examples for testing grammar skills:

1) Complete the dialogue with *will* or *be going to*.

Stan: _____ you _____ (have) lunch with me tomorrow?

Tess: Sorry, I _____ (not be) in town tomorrow.

2) Write questions to the given short answers.

- Yes, I am.

- No I can't.

- Yes, he did.

Assessing of listening

The goal of assessment is revealing the level of listening proficiency, i.e. reception and comprehension of the oral speech/audio-text.

In domestic methodology four levels of comprehension are singled out:

1) the level of fragmental comprehension;

2) the level of general comprehension;

3) the level of details comprehension;

4) the level of critical comprehension.

It is accepted that the first level gives evidence that the students' listening comprehension skills are not full because they comprehend only some fragments. So, we deal with the following three levels of comprehension, where the fragmental level of comprehension can be defined as assessment. In Table 19 the ways for testing of these three levels of comprehension are given.

Table 19. The ways of assessment of different levels of listening comprehension

General/global comprehension	Comprehension of details	Critical comprehension
- question-answering activities and tasks touching	- question-answering task and activities touching the general content and	- review of the text; annotation; comparison of

<p>the general content of the text;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - multiple choice; - telling the key idea of the text; - enumeration of the main facts; - making the plan; - singling out key words after re-listening; - defining the main subject and type of the text; - matching the headline/picture with the content of the text. 	<p>details/facts;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - making the full scaled plan; - retelling the text using visual aids (picture, schemata, key words or plan); - dramatization on the basis of the text content; - resume/ text evaluation; - drawing diagram, scheme, table, picture; - dividing the text into paragraphs and finding the headlines to them; - evaluation of people's behavior; - filling the gaps. 	<p>different points of view;</p> <p>agreement or disagreement to the author's views and inferences;</p> <p>interviewing;</p> <p>discussion or conversation.</p>
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Assessment of the first two levels of comprehension (given in the table) can be organized during teaching process at school, lyceum and college. The tasks and texts should correspond the students' age and be practical. Depending on the complicity of the texts and purpose, listening skills of students are tested within scanning, skimming, intensive and extensive listening through appropriate tests. But the level of critical comprehension demands language experience and fluency in reception and listening skills. So, it can be achieved in the linguistic schools, lyceum and colleges.

Testing of listening comprehension may involve macro- and micro-skills:

Macro-skills: listening for specific information (details, facts); listening for understanding the gist (the main idea of the text); following directions; following instructions;

Micro-skills: interpretation of intonation patterns (e.g. recognition of impolite tone, or irony); recognition of functions (e.g. request, command, advice, etc.)

For testing (exams) the text should replicate those (what?) used in everyday life, taking into account the students' age and level of

English. Teachers can use: radio news, weather forecast, short stories, dialogues, announcements, monologues, instructions, directions, etc.

Assessing of speaking

An assessment of spoken proficiency is carried out within production and interaction aspects, given or chosen themes, dialogue or monologue, prepared or spontaneous talk. Speaking is in a close interrelation with listening, because one of the communicants is a speaker-producer of the verbal/oral speech, the second one is a listener-receptor.

Among the macro-skills of language, it has been widely recognized that speaking in EL is the most difficult language skill to assess.

Assessment of spoken speech is shaped as the use of activities undertaken to acquire and streamline the data about students' speaking outcomes during and after teaching/learning activities. Assessment of speaking performance can be organized through different speaking activities such as discussions, problem-solving, role-plays, conversations, story-telling, and so on.

Arthur Hughes singled out the operations and skills for assessing oral abilities¹¹³, which we should take into consideration (see Table 20).

Table 20. Operations and skills for assessment of oral abilities

Operations	Skills
<p>Expressing: likes, dislikes, preferences, agreement / disagreement, requirements, opinions, comment, attitude, confirmation, complaints, reasons, justifications, comparisons.</p> <p>Directing: instructing, persuading, advising, prioritizing.</p> <p>Describing: actions, events, objects, people, processes.</p>	<p>Informational skills: express, describe, explain, make comparisons, analyze, apologize, summarize, etc.</p> <p>Interactional skills: respond, express (dis)agreement, indicate, suggest, argue, elicit, repair breakdowns, etc.</p>

¹¹³ Hughes A. Testing for Language Teachers The 2-d ed - Cambridge: CUP. 2003.

Eliciting: information, directions, clarification, help.

Narration: sequence of events.

Reporting: description, comment, decisions and choices.

Skills in managing

interactions: initiate interactions, change topics, turn-taking, come to a decision, end and interaction

Below we present a sample of testing students' speaking performance.

Instruction

1. You have 5 minutes to read the task and think about what you want to say.
2. If there is anything which you don't understand, please ask the teacher.
3. You can make a few notes if you want to.
4. After this 5 minute preparation time, you will talk about the subject with a teacher.

Task

What makes a good friend?

You are going to talk to the teacher about what you value in your friends.

Look at the suggested information to be incorporated below:

Kindness Honesty Fun to be with Support A 'shoulder to cry on'
Shared interests Other...

Reflection

Do you think it's better to have one or two really close friends, or a wider circle of less close friends?

What are the qualities in yourself that you think your friends value?

There is an English saying, «Blood is thicker than water», meaning that family relationships are more important / reliable than relationships with friends.

Do you agree with this?

There are five components generally recognized by educators in analysis of the oral speech process: 1) pronunciation, including segmental features, vowels and consonants, the stress and intonation

patterns; 2) grammar; 3) vocabulary; 4) fluency; 5) comprehension. These components can be taken as macro-criteria for testing students' speaking performance.

Three frameworks about general purposes of testing oral skills were suggested: 1) linguistically-oriented, 2) communication-oriented, 3) situation-based.¹¹⁴

1. Linguistically-oriented framework concerns *vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation*. This work/goal can be carried out/achieved by *structured speaking tasks*, and *short-answer questions, reacting to phrases tasks*. Structured speaking tasks are typically used to evaluate pronunciation, spoken vocabulary and spoken grammar skills. Short-answer questions and reactions to phrases can also be used to evaluate overall understanding and comprehensibility. Short-answer questions test shows comprehension of questions and ability to give relevant information in response. The difference between this and more extended simulations is that the questions and answers are limited and all the information needed for answering the questions is usually provided in the task materials. Reacting to phrases is another structured task which is often used in tape-based tests. The task usually tests the examinees' knowledge of conventional politeness exchanges such as greetings, thanks, apologies, expressions of agreement and polite disagreement, and so on.

2. Communication-oriented framework refers to the overall communication activity in such a task as *telling* a narrative or *expressing* and *defending* an opinion, *discussing* factors that support the chosen opinion and argue against others – for the beginning and intermediate levels, *comparing* and *contracting* things through which advanced oral skills for description are needed.

3. Situation-based task design belongs to the task-based approach to defining the test construct. This approach is typically used in specific-purpose testing – ESP at colleges.

¹¹⁴ Luoma S. Developing Speaking Tasks. In Assessing Speaking. -Cambridge: CUP, 2004. -Pp. 139-169

The first two frameworks are appropriate for testing students' speaking performance at schools, lyceums and colleges. We can find out how students understand linguistic rules and use them in communication.

In Table 21 you find some examples, suggested by S. Luoma¹¹⁵, that show the types of test items and their functions.

Table 21. Speaking tasks and speaking tests

Speaking tasks	Examples of speaking tests and their explanation
Description tasks	<p><i>Example 1.</i> A one-to-one interview: Describe to me the room or area where you live.</p> <p><i>Example 2.</i> A pair task in an interview test (two pictures are provided): Describe your pictures to each other and then talk about what is similar in your pictures and what is different.</p>
Narrative tasks	<p><i>Example 1.</i> A tape-based test (Six pictures should be provided). Please look at the six pictures below. Tell the story based on these pictures starting with picture number 1 and going through to picture number 6. Take one minute to look at the pictures.</p> <p><i>Example 2:</i> A face-to-face paired interaction test. Each of you has a set of pictures. Together they make a story. Each of you tells one part of the story. The narrative is a monologue, and as the test is tape-based the examinees have to tell it in one long stretch without any feedback from a listener.</p> <p>Narrative tasks are used as speaking tests to show how well the examinees can recount a sequence of events, usually in one time frame, either present or past. Most often, the tasks are based on picture sequences, where the content of the pictures guides what will be said. It is likely to create some interaction even though one of the</p>

¹¹⁵ Luoma S. Developing Speaking Tasks. In Assessing Speaking -Cambridge. CUP. 2004 -Pp 139-169.

	<p>pupils is always the main speaker while the narrative is being constructed. Information gap between the two speakers is therefore likely to occur. Also, the choice of good sequences is a difficult matter. Personal stories often reveal embarrassing details that speakers would be shy to discuss in a test or, if not, they may be so uneventful that the speakers would consider them unworthy to tell.</p>
Instruction tasks	<p><i>Example 1:</i> A one-to-one interview Imagine that we are standing in front of your house. Tell me how to get to the shop from there.</p> <p><i>Example 2:</i> A face-to-face paired interaction test — Feeding the puppy. You cannot go home but your puppy needs to be fed. Your friend says he will do it. Tell your partner exactly what to do, what he'll need and where to find things. Follow the instructions below. Find what you need in the picture. Tasks — what you have to do; what you need; where to find things.</p> <p>The main purpose in giving directions and instructions is getting the message to the partner and making sure that it has been understood. This tends to mean short exchanges between the speaker and the listener.</p>
Comparing and contrasting tasks	<p><i>Example:</i> Interaction for a pair task in a paired interview. Candidate A compares and contrasts two or three of these photographs, saying what kind of clothing the people are wearing and why the protection might be necessary.</p>
Explaining and predicting tasks	<p><i>Example 1:</i> A taped-based test Explaining the contents of a graph or explaining a process is a fairly common task in many professional and study settings. To do well on the task, the speakers need to set the scene and identify parts of the information or stages in the process that they are explaining and present them in coherent order. They also need to explain the significance of the important parts or stages, so that the listeners understand what the explanation is about and why it is being given.</p>

	<p>Predictions go together well with explanation tasks, and they can also be fairly in a monolog way. As predictions involve speculation, they may become more interactive in a face-to-face setting.</p>
<p>Decision tasks</p>	<p><i>Example 2:</i> In a paired interview Discuss and decide together: 1) what the advantages and disadvantages are of attending trade fairs, for instance, and 2) which members of staff would most usefully represent a company at a trade fair.</p> <p>In speaking tests, the issues that need to be decided are usually not clear-cut, so that arguments for and against different solutions are needed. The speakers express their opinions about the concerns and justify them in order to air different viewpoints before negotiating the conclusion.</p>
<p>Role-plays and simulations</p>	<p>Role-plays simulate different kinds of communication situations that the target group of the test could plausibly meet outside the test. They can be completed between two examinees or between one and a tester.</p> <p><i>Example:</i> A job interview.</p> <p>The employer — inquiring information about candidate's abilities, qualifications, and character The candidate — providing information about himself and inquiring information about the company</p> <p>Role-play tasks are a way of making communication in a test more versatile because, rather than talking to a tester, the examinees take on a new role and a new, simulated role relationship to their communication partner. Their performance shows their ability to adapt to the requirements of the new role and situation. As long as the situation is relevant for the target audience and the purpose of the test, this gives useful information for the tester. The information may simply be a new perspective into the examinees' linguistic resources, or the use of different functions from other tasks in the test.</p>

Assessing of reading

Assessment of reading performance is carried out within skimming (reading for gist), scanning (reading for details), and extensive (reading for pleasure focuses on informational content). Reading presupposes forming receptive and comprehension skills.

At the beginning level of reading in English classrooms, the *receptive tasks* include: *recognition* of alphabetic symbols, capitalized and lowercase letters, punctuation, words, and grapheme-phoneme correspondences. They are referred to as «literacy» tasks, implying that the learner is in *the early stages* of becoming 'literate'. The following tasks for testing are used: 1) reading aloud; 2) written response; 3) multiple-choice; 4) picture-cued.

Scanning and skimming reading. A combination of bottom-up and top-down processing may be both used to assess lexical and grammatical aspects of reading ability. These types of reading involve the different testing tasks: 1) question-answer; 2) cloze tasks; 3) multiple-choice (form-focused and for reading comprehension); 4) true or false; 5) matching tasks; 6) editing tasks; 7) picture-cued tasks; 8) gap-filling tasks; 9) ordering tasks; 10) to get the main ideas or details/facts; 11) non-verbal tasks for information transfer such as charts, maps, graphs, and diagrams; 12) transformation; 13) extending or compression; 14) summarizing (a synopsis or overview of the text) and responding (personal opinion on the text as a whole); 15) note-taking and outlining.

Testing (exam) focuses on evaluation of reading comprehension, which can be involved in macro- and micro-skills.

Macro-skills for testing reading comprehension are: skimming to obtain the general idea (gist) of the text; scanning to locate specific information in the text; identifying the stages and arguments; identifying examples in support of the argument in topic sentence.

Micro-skills for testing can be: identifying referents of pronouns; infer the meaning of words using the text as a context; understanding the structure.

Assessing of written work

Writing involves content, organization, style, syntax, mechanics, grammar and spelling. It was pointed out that «If we limit our feedback to pointing out or correcting errors, our students will concentrate on producing error-free writing, neglecting the interest or even the meaning of the content. The equation teaching writing – error elimination is counterproductive»¹¹⁶. So it is necessary to conduct feedback in fair balance of content feedback and form feedback.

The experienced teachers consider that teachers should ignore the language mistakes that do not hinder learning, so teachers may correct only those mistakes which are very basic and those which affect meaning.

Study the ways and strategies of errors correction¹¹⁷ (Table 22) and discuss them in the group.

Table 22. Ways and strategies of errors correction

Ways and strategies for error correction	Goal, functions and explanation of error correction
Giving clear instruction	To help the students to concentrate on particular aspects of language, we can tell them that a piece of work will be corrected for only one thing, the use of tenses, for instance. By doing this, we ensure that their work will not be covered by red marks, and we encourage them to focus on particular aspects of written language. We can individualize language work by identifying for each student a few kinds of errors and assigning that focus on these.

¹¹⁶ Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. *In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English.* - Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P. 201.

¹¹⁷ It was adapted from the book: Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. *In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English.* -Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P. 202-203.

Using students work material as	Where a piece of writing contains a number of common errors, we may photocopy the work (erasing the writer's name) and show it to the whole class, asking them to identify problems. In this way the attention of the class can be drawn to common mistakes and photocopied document can form the basis for remedial work
Discussing errors	We will learn about our students' errors if we give them the opportunity to make them, fix them, and discuss them. We can ask our pupils to discuss where they think their mistakes come from and why they make them. This will help us to realize which mistakes the pupils can recognize and which ones they cannot. Asking the pupils to discuss their mistakes may provide us with wide information about interference, typical mistakes, usage of skills and give us clear evidence of language learning.
Pointing out strengths as well as weaknesses	Our students will have the chance to perceive a correct model in their own use of language and will be likely to continue taking risk if they see that their good qualities are noted and encouraged.

There are different types of writing performance in English which should be assessed¹¹⁸.

Imitative: at this stage, form is the primary concern to assess learner's skills in the fundamental and basic tasks of writing letters, words, punctuation, and very brief sentences. This category also includes the ability to spell correctly and to perceive phoneme-grapheme correspondences in the English spelling system.

Intensive: this refers to producing appropriate vocabulary within a context, collocations and idioms, and correct grammatical features up to the length of a sentence.

Responsive: assessment tasks here require learners to perform at a limited discourse level, connecting sentences into a paragraph and creating a logically connected sequence of two or three paragraphs.

¹¹⁸ Brown H. D. Language assessment-- principles and classroom practices. - New York: Pearson Education, Inc., 2004.

Form-focused attention is mostly at the discourse level, with a strong emphasis on *context* and *meaning*.

Extensive: extensive writing implies successful management of all the processes and strategies of writing for all purposes, up to the length of *an essay*, a term paper, a major research project report, or even a thesis. Students focus on achieving a purpose, organizing and developing ideas logically, using details to support or illustrate ideas, demonstrating syntactic and lexical variety, and in many cases, engaging in the process of multiple drafts to achieve a final product.

A piece of writing (for instance, essay) as a final work at advanced level can be evaluated on the basis of criteria: 1) task achievement: relevance and appropriateness of ideas and examples, coverage, variety, suitability of the text, type and length, awareness of a target reader, precision; 2) organization: cohesion, coherence sequencing, paragraphing, layout and punctuation, length/complexity of sentence, textual fluency; 3) range: structures, vocabulary, appropriateness, flexibility, detail, avoidance of repetition; 4) accuracy: grammar, vocabulary, spelling.

5.4. Language portfolio

The basic idea of a portfolio is to provide a much wider range of evidences of the language skills of a student. It involves analyzing and evaluating multiple examples of a student's work and assessing a student's proficiencies and problem areas. Portfolio involves scoring a wide range of student's work based on predetermined criteria. All students can have benefits from this type of self-assessment, because portfolios offer students the opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned and experienced with the target language. It can include the whole range of language evidences reflecting a much wider range of skills. It might include tests, readings, written work, essay plans, feedback and reflections.

The process of actually developing and finding content for the portfolio often means that both the teachers and the students play a role in the form they take. For example, it may be left to the student to decide what examples of writing or reading to include in the

portfolio. In doing this the students ‘own’ their portfolios and learn and reflect from the process of actually choosing the content for the portfolio itself¹¹⁹.

Language portfolio was created under framework of Council of Europe and it included three components:

1. The language passport, which is a record of language learning both inside and outside the classroom. This has personal information like any passport, plus a grid which provides information about the languages that the person speaks and their level, using the Common European Framework of Reference.

2. The language biography which is a diagnostic self-assessment of FL, or L2 skills. It is done through a series of ‘can do’ statements where the student ticks check boxes to demonstrate what s/he can and can’t do in a given language.

3. Finally, there is a language dossier/file. It is here where the students provide actual evidence of their language ability through a variety of artifacts.

Questions:

1. What do we mean by assessment?
2. What objects of assessment can you enumerate?
3. What function does assessment fulfill in the ELT process?
4. What are the forms of assessment?
5. What can you say about feedback and correction?
6. Think about purposes of testing spoken skills and how they are undertaken in the ELT process.

Tasks:

1. Describe the various types of tests which you know.
2. Discuss macro and micro skills testing.
3. Discuss beneficiaries of using language portfolio in the ELT process.

¹¹⁹ Lam R., Lee I. Balancing the dual functions of portfolio assessment// J. English Language Teaching. 64/1, 2010. -Pp. 54–64.

4. In the sample of Bavarian Assessment Criteria for A2 level (CEFR) described above macro-criteria are reflected. Examine these criteria and requirements to speaking proficiency for A1, A2, B1 levels given in the State Educational Standard.

Pronunciation: comprehensibility and effective communication of meaning, including stress and intonation
Lexical and structural range, flexibility and appropriacy: adequacy of repertoire in relation to task and topics
Accuracy: lexical and grammatical - frequency and communicative significance of mistakes and errors
Interaction: initiation, response, independence, participation, negotiation of meaning, turn-taking and accommodation.
Communicative effectiveness: relevance, coherence, organization of ideas, sequencing and task achievement.

5. Study the content given in the box.

Tasks for Different Types of Writing¹²⁰
<p>Imitative writing</p> <p>1) Tasks in (Hand) writing letters, words, and punctuation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - copying; - listening cloze selection tasks; - picture-cued tasks; - form completion tasks; - converting numbers and abbreviations to words. <p>2) Spelling tasks and detecting phoneme-grapheme correspondences</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - spelling tests; - picture-cued tasks; - multiple-choice techniques; - matching phonetic symbols: n/au - now' is expected to be written by the test taker.)
<p>Intensive writing</p> <p>This is also called controlled writing and thought of as a form-focused</p>

¹²⁰ See: gaining.educ.msu.edu/resources/files/Assessing%20Writing.pdf

writing, grammar writing, or simply guided writing. Students produce language to display their competence in grammar, vocabulary, or sentence formation, and not necessarily to convey meaning for an authentic purpose.

1) **Dictation and Dicto-Comp** (rewrite the paragraph from the best of students' recollection from a listening piece).

2) **Grammatical transformation tasks:**

- change the **tenses** in a paragraph;
- change full forms of **verbs** to reduced forms (contractions);
- change statements to **yes/no** or **why-questions**;
- change **questions** into **statements**;
- combine two sentences into one using a relative **pronoun**;
- change **direct** speech to **indirect** speech;
- change from **active** to **passive** voice.

3) **Picture-cued** tasks:

- short sentences;
- picture description;
- picture sequence description.

4) **Vocabulary** assessment tasks: the major techniques used to assess vocabulary are (a) **defining** and (b) **using** a word in a sentence.

Task forms include:

- **multiple-choice** techniques;
- **matching, picture-cued** identification;
- **cloze** techniques;
- **guessing** the meaning of a word in context, etc.

Vocabulary assessment is clearly **form-focused** in the above tasks, but the procedures are creatively linked by means of the target word, its collocations, and its morphological variants.

5) **Ordering** tasks: at the **sentence** level (reordering sentences).

6) **Short-answer** and **sentence completion** tasks.

Extensive writing (higher-end production of writing)

The genres of a text that are typically addressed here include:

- short reports (with structured formats and conventions);
- responses to the reading of an article or story;
- summaries of articles or stories;
- brief narratives or descriptions;
- interpretations of graphs, tables, and charts.

6. Study the test formats used for assessment of language skills. Explain their effectiveness in the EL teaching process .

Language Skills	Test Formats
Reading skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Multiple-choice items 2. Short answers test 3. Cloze test 4. Gap-filling test 5. False/true statement
Listening skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Multiple-choice items 2. False/true statements 3. Gap-filling tests 4. Dictations 5. Listening recall
Writing skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Dictations 2. Compositions 3. Reproductions 4. Writing stories 5. Writing diaries 6. Filling-in forms
Speaking skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Retelling stories 2. Describing pictures 3. Describing people 4. Spotting the differences

Independent work:

1. Search the different types of tests in the Internet and prepare a presentation to the class.

2. Find and study samples of descriptors for self-evaluation in the terms «I can do», «I understand» and try to create descriptors for school, lyceum and college on the basis of content and requirements, given in the State Educational Standard.

Part III. ORGANIZATION OF THE ENGLISH TEACHING PROCESS AT SCHOOL, LYCEUM AND COLLEGE

1. English language lesson and planning in the teaching process at school, lyceum and college

The questions to be discussed:

- 1.1. The features of the EL lesson.
- 1.2. Types of lessons and forms of interaction in EL lesson.
- 1.3. EL lesson planning.
- 1.4. Structure of the EL lesson plan.
- 1.5. Independent learning.

Key terms: EL lesson, the features of the lesson, requirements to the lesson, structure of the lesson, cycle of lessons, stages of the lesson, types of the lesson, forms of classroom interaction, approaches to organizing the lesson, model of lessons, language atmosphere, phonetic drill, planning, types of plans, principles of planning, independent work and learning, autonomy.

1.1. The features of the EL lesson

A lesson is a unit of a teaching process and the main form of organization of the teaching process. Conducting a lesson is shaped as a collective interrelated activity. The goal of each lesson is an important part of the final goal. Understanding of a lesson goal should be relied on the main important particularities: 1) teaching speech activities as a real process of communication and 2) complexness.

Only one goal makes the lesson logical. Besides of a leading goal the lesson has accompanied tasks. It is not appropriate to define a goal of some lesson irrelatively with the whole system of lessons.

For example, the task of a cycle of lessons can be developing speaking, listening and reading skills on a certain theme, language and speech material. The theme cannot be changed during the series of lessons. But a language material and type of speech activity can be a new one. That's why the goal of each lesson is defined with new skills, which are being developed within a concrete lesson, or within a system of lessons. The whole teaching process is built on the basis of speech themes. Exactly the theme in accordance with the content-communicative principle defines the cycle of lessons. A material is distributed in accordance with the stages of developing the necessary skills. Such planning allows a teacher to realize perspectives for the further work. The result of such a cycle working is a qualitatively new stage in developing communicative skills.

It is necessary to realize the capacity of teaching/learning material in the frame of a cycle. Given the above purpose we should 1) define words and structures, which must be learned within a quantum of time for developing required skills; 2) select situations and patterns, following the necessary grammar and vocabulary units, which are typical, meaningful and frequently used within this theme; 3) select a material for practice and production (tasks and activities, their sequence) for developing communicative skills.

The cycle can consist of 3-6 lessons (the early stage – 2-3 lessons, 5-9 forms – 5-6 lessons). All capacity of the work is distributed into the cycle. For illustration the sample of distribution of the teaching material is shown.

Lesson1: Presentation of a new theme; new vocabulary; structures; or stimulus for conversation; the text for listening with questions. A new material is presented by the teacher and repeated by students. It is recommended to present a new material at the beginning of the lesson, because it gives an opportunity to have time for practice this material and assess the learners' achievements.

Lesson2: Working on a grammar material and skimming reading.

Lesson 3: Active working on speech (dialogues, conversation, and retelling; making analogous text; creating a text on the basis of several texts).

Lesson4: Lesson for revision – transmission into writing, summarizing the lesson, writing a composition as a homework.

Thus the goal of the lesson determines the character of homework, because well formulated goal of the lesson is the result and the homework proposes only what we teach during the lesson. The goal also determines the selection of tasks and activities. Exercises are built on the principle «from simplicity to complicity». Besides the lesson content should be realized on the basis of the interrelation principle with the different subject matters.

A successful lesson depends on the kinds of interactions a teacher creates during the lesson. This can include opportunities for interactions between the teacher and the class as well as interactions among the students themselves. There are four possible ways to arrange a class, with each offering different learning potentials: whole-class teaching, individual work, group work, and pair work (See Table 23). A lesson may begin with a whole-class activity and then move to pair, group, or individual work. When planning a teacher needs to consider when the whole-class teaching is appropriate and when the teacher should make the transition to other types of learning in order to promote student-to-student interaction and allow students to work on tasks at their own pace.

Table 23. Forms of interaction

Whole-class teaching. This mode of teaching involves teaching all the students together. Arrangement of a lesson for whole-class teaching depends on the type of a lesson a teacher is teaching and on the particular stage of the lesson. Whole-class, teacher-fronted teaching can serve to focus students' attention quickly on a learning task. When carefully carried out, it can lead to the quick and effective achievement of lesson objectives, since time management is maximally under the teacher's control.

Individual work. It is necessary to point out at a lesson where students can best work individually, such as when they are reading or listening to a text, or completing written exercises in a textbook or workbook. Individual work allows students to work at their own pace and to work on activities suited to their proficiency level or interests; having

learners work on their own also allows a teacher to provide them with individual support and/or assistance. In planning individual work, a teacher needs to consider how well students understand what is expected of them and whether the task provides adequate challenge, support, and motivation to sustain their interests.

Pair work. Pair work provides opportunities for sustained interaction and has long been recommended as a key means of promoting both accuracy and fluency in language use. Grouping students in pairs can take into consideration their ability level, language and cultural background, and other factors that will facilitate a positive approach to learning. Students who are not familiar with this learning arrangement may need careful orientation and preparation for pair-work activities.

Group work. Group-based learning is widely used in all forms of teaching and significantly changes the interactional dynamics of the classroom. In language classes, it increases students' talking time, helps promote self-esteem, and can increase student motivation by providing a risk-free environment for language practice.

The modern requirements to the EL lesson are shown in the Table 24.

Table 24. The modern requirements to the EL lesson

Requirements	Interpretation
1. Goal-oriented	Each of the lessons must provide achievement of educational, practical, bringing up and development aims through solving the certain objectives.
2. Content-value	Selecting of the meaningful and relevant teaching material, adequacy of techniques and exercises to the teaching objectives and optimal correlation of practice and production
3. Activity of students during the lesson	The inner and outer activity of students during the lesson must take the form of speech-mental activity related to the speech initiativeness.
4. Motivation-provided	Understanding the success of ELL by

	students and seeing their dynamic progress in ELL.
5. Variety of used stimulus at the lesson	Using different verbal and visual stimulus for involving students into communication. The preference is given to the real-life activities with audio-visual supporters.
6. Correspondence of verbal and non-verbal behavior to the teaching goal, content and conditions.	From the position of verbal behavior the teacher carries out the function of the important means of teaching EL, quasi-bringer of the EL. From the position of non-verbal behavior the teacher plays the role of an organizer, instructor, producer, actor, designer, operator, etc.
7. Using up-to-date technologies	The teacher must organize the teaching process on the basis of different up-to-date technologies (interactive, information-telecommunication technologies ant others).
8. Achievement of the result.	The goal and objectives put at the beginning of the lesson must be achieved at the end of the lesson.

Pedagogical mastering is seen in the careful and hard preparation to the lesson and deep self-analysis of his/her activity, study and summarizing of teaching experience and implementation the progressive experience into practice of ELT. For this the teacher needs a guider and assessor which helps him/her evaluate own and others' lessons. That's why the above requirements can be put into the scheme of the analysis of the EL lesson.

1.2. The structure of the EL lesson and types of lessons

There is no general scheme of the lesson structure which can be obligatory for all lessons. Some of the stages of a lesson are constant, others can be varied. A constant stage of a lesson is an involving into language atmosphere. This stage includes various tasks or activities. One of them is a phonetic drill. The atmosphere of communication created at the beginning of the lesson can last

during the whole lesson. The dominant place is given to the teacher's communicative action related to motivation, instructions, control and evaluation.

These stages are considered as reasonable from methodical point of view:

1. Involving into the language atmosphere;
2. Explanation of the new material and algorithm of operations and actions with it;
3. Doing exercises as practicing and activating the new material;
4. Writing down and explanation of the homework, summarizing the lesson's results and marking.

In the domestic methodology the following types of the lesson are distinguished¹²¹:

1) The lessons are directed to acquire a) language elements on lexical, phonetic and grammatical levels and language use as a result of this type of a lesson is obtaining the linguistic competence.

2) The lessons are directed to acquire communicative activity. The aim of this type of a lesson is developing listening, reading, speaking and writing skills.

3) The lessons which combine previous types of lessons are directed to acquire knowledge, language sub-skills and communicative skills. In the practice of teaching the preference is given more to this type of a lesson.

Besides in methodology of FLT the different lesson organization approaches as teaching models are used: 1) Presentation -> Practice -> Production (PPP); 2) Engage -> Study -> Activate (ESA); Test -> Teach -> Test (TTT); 4) Task-based approach (TBA).

1. PPP works through the progression of three sequential stages. **Presentation stage** represents the introduction to a lesson, and necessarily requires the creation of a realistic (or realistic-feeling) «situation» requiring the target language to be learned that can be achieved through using pictures, dialogues, imagination or actual

¹²¹ Jalalov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign Language Teaching Methodology. -T.: O'qituvchi, 2012. -P321-322.

«classroom situations». The teacher checks to see that the students understand the nature of the situation and then he/she builds the «concept» underlying the language to be learned using small chunks of the language that the students already know. Having understood the concept, students are then given the language «model» and engage in choral drills to learn statement, answer and question forms for the target language. This is a very teacher-orientated stage where error correction is important.

It is necessary to take into consideration that at the presentation stage of the lesson *eliciting* is a useful way of involving the class by focusing students' attention and making them think: it establishes what students know and what they do not know; and it encourages students to make guesses and to work out rules for themselves. For example, eliciting can be organized on the basis of a picture, or a headline of the text as a pre-reading activity.

The second stage – Practice usually begins with what is termed «mechanical practice» - open and closed pair-work. Students gradually move into more «communicative practice» involving procedures like information gap activities, dialogue creation and controlled role-plays. Practice is seen as the frequency device to create familiarity and confidence with the new language, and a measuring stick for accuracy. Thus, learners have **practice** making sentences with new words and structures. The teacher still directs and corrects at this stage, but the classroom is beginning to become more learner-centered.

The third stage – Production is seen as the culmination of the language learning process, whereby the learners have started to become independent *users* of the language rather than *students* of the language. The teacher's role here is to somehow facilitate a realistic situation or activity where the students instinctively feel the need to actively apply the language they have been practicing. The teacher does not correct or become involved unless students directly appeal to him/her to do so. At the stage of **production** learners talk more freely about the known and unknown information/situation. This model is effective for teaching a simple language at low levels.

The PPP approach is relatively straight forward, and structured enough to be easily understood by both students and new or

emerging teachers. It is a good place to start in terms of applying good communicative language teaching in the classroom. It has also been criticized considerably for the very characteristic that makes it the easiest method for 'beginner' teachers, that is, that it is far too teacher-orientated and over controlled.

2. A nice alternative to 'PPP' is Harmer's 'ESA' (Engage -> Study-> Activate) based on surveys which have shown that the conditions for successful LL are motivation, exposure to language and chances to use it.

In the **Engage** stage, a teacher motivate learners and arise their interest by involving their emotion through using games, music, discussions, stimulating pictures, dramatic stories, anecdotes, etc. Other ways of encouraging the learners are: asking them what they think about a topic (predicting, guessing) before reading the text. If learners are engaged they learn better.

In the **Study** stage a teacher focuses on vocabulary and constructions or information. Successful language teaching/learning depends on the degree of quality language acquisition (getting language knowledge or skills through listening and reading), for example, and study activities organized by a teacher.

Activate is the stage where learners use the language knowledge and skills in given situations. These three stages can be varied, they are not constant. Variation is even recommended for effective teaching/learning EL.

3. **Model «Test -> Teach -> Test»**. TTT is a frequently used alternative to the PPP method, wherein the production phase is sequentially moved to the first part of the lesson. During the (first) **test phase** that corresponds to the production phase in the PPP approach, learners are more or less abruptly asked to communicatively produce a language concept based on their existing knowledge and without any prior guidance from the teacher. The teacher will then asses the students' level of competency in the particular language area, determine their needs, and proceed with the teach phase (which corresponds to the presentation phase in the PPP approach) based on an overall assessment. **The teach phase** allows to discuss problem areas and guide learners towards the correct use of the language concept.

The final stage of the TTT approach is the **second test** that aims to check how students have absorbed the new inputs from the teacher. The logic of this sequencing is for students to learn the new language concepts better by differentiating its invalid uses (most likely to be committed during the first test phase) from correct usage (likely to be accomplished after the teacher presented the language concept during the teach phase).

In general, the TTT approach is a good way for teachers to determine the specific needs of students in different language areas. With this knowledge, educators can optimize their teaching strategies to produce optimum learning outcomes. It is best used at intermediate and higher competency levels, as well as in classes where the students have mixed language proficiencies. However, one consistent criticism about the TTT approach is that it has an element of randomness since several unexpected learners' needs may arise that is beyond the scope of the intended lesson. Despite this disruptive possibility, the TTT approach is still being adopted by many educators because it is very «economical» and «focused» in the sense that valuable time need not be wasted on teaching language areas students are already proficient with.

4. Task-based model /approach. TBA is a good alternative to either the PPP approach or the TTT method. In TBA-structured classes, teachers do not pre-determine the language specifics to study but base their lesson strategies on how a central task is completed by the learners. Similar to the other two approaches, TBA follows a sequential progression: 1) a pre-task introduction to be conducted by the teacher; 2) the learners' completion of a central task involving a particular language aspect; 3) reporting, analysis and feedback to be performed by the teacher concerning how the learners accomplished the central task; and 4) practice sessions to hone learner proficiencies in the language area.

The task-based approach is advocated by many educators because of several clear advantages. For one thing, TBA allows learners to employ all their language resources towards the completion of a task and not just pre-selected language areas as in the case of PPP. In addition, TBA utilizes natural, real-life language contexts that are highly relevant to learners. Hence, language

exploration and learning directly arises from students' actual needs and not as suggested in textbooks. TBA is also based on the premise that a holistic exposure to language – as opposed to incremental exposures common to PPP – is a better way of learning a new language.

A good EL lesson consists of much more than a series of activities and exercises that the teacher has strung together to occupy classroom time – and it involves much more than simply presenting the material in the current EL textbook. EL teaching is not only a field of practical activity but also a discipline that draws on a considerable body of knowledge and practice. Every lesson of a teacher should reflect a solid understanding of the nature of the language, of the EL learning and teaching, and of his/her learners – taking into account their needs as well as their learning styles and preferences.

1.3. EL lesson planning

The important condition of effectiveness of ELT is planning of teachers and students activity for a lesson and a system of lessons. In the practice of teaching EL at the lesson, thematic and perspective planning are distinguished.

The aim of EL *lesson planning* is to define the content of the lesson and algorithm of operations and actions of the teacher and learners.

Thematic plan is enveloped as a serial number of lessons. As a rule, it is one of the themes of communication, which includes itself also vocabulary, grammar and country-study material.

Perspective planning defines the system of a teacher and students activity for the whole stage of ELT.

There are different principles of lesson planning. The most important among them are variety, flexibility, examining the subject matter from the learners' point of view, considering individual differences, language backgrounds and past experience¹²².

¹²² See: Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. - Romania: Polirom, 2003 - P. 83-84.

1. *Variety* means involving learners in a number of different types of activities and using a wide selection of material to motivate learners.

2. *Flexibility* comes into play, when dealing with the plan in the classroom, for a number of reasons a teacher should have an opportunity to change the plan in accordance with the situation which can take place during teaching.

3. *Examination of the subject matter* from the learners' point of view – the teacher should examine teaching material and reveal its appropriateness to learners and difficulties for acquiring this material by learners. During planning a teacher adapt material and defines ways of overcoming these difficulties.

4. *Consideration of individual differences* presupposes that learners have different abilities to learn the language under apparently the same conditions of learning. This fact should be taking into consideration in planning. This principle is known in the domestic methodology as individualization and differentiation of teaching.

5. *Language backgrounds and past experience* – before designing a teacher should reveal what prior knowledge, abilities and skills the learners have.

Designing the lesson and outlining its plan is an essential part of the teaching process. All EL teachers – regardless of training, experience, or competency – need a carefully drawn lesson plan in order to assist their learners in attaining learning objectives, both on a daily basis as well as the long-term. Having a lesson plan is like having a complete and clear visualization of how a learning session is to take place and how learners are able to grasp and retain the lesson concepts.

The importance of lesson plans in EL education is difficult to overstate. EL teachers simply need to visualize daily lessons in advance and build the most appropriate teaching strategies into a comprehensive lesson plan. Otherwise, going to class without an adequate preparation will most likely be detrimental to both the teachers and their learners. Having a lesson plan and effectively using it as a guide for daily teaching will reflect a teacher's professionalism and reliability. Teachers also present themselves as

good role models for their learners who will come to appreciate the value of coming to class prepared and primed to achieve the lesson targets.

If a teacher is new to teaching, a lesson plan is basically just a step-by-step guide on how the teacher intends to present a lesson and the ways by which learners are expected to learn and appreciate the lessons various concepts. An excellent lesson plan is one that can be easily and effectively used by another teacher in a job place. This means that the ideal lesson plan is both clear and comprehensive.

1.4. Structure of the EL lesson plan

The details and elements of lesson plans are varied in accordance with the specific format mandated by a school, lyceum and college. However, the common components of a good lesson plan include the following items:

Lesson's Theme.
The period of time (in minutes, hours, days, or weeks) necessary to complete the lesson.
Class details (class name or section, age, skill level, etc.)
The lesson objectives.
Instructional approach(es) to be used (this section describes the sequence of learning events as well as the techniques the teacher will use in helping students achieve the lesson objectives).
Instructional materials (such as a film, an image gallery, a music video, etc.).
Summary of and derived conclusions from the lesson.
Methods for practicing the lesson concepts.
Evaluation and testing methods to be used.
Contingency plans or elements (This section describes subsidiary topics or additional techniques and materials that can be used to either fortify the learning gains generated during the session or productively fill up excess time. Fun and engaging, seat work, dialogues, and other activities are ideal for this section).

Unless a specific lesson plan format is required by the learning type of institution, most EL practitioners tailor their lesson plans according to the teaching philosophies or techniques they believe in or are most comfortable with. In general, however, excellent EL lesson plans have common characteristics that a teacher should integrate in his/her own teaching strategies:

1) Ideal lesson plans have a concise summary that fits on a single page. The detailed plan proper may – and often – exceeds this number, but the idea is to allow anyone to have a quick overview of the lesson.

2) Great lesson plans are organized in a way that is easy and a delight to follow.

3) Lesson plans should be strongly aligned with the needs and learning competencies of their intended audience.

4) Each individual lesson plan should adhere to a continuity of lesson concepts and should not only fit in the curriculum but also reflect the overall vision of the subject.

5) EL Lesson plans should establish platforms for learners to apply language learning to real-world situations.

In EL education lesson plans are crucial even in purely conversational classes. In order to establish an environment that encourages high quality learning and draws non-native speakers to articulate themselves extensively, adequate preparation is of paramount importance. Having a haphazardly designed plan is also inexcusable.

The most important for teachers is to define aims and objectives of a lesson. At the beginning of the lesson planning a teacher should answer the following questions: 1) What language and speech material will students learn within this lesson? 2) What do they know and are able or unable to do before the beginning of the lesson and what results they are able to achieve at the end of the lesson?

Answering the first question a teacher formulates the aim of the lesson, whereas the answer to the second question gives a teacher the objectives.

Then a teacher should answer the following questions¹²³:

1. What kind of language-learning opportunities does the lesson provide?

2. How many opportunities are there for learners to practice meaningful use of the language?

3. Who has most of the opportunities for language use during the lesson – the teacher or the students?

4. Do all of the students participate in the lesson, or will some students have more opportunities for participation and practice than others?

The structure of a lesson is determined by how a teacher deals with three essential stages of a lesson: opening, sequencing, and closing¹²⁴.

1. Opening. This phase of the lesson serves primarily to focus the learners' attention on the aims of the lesson, to make links to previous learning, to arouse interest in the lesson, to activate background knowledge, or to preview language or strategies learners may need to understand in order to complete activities at the lesson.

2. Sequencing. A lesson is normally devoted to more than one type of activity, and teachers often have a «script» or preferred sequence that they follow when teaching a particular type of a lesson (speaking, listening, reading or writing lessons). A common lesson sequence found in many traditional language classes consists of a sequence of activities referred to as PPP and other approaches.

In communicative language teaching lessons often begin with *accuracy-based activities* and move toward *fluency-based activities*.

Reading lessons often follow a format consisting of *Pre-reading*, *While-reading*, and *Post-reading* activities.

Listening lessons follow a similar format.

Conversation lessons often begin with controlled practice activities, such as dialogue practice, and move toward open-ended

¹²³ Richards J.C., Bohlke D. Creative effective language Lessons. – CUP, 2011. // www.cambridge.org/ojjer_files5/

¹²⁴ See in detail: Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. - Romania: Polirom, 2003; Richards J.C., Bohlke D. Creative effective language Lessons. -CUP, 2011. // www.cambridge.org/ojjer_files5/

activities, such as role plays. Lessons based on a task-based approach often follow a sequence consisting of *Pre-task activities*, a *task cycle*, the *language focus*, and a *Follow-up task*.

The lesson sequence depends on principles such as «easier before more difficult activities,» «receptive before productive skills,» or «accuracy activities before fluency activities.» Planning a lesson a teacher should handle the transitions between the different sequences of the lesson.

3. Closing. The closing phase of a lesson is also an important part of a lesson sequence. Ideally, it should leave the students with a feeling that they have successfully achieved the goal they set for themselves or that had been established for the lesson, and that the lesson was worthwhile and meaningful. At the end of a lesson, it is usually valuable to summarize what the lesson has tried to achieve, to reinforce the points of the lesson, to suggest a follow-up work as appropriate, and to prepare students for what will follow. It is always important to praise the students for their effort and performance. During the closing stage, students may raise issues or problems that they would like to discuss or resolve; at this time, a teacher may also encourage them to ask him/her for suggestions concerning how they can improve.

Planning for transitions involves thinking about how the momentum of the lesson will be maintained during a transition – for example, while moving from a whole-class activity to a group-work activity; another issue that teachers need to consider is what students should do between transitions – for example, if some students complete an activity before the others.

Teachers generally enjoy their time in the classroom, and teaching from one perspective is a kind of performance. However, according to R. Senior¹²⁵ it is important to remember that «performing» is not the key goal of teaching. Facilitating students' performance is a more important goal. One way of increasing the amount of students' participation during a lesson is to vary the grouping arrangements that a teacher uses; in this way, the teacher

¹²⁵ Senior R. The experience of language teaching. - New York: Cambridge University Press, 2006.

does not always dominate the lesson. The use of pair work and group work is one method that has been shown to ensure that students participate actively at a lesson.

1.5. Independent learning

Nowadays the role of an independent work (learning) at all stages of education is increasing. One of the organizational forms of teaching is independent work (self-study) run out of direct contact with a teacher (homework, laboratory work) or run under control of the teacher and run through teaching material and monitoring by the teacher (distance learning). Independent work is the important part in ELT, because 30 % of teaching and learning time is given to the independent work. The teacher must 1) understand the goal of independent work and the final result of ELT at a certain level; 2) know the procedure of independent work. Independent work can be conducted in the classroom and out-of-classroom in the written and oral form. Independent work can be organized as an individual work, or pair and group work.

It is known that independent work activates students' cognitive activity making learning process more successful and developing self-learning abilities of learners.

J. Rubin investigated what 'good language learners' did to facilitate their learning and identified some of their learning strategies, 'the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge'¹²⁶. The teacher's job is not only to teach EL, but to teach learning, because students need training in learning strategies.

The aim of the teacher is 1) to select the content of ELT, 2) to provide rational organization of students' self-learning, 3) to develop students' self-learning strategies. Each student uses the source of information depending on his/her needs and capabilities, he/she works in own tempo to come to some result. That's why an independent work shapes flexible form of organization and

¹²⁶ Rubin J. What the «good language learner» can teach us // TESOL Quarterly 9. -P. 43.

contributes increasing responsibility of each student for the results of education.

Independent work correlates with learners' autonomy as ability to take charge of one's own learning. Autonomous learners understand the purpose and process of learning and are able to choose from available tools and resources to create a productive learning environment. We should promote learner autonomy for the purpose of transforming dependent and passive learners. For this aim teachers should encourage students to be more self-motivated and continue learning outside the classroom so they can be personally responsible for acquiring English. The teacher promotes autonomous behavior by suggesting curricular and extracurricular activities, focusing first on those that students are already engaged in. For example, the teacher may ask students to try such English activities as writing a letter to pen pals, reading newspapers, magazines; listening to the radio; watching movies, surfing the Internet; talking with foreigners, practicing conversation with friends, studying in groups, attendance of English clubs.

It is necessary for development students' independent learning:

- to become aware of the purpose of activity and all tasks;
- to know the procedure of tasks doing;
- to be able to use different aids for tasks doing;
- to be able to see the visual and verbal supporters in the material of the task to overcome the difficulties;
- to provide the appropriate conditions for task doing.

Teachers can train students to take charge of every stage of their independent learning, which includes:

- setting goals;
- identifying and developing strategies to achieve such goals;
- developing study plans;
- reflecting on learning (which includes identifying problem areas and the means of addressing these problems);
- identifying and selecting relevant resources and support;
- assessing one's own progress (which includes a certain criteria for evaluating performance and learning).

Independent work can be organized as individual work, in pair work, small group and with whole class. These organizational forms

call upon to create and develop a set of organizational, information, cognitive and communicative skills which provide moving to language proficiency and learning strategies integratively.

Questions:

1. What features of EL lesson can you say about?
2. What do we mean by the cycle of lessons?
3. What are requirements claimed to the FL lesson organization?
4. Name the forms of interaction. What forms of interaction are more successful in communicative language learning?
5. Does the lesson plan help you to organize effectively teaching process?
6. How much better will be your lesson if you use visual aids?

Tasks:

1. Work in pair. Analyse the given teaching models (approaches for lesson organization)?
2. Discuss in the small group students' errors, repetition drills, explaining grammar rules and using English in the classroom.
3. Imagine that you are a teacher. Do you give students a chance to practice the correct forms?
4. Think of one good student and one weaker student in the class. What do you do to improve a weak student language performance?
5. Read and think why the given items are essential for teachers and learners from the position of planning¹²⁷.

For a teacher	For learners
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ensures efficient language teaching; - helps avoid inadequate, improvise or useless activities; - gives a picture of how much you 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - encourages them to progress gradually; - avoids boredom or lack of interest;

¹²⁷ The items taken from the book: Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. -Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P 79.

<p>have done and how much remains to be done;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - tells what changes you should make when you teach the lesson again a year later or the same year, to another class of learners; - enriches experience in organization and administration. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - avoids wasting time and effort; - contributes significantly to their systematic knowledge, linguistic ability and their maturity;
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6. Analyze one of the EL textbooks used at school, lyceum and college. and describe the following items: a) the aim of the lesson, b) the main stages of the lesson, c) the system of exercises.

Independent work:

1. Taking into consideration the age group abilities and class/course at school, or lyceum, or college work out a project of the lesson according to the following stages: 1) Introduction. 2) Reading; 3) Presentation; 4) Practice, 5) Production.

2. There are different activities in the table below. Write in the second column classes at school or courses at lyceum or college where we can use each activity thinking about its success and appropriateness to this age group. Choose the given activities for your lesson.

Activities	Classes or courses at school, lyceum and college
1. Learning activity done in class	1.
2. Listening a text	2.
3. Answering questions to a text	3.
4. Reading aloud	4.
5. Silent reading	5.
6. Repetition drill	6.
7. Substitution drills	7.
8. Question/answer practice (whole class)	8.
9. Oral practice in pair	9.

10. Guessing games	10.
11. Copying words/sentences	11.
12. Dictations	12.
13. Paragraph writing	13.
14. Role play	14.
15. Free discussion	15.
16. Correction of each other's work	16.

3. There are three views of the learning process: 1) learning by heart, 2) forming habits by drilling and repetition, 3) acquiring rules naturally through attempts to communicate. Read this information and think about effectiveness of the given instructions in the EL teaching and learning process.

Learning by heart. A traditional approach to learning by heart and a lot of people attempt to learn languages by learning set sentences, dialogues, and texts by heart. Learning by heart is likely to be most useful in learning things which are fixed and limited, and it is often found to be a useful way of mastering certain fixed items in a language, such as numerals or irregular past tense forms. The problem with learning by heart as a strategy for learning the whole of a language is that language is not something which is limited and finite; using a language involves understanding and producing an infinite variety of sentences. Having learned only a dialogue wouldn't be useful for language practice for pragmatic aims. Learning set sentences by heart may enable us to give a few fixed responses, but it is not likely to prepare us for this great variety of language acquisition what we need to understand and use. It seems clear that language is not something that we can «learn» in the same way that we might learn a poem or a set of instructions; it is not a body of knowledge but a set of skills, so 'learning a language' must mean learning to use those skills.

Forming habits. Another view of how language is learnt is to see it as developing a set of 'habits' which we learn by imitation and which gradually become automatic; in this view, language is seen as similar to more mechanical activities such as eating or swimming. Central to this view is the belief that children learn their first

language by imitating their parents and by reinforcement on the part of the parents (the parents «reward» correct sentences by responding positively to them). This view of language learning is associated with the behaviorist school of psychology and is reflected in the audio-lingual approach to LT, which was popular in the 1950s and 1960s. Applied to learning a FL, it emphasizes the importance of repetition and drilling; and as language is thought to be learnt by repeating correct sentences, it is considered important for students to avoid making errors.

Acquiring rules. This view sees language as a system of rules. Learning a language involves being exposed to samples of language that we can understand; from this we can acquire the rules of the language and apply them to make an unlimited number of original sentences. During the process of learning either our L1 or FL, the rules we apply will often be incomplete or slightly different from the actual rules of the language, and this will lead to errors. In this view, therefore, errors are a natural part of the acquisition process, and need not be completely avoided. It is important to clarify what we mean by «acquiring the rules» of a language. It means being able to *apply* the rules (in other words, to understand and use the language correctly); it does not necessarily mean knowing how to explain the rules (in other words, to talk about the language). All native speakers of English «know» the differences between the Present Perfect and Past Tenses, in the sense that they use them correctly, but very few would be able to explain the differences; by contrast, some learners of English can explain the differences between the two tenses (they «know» the rule) but they can not use the tenses correctly. It is, of course, applying the rules that are important in language this is an entirely subconscious process. It may be that in learning a FL too the best way to acquire rules is subconsciously, by reading and listening to language, rather than by consciously «learning grammar». All these are valid views of the ways in which language skills can be developed although the third is the most powerful. Demonstration and habit formation undoubtedly have a role to play if our aim is to develop the skills to communicate in unpredicted circumstances then we have to provide our learners

with the opportunity to acquire the underlying rules of the language themselves.

4. To design a cycle of lessons on the environmental problems (animals) for vocational college a teacher can use the given macro-strategies in the box. This topic is an umbrella to focus students on vocabulary, information and its issues, discussion, learning about oral summaries (genre), using information from the oral summaries to become a participant in a simulated meeting designed to encourage problem-solving and negotiation for conflict resolution. Study the table and create the cycle of lessons. In the cycle of lessons news information about animals and movie fragments from «Free Willy» should be used.

Macro-strategies	Explanation
1. Maximize learning opportunities	At this lesson learning opportunities are maximized by organization of a number of learning tasks, organized from easiest to most difficult across the lesson.
2. Facilitate negotiated interaction.	At this lesson, negotiated interaction occurs in the homework (summary writing) check, group quiz, discussions, summary check, simulation and debriefing.
3. Minimize perceptual mismatches	At this lesson perceptual mismatches are minimized in initial stage through language-focus activities, building shares knowledge, and sharing of unique knowledge. However, for the students activity to minimize perceptual mismatches can be conducted through problem-solving and negotiation techniques, and finally through the debriefing and reflection process.
4. Activate intuitive heuristics	At this lesson students are able to notice the differences in structural and genre choices in the new movie fragment (video), newspaper report, and the written piece which they summarize. Although all are dealing with the same topic they do it in different ways for different purposes.
5. Foster language awareness	At this lesson fostering language awareness is achieved through vocabulary including idiom work, as well as through genre awareness work.

6. Contextualize linguistic input	At this lesson linguistic input is contextualized initially through the topic represented by the video and then through simulation. It is also contextualized macro-linguistically through reference to genre.
7. Integrate language skills.	At this lesson language skills are integrated but also graded from easiest to most challenging. In terms of language outcomes students write definitions in English; use new words and idioms in sentences; record what they have seen; record what they have heard; answer comprehension questions; discuss; read and summarize; present their summaries orally to a group; listen to summaries; use the information gained from the summaries in a meeting format, negotiating until a solution is reached; reflect orally on their meeting experience and write about their reflections of that experience, as well as encountering several genres.
8. Promote learner's autonomy.	This lesson attempts to promote learner's autonomy through language awareness activities; raising critical awareness abilities; exploring critical listening and explanatory abilities and awareness of conflict resolution skills.
9. Raise cultural consciousness.	At this lesson students are exposed to the real-life drama of a movie star they know; they follow the story of the rehabilitation of a captured marine animal and understand the debate which has arisen world-wide about the capture and release of these animals and they are confronted with morality of keeping animals for commercial purposes.

2. Extracurricular activities in English

The questions to be discussed:

- 2.1. Characteristics of extracurricular activities.
- 2.2. The principles of extracurricular activities organization.

2.3. Work strategies in extracurricular activities.

2.4. The content and process of organization of extra-curricular work at school, lyceum and college.

Key words: extracurricular activities, contemporary strategies, active learning, leaders, extracurricular activities.

2.1. Characteristics of extracurricular activities at school, lyceum, college

The issue of the successfulness of the educational process is not an issue that pertains solely to the 21st century. The reforms and directives have contributed towards scholarly pluralism and offered new learning forms, methods and contents, thus contributing to the specific structure of education, and particularly its practical characteristics. An optimal organization of lessons and a selection of successful methods influence the activity of students, while the contemporariness of teaching materials and methods leads to easier, faster, clearer and more rational, economic and productive learning and teaching. It is precisely the skill of successfully preparing and leading, and of utilizing appropriate procedures, methods, forms of interaction, media and technology that distinguish a modern and open institutional education. Such an education leads towards a quality school and a society of knowledge, empowers both the individual and the group and leads to the formation of professional and innovative, humane and socially oriented community members. Through various activities and materials, the use of modern media and teaching strategies that correspond with global cultural and civilization development, the creativity of pupils is also stimulated. For the reasons stated, we can conclude that a quality school merges a contemporary approach to lessons with learning topics adapted to contemporary knowledge and revelations, thus allowing participants in education a holistic development and continuous personal improvement.

The contemporary school has continued with the tendencies and the intentions of reformative orientations in pedagogy that

stimulated the opening of schools to the needs of youth and the expansion of its educational values to the extracurricular, leisure time of young people, as well. Thus, students gather according to various activities: sport, music, science, research etc. This means that the school has offered its students the option to spend their free time in the quality and learning environment of extracurricular activities, with the aim of individual educational development.

The successfulness of a contemporary school is reflected precisely in the manner in which it establishes connections between its students, its teachers and its educational content; this influences the students' progress, enriches their knowledge and develops their skills – therefore, preparing them for life.

We maintain that the right means for the targeted development of learners are none other than extracurricular activities, as they optimally organize the free time that students have after regular classes. Let us also mention that students independently select how to spend their leisure time and which activities to join, actively participating in the work and impelling themselves to innovativeness and creativity. In this manner, they develop their personalities, acquire knowledge and develop their skills while experiencing, perceiving and evaluating mankind's cultural, scientific, technical and sports achievements. They become familiar with the quality and aesthetically valuable attainments of our civilization, which influences their general knowledge. In addition, they acquire the culture of using their leisure time well.

Extracurricular activities are efficient site upon which contemporary educational goals can be realized, and a site upon which teaching strategies that facilitate learning are successfully implemented. Through variously themed activities, students have the opportunity to use strategies of spotting differences and similarities, of summarization and notation, of increasing effort and giving recognition, of practicing, reviewing, cooperative learning, giving feedback, creating and testing hypotheses and of forming questions. Therefore, it is important to raise consciousness on the role and value of extracurricular activities and the possibilities they offer, and to stimulate their organization and implementation. The value of the successful implementation of

the aforementioned is also reflected in the fact that extracurricular activities enrich the life of a school, often giving it a distinctiveness that makes it recognizable within its environment.

2.2. The principles of extracurricular activities organization

Extracurricular activities represent planned educational endeavors that are executed within the framework of the school, outside regular lessons, and which provide an area of interest and, in addition, an all-round affirmation of a student's personality. To the teacher, they provide an expanded educational influence on the school audience.

We can view extracurricular activities from two perspectives: a narrower and a broader one. From a narrower point of view, extracurricular activities are part of the "school package" occurring after regular lessons, while a broader perspective relates to the possibility of opening the school towards the wider community. A narrower understanding of extracurricular activities, one oriented towards the school, can be found in Pedagogical Encyclopedia I (1989, 299), where it is stated that "extracurricular work encompasses the various activities of pupils within the school and organized by the school, but outside the curriculum and the programme of regular lessons". It is evident that the educational work of the school is continued through them, only during the pupils' free time and, which is exceptionally important, with the implementation of special work strategies. On the other hand, thanks to the enthusiasm of education workers – the bearers of these activities – and an interested group of students, the school opens its doors to everything that surrounds it: other schools, students, teachers, professionals and professional associations.

Considering the equal importance of both education and upbringing in the shaping of a contemporary individual, let us also mention that educational work in extracurricular activities, in addition, offers the opportunity of continuously applying child rearing principles in work. Although activity leaders have to invest maximum effort, knowledge, patience and will for a change to occur in the pupil, a lot also depends on the pupil

himself. The success of educational work is the fruit of a mutual, cooperative relationship. In this sense, the efficacy of education and rearing is manifested in the use of the principles of uniqueness in work, in a respect for differences between students, the recognition and satisfaction of basic needs and the use of varied work methods and tools, while activating pupils through work and a cooperation that aims towards the self-rearing of the child. All of these principles are equally important and useful. There is no hierarchical relationship between them. Differences may occur only in relation to the situation at hand. It is wrong to think that a principle can perform the job of educating all by itself, without concrete activities planned by the teachers and students.

Let us stress that a teacher's enthusiasm is not sufficient for good educational work and management of extracurricular activities, as teachers also need to be qualified for this work – professional knowledge and methodical preparation are necessary. The students' creative productivity largely depends on the teacher's professional competences, actions, work methods and his relationship with his students. The teacher's knowledge, abilities and experience are brought forward in his work on informing, orienting, planning, organizing and conducting extracurricular activities with students. The pedagogical role of a teacher involved in extracurricular activities is manifested in assisting, inciting, coordinating, counseling, teaching and directing learners towards a correct, cultured and rational usage of leisure time.

In everyday life and, in particular, in the area of education, the importance of giving significance to lifelong learning and development is incessantly stressed. Professional development is based on the constructivist learning theory model. It is a continuous, long-term process tuned to the needs of everyday lessons and learning. This process presupposes continuous support from the system and the self-evaluation of teachers who explore their own practice and deliberate upon it.

A professional teacher, an interested group of students, a classroom equipped with adequate means and aids, investing effort into an activity, and also the support and understanding of

the school and the environment are all prerequisites for the quality implementation of extracurricular activities and the enrichment of students' experiences.

2.3. Work strategies in extracurricular activities

The programme of every activity ought to respect not only the needs of the pupils, but also the needs of the school and the community. The affinities of pupils and teachers, planned activities, the manner in which activities are conducted, the needs and the culture of the social environment – these are but few of the factors with which the teacher ought to be acquainted with when organizing extracurricular activities. Planning extracurricular work demands an excellent knowledge of the social, psychological, pedagogical, didactical and professional dimensions of teaching.

In planning his work in extracurricular activities, the teacher is led by the goal and the purpose of every single activity. In this manner, he allows pupils to acquire new knowledge and skills and promotes a general culture of communication, raising awareness on the need for better interaction and socialization.

There are several basic prerequisites necessary for the quality management of extracurricular programme. These relate to a free selection of activities, the professionalism of their leaders and the use of contemporary forms, methods, programme and organization. Therefore, the students ought to have the option of freely selecting from a diverse array of quality extracurricular activities at the beginning of the school year. Furthermore, leaders of extracurricular activities should possess professional knowledge and an affinity towards the area they are leading, while also systematically pursuing the latter. The material, technical and other conditions necessary for the satisfactory conduction of extracurricular programme also ought to be ensured; it is necessary to use diverse forms, methods and procedures. The creative capabilities of each student should be stimulated and developed with a quality programme, one with many diverse approaches to the implementation and execution of the same.

In discussing the issue of extracurricular activities, what does the term of contemporary strategy specifically presuppose? Here we are not implying only the preparation and organization of the same activities, but also the contemporariness (quality) of the programme, content, forms and work methods that are being executed.

The manners and methods of execution ought to take the form of a workshop, project, group research or independent research; as such a method of work contributes to the contemporariness of education. Work should be free, open, unhampered, dynamic and varied. The students' interests and their wishes, affinities and talents ought to represent an important starting point.

Such a process of "active learning" presupposes various activities of pupils who learn together with those who teach them. It can be viewed from two angles: that of the student and that of the teacher, while its key feature is its shifting of focus to the students as an active, participatory constructor of his own knowledge. The achievement of higher levels of understanding and motivation through such active learning satisfies the demands of constructivism, whose teachings are based on: the importance of previous knowledge, immediate experiences in reality, and the holistic nature of experience, the reflexivity of learning and teaching, students' creativity, inner motivation, the role of the teacher, the method of holistic teaching. Considering that the student is involved immediately and focused on carefully selected activities, he is in the position to deliberate on what he is doing. In this manner, he constructs a system of logically connected knowledge that he will be able to utilize in various situations in life. By using creative teaching as a starting point, utilizing strategies and methods that stimulate the development of active learning and critical thinking and by introducing cooperative and experiential learning models specific interests are developed, while the students' understanding and application of acquired knowledge is also improved. In order to achieve this, it is essential to include elements of positive co-dependence, individual and group responsibility, the stimulation face to face interaction, social skills as well as group processing in cooperative activities.

Let us also mention the following. By using contemporary work strategies in extracurricular activities, the work of gifted students can be discovered, stimulated and monitored, and it is also easier and faster to discover and guide such students in these circumstances; contemporary work strategies are an opportunity for a better social integration, the foundation for spending leisure time in a quality manner, they enable a permanent education of its participants and act as prevention against negative influences from the environment.

Extracurricular activities should realize goals and tasks that cannot be realized within regular lessons. One should aim towards offering activities that are in tune with current events, and thus contribute to the broadening of the pupils' horizons. In this manner, a possibility is opened for extracurricular activities to become a valuable and important area for nurturing and fostering a learner's positive qualities, and for stimulating and developing individual abilities and the corresponding skills.

With the introduction of extracurricular activities into schools, new opportunities for the additional involvement of young people are opened, as is the opportunity for their versatile development and education. Contemporary strategies organize students' activities in a freer fashion, according to their interests and affinities, in order for them to expand and deepen the knowledge they have acquired by connecting theory and practice, and to deepen their need for cultural events in their leisure time. The students' enthusiasm for further work, activity and effort stems from the fact that the activity was voluntarily chosen, is flexible in its tasks, has an open approach and is held in a comfortable environment. In respect of the aforementioned, students are motivated for work and for studying a certain topic or area which, therefore, immediately affects their development.

It is important to stress that teachers (and students) have the option of suggesting topics and activities according to their area of interest, which we consider a great organizational advantage. In accordance with this, and depending on the area of interest, work conditions, the needs of the school and the wider community, new activities, contemporary forms,

methods and strategies of work are brought into the programmes of extracurricular activities as new means of achieving planned goals and tasks.

In order to make the aforementioned feasible, not only is the teacher necessary as an initiator and a companion, but also the student, who acquires an important role in decision making. The selection of topics and activities should be based precisely on the students' inclinations, interests, abilities, capabilities and affinities, on the stimulation of creativity and on the applicability of the activities in practical, everyday life.

Due to all of the stated reasons, we can conclude that extracurricular activities ought to be viewed as a mode of active learning, and that effort should be made so that, using previous good experiences of implementing and executing extracurricular activities as a foundation, they may reach a higher level and attain a contemporary developmental direction with the use of new proposals and stimulating measures.

2.4. The content and process of organization of extra-curricular work at school, lyceum and college

Extracurricular activities are subdivided into 3 major groups plus two combined forms:

1. Academic and common interests circles. These are a very important part of student's life. Teachers believe these circles develop personalities of students and broaden their scope of vision. The requirements for the circles' meetings are clearly defined. The topics are useful for everyday life of students, complement the material studied in class at particular moment and are chosen in regards with students' queries and their age group. The aim of circles is to broaden the topics previously covered in class and study them in depth. The types of circles included: extracurricular home reading, translation and interpretation, Communication, Drama, Choir, Hometown studies, and Game circles.

2. Mass events

Examples of these extracurricular activities are song or poetry recital contests in the EL; theme parties or evenings, theatre performances in the EL or performances of companies staging dramas in foreign languages, holding conferences in foreign languages, having debates and meetings in English.

3. Individual work

This type of extracurricular activities can include: preparing for conference presentations, preparing for reports in class, and writing articles for school newspapers or magazines.

4. Another type of extracurricular activities is correspondence with students from other countries – it can be classified as both individual work (when a student has a pen-friend) and mass work when students keep correspondence between their circle and a group of students in another country with similar interests.

5. Language clubs – yet another form of extracurricular activities in schools - basically combined various above listed language-oriented extracurricular organized in all educational stages.

Nowadays most schools, lyceums and colleges have changed their attitudes to extracurricular activities, and started encouraging their faculty and students to organize different kinds of extracurricular activities. The teaching materials and methods are being modernized and updated according to the present day academic needs and technical opportunities.

Questions:

1. What is the extracurricular work?
2. What is the role of extracurricular work in ELT?
3. How does extracurricular work stimulate students' desire to learn English?
4. Give the examples of interrelations of the extracurricular and EL classwork.
5. Do you agree with that extracurricular work permits the teacher to get to know his students more intimately thereby creating

more favorable conditions for classwork? Support your answer with some examples.

Tasks:

1. Extend the information about extracurricular work and make the cluster with the word "extracurricular work".

2. Extracurricular activities provide excellent grounds for the development of students from all sides. Give some examples to prove it.

3. You are organizing a role play within extracurricular work. You want students to act out a conversation based on the situation. How would you explain the situation:

- using English only
- using English and your own language.

Independent work:

1. If you had to conduct extracurricular work, how would you begin? Design a plan of extracurricular work for students of school, lyceum and college.

2. At the beginning level students the drama circle can be conducted. Create a program for organizing drama circle for the young learners. Think what drama can you suggest to pupils.

TESTS

Test yourself.

Theoretical issues of FLT

1. According to the State educational standard the communicative competence includes
 - A. linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, strategic, socio-cultural, and social competences
 - B. linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences
 - C. linguistic, speech and sociolinguistic competences
 - D. language and communicative competences

2. Communicative skill means
 - A. the ability to use a language in communication, in particular, in speaking, listening, reading and writing
 - B. language experience to produce speech
 - C. the ability to understand the received speech
 - D. language knowledge

3. The goals of FLT are ...
 - A. practical, educational, cultural
 - B. educational, cultural, developmental
 - C. practical, educational, cultural, developmental
 - D. cultural, educational, professional

4. Components of the content of FLT are
 - A. speech topics, language skills and language material
 - B. topics, language material, cultural material
 - C. texts, language material, situations
 - D. language, speech competence

5. The language material includes
 - A. texts, situations, tasks
 - B. language units and exercises
 - C. words and structures
 - D. vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation items

6. The objects of teaching students are
- F. language subskills and skills
 - B. language and speech materials
 - C. language, speech, speech activity and culture
 - D. listening, speaking, reading and writing
7. Communicative language teaching is considered as
- A. technique
 - B. approach
 - C. activity
 - D. environment
8. Linguocultural approach presupposes working on
- A. value and mentality
 - B. words and structures
 - C. language and discourse units
 - D. cultural-marked units
9. By the interference in methodology is understood...
- A. negative impact of the mother tongue experience when we produce speech in the foreign language
 - B. language errors
 - C. mixed language units
 - D. occupation and impact
10. Language proficiency can be manifested on the following levels
- A. language subskills and skills
 - B. surface and deeper
 - C. beginning and intermediate
 - D. intermediate and advanced
11. Language learning principles are generally sorted into three sub-groupings:
- A. cognitive, affective and linguistic
 - B. teaching, learning and mastering
 - C. didactic, psychological and cultural
 - D. general, particular and special

12. By the system of exercises we understand ...
- A. methods and techniques
 - B. organization of teaching actions in algorithm (logical consecutive) in accordance with increasing of language and operational difficulties.
 - C. topics and situations
 - D. different kinds of tasks
13. According to V.A. Buhbinder, exercises are classified on
- A. language and speech exercises
 - B. prepared and unprepared exercises
 - C. information, operational and motivational exercises
 - D. authentic and non-authentic exercises
14. The examples of communicative exercises are
- A. Filling in the gap
 - B. Writing a complain letter
 - C. Matching
 - D. Paraphrasing
15. In the methodology of FLT a teaching text is considered as
- A. exercise
 - B. method
 - C. sample
 - D. aid
16. What is the goal of the preparatory exercise in teaching listening?
- A. to prevent the language and psychological difficulties
 - B. to practice listening comprehension
 - C. to fixate language knowledge
 - D. to be familiar with the content of the received text

Teaching English language material

1. Language material is divided into
 - A. active and passive minimuma
 - B. potential and active
 - C. productive and reciprocal
 - D. input and output

2. What does the active minimum mean?
 - A. language phenomena used in productive and receptive speech
 - B. language phenomena used in writing and speaking
 - C. language phenomena used in listening and reading
 - D. language phenomena used by student in the classroom

3. What does the passive vocabulary minimum mean?
 - A. vocabulary used in reading and writing
 - B. vocabulary used in receptive speech
 - C. potential vocabulary
 - D. vocabulary used in texts

4. How do we teach pronunciation to students in the English classroom?
 - A. Approximated pronunciation
 - B. authentic pronunciation
 - C. we don't pay attention to pronunciation
 - D. correct pronunciation

5. What methods are used for teaching pronunciation?
 - A. Imitative and analytical methods
 - B. Explanatory methods
 - C. Deductive and inductive methods
 - D. Direct and translation methods

6. Exclude a technique which is not suitable to teaching pronunciation.
 - A. drilling
 - B. taping

- C. paraphrasing
- D. homophones exercises

7. What methods are used for lexical units' semantization

- A. Imitative and analytical methods
- B. Reproduction and production methods
- C. Deductive and inductive methods
- D. Direct and translation methods

8. What methods are used for presentation of a grammar phenomena?

- A. Imitative and analytical methods
- B. Explanatory methods
- C. Deductive and inductive methods
- D. Direct and translation methods

9. When we present a new language unit we should focus on

- A. meaning and function
- B. form, meaning and function
- C. structure and meaning
- D. spelling and meaning

10. What difficulties do students usually face in learning language units?

- A. formal, semantic
- B. functional, formal, semantic
- C. functional and formal
- D. structural and semantic

11. Exclude a principle which is not suitable for selection of the active vocabulary

- A. semantic
- B. frequency and range
- C. word-building value
- D. including synonyms

12. Exclude a principle which is not suitable for selection of the passive vocabulary

- A. derivability
- B. excluding synonyms
- C. polysemantic character
- D. semantic and word-building value

Teaching communicative skills in English

1. We have three types of memory:

- A. sensory, short-term and long-term memory
- B. auditory, short-term and long-term memory
- C. acoustic short-term and long-term memory
- D. photographic, sensory, visual

2. Choose a micro-skill which is not necessary for reading and listening

- A. recognition of language units
- B. construction of the logical constituents
- C. identification of the language meanings in the context
- D. comprehension of the main points of the information

3. Exclude a sub-skill which is not appropriate for reading and listening

- A. Identifying the topic
- B. Predicting and guessing
- C. General, specific, detailed understanding of information
- D. Rewriting the text

4. Study the list of different strategies and exclude which is not appropriate for teaching to speak.

- A. select appropriate words and sentences according to the proper social setting, audience, situation and subject matter
- B. use language as a means of expressing values and judgments
- C. skim the text to find the main idea
- D. use the language quickly and confidently with few unnatural pauses, which is called as fluency

5. Accuracy activities focus on
 - A. reproduction or production of correct language.
 - B. controlling speed of the speech
 - C. developing reflective skills
 - D. making up situations

6. Fluency activities focus on
 - A. accurate using of language units in the sentences
 - B. language accuracy improving
 - C. developing language subskills
 - D. allowing the student to experiment and be creative with the language.

7. Speaking involves three areas of knowledge. Exclude unnecessary area.
 - A. mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary)
 - B. functions (transaction and interaction)
 - C. global information from different spheres of activity
 - D. social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants).

8. Exclude unnecessary speaking strategy:
 - A. using minimal responses
 - B. recognizing scripts
 - C. pragmatics/social skills activities
 - D. reading literature

9. Vocabulary work, prediction tasks, brainstorming can be used in
 - A. While-listening phase
 - B. Pre-listening phase
 - C. Post-listening phase
 - D. Preliminary phase

10. Choose appropriate word for filling in the gap

According to the model, listeners build understanding by starting with the smallest units of the acoustic message: individual sounds, or phonemes. These are then combined into words, which in

turn, together make up phrases, clauses, and sentences. Finally, individual sentences combine to create ideas and concepts and relationship between them.

- A. top-down
- B. bottom-up
- C. data processing
- D. result-oriented

11. Teaching speaking under the top-down approach presupposes

- A. dialogue begins with phrases which tempt to speak, to ask and to inform.
- B. the sample is given to listening as a collection of dialogue identity then it is learned by heart afterwards there will be lexical changes, and it is worked on part to part and then it will be performed.
- C. from rule to example
- D. from example to rule

12. What are the psychological and physiological mechanisms of speaking?

- A. Perception, comprehension and response
- B. Reproduction, selection, connecting, composing, anticipation, discursivity
- C. Inner and outer
- D. Natural and artificial

13. Writing refers to several subskills and skills. Choose which is not suitable.

- A. mechanics of writing
- B. making sentences and linking them in paragraphs
- C. producing a piece of writing
- D. data-processing

Assessment

1. What are the objects of assessment in the English classrooms?
 - A. language subskills and skills
 - B. knowing rules
 - C. reading and writing
 - D. speaking and listening

2. Exclude an instruction which is not successful for monitoring comprehension during and after reading
 - A. Verify predictions and check for inaccurate guesses
 - B. Decide what is and is not important to understand
 - C. Ask questions about text content
 - D. Ask to translate the text

3. How can we test phonetic segments and word stress?
 - A. with the help of writing activity
 - B. with the help of speaking activity
 - C. with the help of dictation exercises, listening activities designed to test the learners' ability to discriminate phonemes or group of phonemes.
 - D. with the help of recognizing mechanism

4. Assessment of listening comprehension may involve macro- and micro-skills.

Macro-skills: listening for specific information (details, facts); listening for understanding the gist (the main idea of the text); following directions; following instructions;

Micro-skills:

 - A. interpretation of intonation patterns and recognition of functions
 - B. interpretation of information and response
 - C. recognition of words and structures
 - D. understanding implicit information

5. Exclude one evaluation criterion for speaking activity which is not suitable
 - A. interaction

- B. response
- C. structure
- D. logical expressing ideas

6. A piece of writing can be evaluated via the given criteria. Choose inappropriate criterion.

- A. task achievement
- B. organization
- C. range
- D. producing appropriate vocabulary

Planning

1. How many stages does the English lesson consist of?

- A. 5
- B. 3
- C. 6
- D. 7

2. Choose requirement to a lesson which is not suitable

- A. Goal-oriented
- B. Content-valuable
- C. Process-oriented
- D. Motivation-provided

3. What type of the lesson is more used in the English classroom at school?

- A. language subskills development lessons
- B. language skills development lessons
- C. mixed type of the lesson
- D. grammar-oriented lesson

4. Choose the teaching model which is not suitable

- A. PPP
- B. ESA
- C. TTT
- D. Writing-based

5. The aim of EL lesson planning is
- A. to define the content of the lesson and algorithm of operations and actions of the teacher and learners
 - B. to select the texts and language items
 - C. to define and evaluate teaching means
 - D. to achieve successful result
6. Lesson planning is based on some principles. Choose unnecessary principle.
- A. variety
 - B. flexibility
 - C. examining the subject matter from the learners' point of view
 - D. visualization means
7. The sequence of the conversation lesson can
- A. begin with reading activities and move to writing activities
 - B. begin with controlled practice activities, such as dialogue practice, and move toward open-ended activities, such as role plays.
 - C. begin with listening activities and move to writing activities
 - D. begin with process-oriented activities and move result-oriented activities
8. The right sequence of task-based teaching model is
- A. Pre-task activities, a task cycle, the language focus, and a Follow-up task.
 - B. While-task activities and homework task
 - C. Input and Follow-up activities
 - D. Spark and Follow-up activities

Keys for tests

Theoretical issues of FLT	1 - B	7 - B	13 - C
	2 - A	8 - D	14 - B
	3 - C	9 - A	15 - A
	4 - A	10 - B	16 - A
	5 - D	11 - A	
	6 - C	12 - B	
Teaching English language material	1 - A	5 - A	9 - B
	2 - B	6 - C	10 - B
	3 - B	7 - D	11 - D
	4 - A	8 - C	12 - B
Teaching communicative skills in English	1 - A	5 - A	9 - B
	2 - B	6 - D	10 - B
	3 - D	7 - C	11 - B
	4 - C	8 - D	12 - B
			13 - D
Assessment	1 - A	3 - C	5 - C
	2 - D	4 - A	6 - D
Planning	1 - B	4 - D	7 - B
	2 - C	5 - A	8 - A
	3 - C	6 - D	

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GLOSSARY
(compiled by G.Tojjeva, U.Jumanazarov)

A	отличная, высшая оценка (UK, US) (возможные категории A, A-, A=)	a'lo, yuqori baho (UK, US) (toifalari A, A-, A=)
abbreviation	сокращение	qisqartma
ability	способность	qobiliyat
ABC	алфавит	alfavit
abridged	сокращенный, краткое	qisqartirilgan, qisqa
absorb	поглощать, впитывать (знания)	(bilimni) egallamoq, yutmoq
abstract	резюме; отрывок из книги; отвлеченное понятие	rezyume, mavhum
abstraction	абстракция	mavhumot, xayoliy, mavhum narsa
academic	учебный; академический	akademik; ta'limga oid
academic adviser	научный консультант	ilmiy maslahatchi
acceleration	акселерация, скорость обучения или развития	akseleratsiya, o'qish yoki rivojlanish tezligi
accent	акцент	aksent; talaffuzga oid
accomplish	выполнять, достигать совершенства	bajarmoq, mukammalikka erishmoq
accordance	соответствие	moslik
acculturation	аккультурация	akkulturatsiya
accuracy	правильность	to'g'rilik, aniqlik
achievement	успеваемость, обученность	o'zlashtirish, yutuq
acknowledge	подтверждать, признавать	tasdiqlamoq, tan olmoq
acoustic	акустик, звуковой	akustik, ovozli
acquire	приобретать	egallamoq

acquaintance	знакомство	tanishuv
acquisition	владение	egallash
act	акт	akt, ijro
action	действие, движение	harakat, faoliyat
activate	активировать	faollashtirmoq
active	активный	aktiv, faol
activization	активизация	faollashtirish
actualization	актуализация	aktualizatsiya
adapt	адаптировать	moslashtirmoq
adaptation	адаптация	moslash(tir)ish
adaptive program(me)	адаптивная (гибкая) программа	moslashuvchan dastur
administrate	управлять	boshqarmoq
admission	вступительный	kirish
advance	упреждение, вероятностное прогнозирование	oldindan chorasini ko'rish
advanced	продвинутый	ilg'or
advancement	продвижение	ilgarilash
affixation	аффиксация	affiksatsiya
aim	цель	maqsad, tasavvuridagi natija
A-level	повышенный уровень (UK)	yuqori daraja (UK)
algorithm	алгоритм	algoritm
algorithmization	алгоритмизация	algoritmizatsiya, algoritmlash
alphabet	алфавит	alfavit
alternative	альтернативный	alternativ
altruism	альтруизм	altruizm
analogy	аналогия	moslik, monandlik, munosiblik
analysis	анализ	analiz, tahlil
analytic	аналитический	analitik, tahliliy
analytic-synthetic	аналитико- синтетический	analitik-sintetik

analyze	анализировать	tahlil qilmoq
analyzed	анализированный	tahliliy
analyzer	анализатор	analizator
annotation	аннотация	annotatsiya, asar haqida qisqacha ma'lumot
announce	объявлять	bildirmoq, e'lon qilmoq
answer	ответ	javob
anticipation	антиципация	antisipatsiya, harakat natijasini, predmetni, hodisani oldindan sezish qobiliyati
antonym	антоним	antonim
anxiety	беспокойство	bezovtalik
apperception	апперцепция	appersepsiya, idrokning avvalgi tajribaga, psixik faoliyatga, individual xususiyatga bog'liqligi
applicant	заявитель, кандидат	ariza beruvchi
application	заявление	ariza
applied linguistics	прикладная лингвистика	amaliy tilshunoslik
apprentice	ученик, подмастерье	o'quvchi, shogird
approach	подход	yondashuv, til o'rgatish yondashuvlari
appropriacy	соответствие	moslik
approximation	аппроксимация	approksimatsiya, taqribiy
aptitude	пригодность к деятельности	faoliyatga iqtidor, qobiliyat
articulating	артикуляционный	artikulatsiyga oid
articulation	артикуляция	artikulatsiya
artificial	искусственный	sun'iy
arts	гуманитарные науки; классические науки	gumanitar fanlar
ask	спрашивать	so'ramoq
assessment	оценка	baholash

assign	поручать, давать задание	topshiriq/vazifa bermoq
assignment	задание	vazifa, topshiriq
assimilate	ассимилировать, усваивать	o'zlashtirmoq, egallamoq
association	ассоциация	assotsiatsiya
associative	ассоциативный	assotsiativ
assumption	предположение	tahmin
attainment	успеваемость, обученность	o'zlashtirishlik, ma'lumotlilik
attendance	посещение	davomat
attention	внимание	diqqat
attention span	объем/время внимания	diqqat hajmi/muddati
attitude	отношение	munosabat
auding	аудирование	tinglab tushunish
audio	аудио	audio
audio-aids	аудиоматериалы	audiomateriallar
audio-exercise	аудиоупражнение	audiomashq
audio information	аудиоинформация	audioaxborot
audio-lingual	аудиолингвальный	audiolingval
audiolingualism	аудиолингвализм	audiolingvalizm
audio-materials	аудиоматериалы	audiomateriallar
audio-news	аудионовости	audioxabar
audio-text	аудиотекст	audiomatn, audiotekst
audio-visual	аудиовизуал	audiovizual
audition	слух; слушание, аудирование	eshitish; tinglash
auditive	аудитив	auditiv, tinglashga mo'ljallangan
auditor	аудитор, слушатель	auditor, tinglovchi
auditorium	аудитория	auditoriya
auditory pronunciation	слухопроизносительный	eshitib talaffuz qilishga oid
aural	слуховой	eshitishga oid
authentic	аутентичный	asl, autentik
author	автор	muallif

automaticity	автоматизм	avtomatizm
automatism	автоматизм	avtomatizm
automatization	автоматизация	avtomatlashuv
autonomous	самостоятельное	mustaqil
autosuggestion	самовнушение	ixlos qilish, ko'ngilga tugish
aware: to be ~	знать, быть осведомленным	bilmoq, bohobar bo'lmoq
B	хорошая или удовлетворительная оценка (UK, US) (возможные категории B++, B+, B-, B=)	yaxshi yoki qoniqarli baho (UK, US) (toifalari B++, B+, B-, B=)
baccalaureate	бакалавриат	bakalavriat
bachelor	бакалавр	bakalavr
barrier	барьер	tafovut, to'siq
base	база	baza, asos
basic	базовый	asosiy
basic course	основной учебный курс или предмет	asosiy o'quv kursi yoki fani
be based	основываться	tayanmoq
behaviorism	бихевиоризм	bixeviorizm
biculturalism	бикультурность	ikkimadaniyatlik
bilingual	билингв, двуязычный	zulli'nayn, bilingv, ikki tilli, qo'shza'bon, ikki tilni biluvchi
book	книга	kitob
bottom-up (approach)	(подход) снизу вверх	pastdan tepaga yondashuvi
brainstorming	мозговая атака	aqliy hujum
branched (program)	разветвленная (программа)	tarmoqli (dastur)
broadcast	радиопередача	radio eshittirish
C	удовлетворительная, или менее чем удовлетворительная	qoniqarli, yoki qoniqarsizroq baho (UK, US) (toifalari: C++, C+,

	оценка (UK, US). (возможные категории: C ++, C+, C, C-, C=)	C-, C=)
calendar	календарь	kalendar
calligraphy	чистописание, каллиграфия	husnixat, kalligrafiya
card	карточка	qalin qog'ozdan kesilgan varaqcha
case	событие	hodisa
case-study	кейс-стади, методика ситуативного обучения	keys-stadi, vaziyatli o'qitish metodikasi
case-technology	кейс-технология	keys-texnologiya, vaziyatli o'qitish texnologiyasi
chat	болтать, разговаривать	chaqchaqlashmoq, suhbatlashmoq
CEFR (Common European Framework Reference): learning, teaching, assessment	Общеввропейские компетенции владения иностраным языком: изучение, преподавание, оценка	umumyevrope tilni egallash kompetensiyasi: o'rganish, o'qitish, baholash
centric	центрированный	markazlashgan
certificate	сертификат	sertifikat
certification	сертификационный	sertifikatlashtiruvchi
chant	петь	qo'shiq aytmoq
chorus	хор	jo'r bo'lish
circumlocution	многоречивость	ko'p gapirish, ezmalik
citation	цитата	iqtibos
classes	занятие, урок	mashg'ulot
classification	классификация	tasnif, guruhlash, turlarga ajratish, tipologiya
class work	классная работа	sinf ishi
cliché	клише	klishe
climate	климат	muhit

cloze-test	клоуз-тест, тест для определения трудностей текста при чтении и понимании его содержания	klouz-test, matnni o'qish va mazmunini tushunish qiyinligini aniqlashga qaratilgan test
clues	ключевой	kalit, kalit so'zlar yoki stimullar
cluster	кластерный	klasterga oid
coach	репетитор	repetitor
coaching	коучинг	imtihonga tayyorlash
code	код	kod, shartli belgi
cognate	однокоренной	yaqin, bir-biriga bog'langan
cognitive	когнитивный, познавательный	bilishga oid, bildiradigan
cognitivism	когнитивизм	kognitivizm
cognizant	когнизант	kognizant, bilimdon, oqil, omilkor
coherence	слаженность	butunlik, o'zaro bog'liqlik
collaborate	сотрудничать	hamkorlik qilmoq
collocation	словосочетание	so'z birikmasi
colloquial	разговорный	so'zlashuvga oid
communicant	собеседник	suhbatdosh, o'zaro so'zlashuvchi ikki va undan ortiq kishi, kommunikant, nutq faoliyati yurituvchi
communication	коммуникация	kommunikatsiya, nutqiy aloqa, fikr almashuv, muloqot
communicative	коммуникативный	kommunikativ, muloqotchan
comparative	компаративный, сравнительный	komparativ, qiyosiy
compare	сравнивать,	qiyoslamoq,

	сопоставлять	taqqoslamoc, chog'ishtirmoc, solishtirmoc
competence	компетенция	kompetensiya
competition	олимпиада, конкурс	olimpiada, musobaqa, konkurs, ko'rik, tanlov
compile	составлять (учебник, пособие)	(darslik, qo'llanma) tuzmoc
complete	полный, совершенный	mukammal, to'liq
completion	упражнение на дополнение	qo'shimcha uchun mashq
complex	комплекс	kompleks, majmua
component	компонент	komponent, tarkib, qism, tarkibiy qism
compose	составлять, составить	tuzmoc
comprehend	понимать; охватывать содержание	tushunmoc; mazmuni anglamoc
compression	компрессия	kompressiya, zichlashtirish, ixchamlashtirish, minimizatsiya
compulsory	обязательный	majburiy
computer	компьютер	kompyuter, elektr hisoblash mashinasi
computer-assisted	с помощью компьютера	kompyuter yordamida
concentre	концентрироваться	diqqat, e'tiborni bir joyga qaratmoc
concentric	концентрический	konsentrik
concentrism	концентризм	konsentrizm
concept	концепт	konsept
conception	концепция	konsepsiya, ilmiy g'oya(lar)
concise	сжатый, краткий	qisqa, qisqartirilgan, siqilgan
condition	условие	sharoit, holat, vaziyat

confidence	уверенность	ishonch
connotation	коннотация	so'zning majoziy ma'nosi
conscious	сознательный	ongli
conscious-comparative: ~ method	сознательно-сопоставительный метод	ongli-qiyosiy metod
consciousness	сознание, сознательность	ong, onglilik
conscious-practical: ~ method	сознательно-практический метод	ongli-amaliy metod
constant	постоянный	doimiy
consultation	консультация	konsultatsiya, o'quvchilarga ko'rsatiladigan yordam
contact	контакт	kontakt, o'zaro aloqada bo'lmoq
contemporary	современный	zamonaviy
content	содержание	mazmun, tarkib
content of teaching grammar (CTG)	содержание обучения грамматики (СОГ)	grammatikani o'rgatish mazmuni (GO'M)
content of teaching pronunciation (CTP)	содержание обучения произношения (СОП)	talaffuzni o'rgatish mazmuni (TO'M)
content of teaching vocabulary (CNV)	содержание обучение лексике (СОЛ)	leksikani o'rgatish mazmuni (LO'M)
contest	конкурс, олимпиада	olimpiada, musobaqa, konkurs. ko'rik
context	контекст	kontekst, so'z, so'z birikmasi, ibora ma'nosini ochib beradigan yozma yoki

		og'zaki nutq parchasi
contextual	контекстуальный	kontekstual, kontekst bilan bog'liq
contrastive	контрастивный	kontrastiv
control	контроль	nazorat, tekshiruv, kontrol
control panel	пульт	pult
conversation	разговор	suhbat, so'zlashish, musohada, guring
correction	исправление (ошибки); поправка	(xato) to'g'rilash; tuzatish
corrective: ~ course	коррективный курс	korrektiv kurs
correlation	корреляция	korrelyatsiya, chet til ta'limi mazmunining mavjud sharoit hamda qo'yilgan maqsadga ko'ra zarur, yetarli darajada tanlanishi hamda o'rgatilishi
counselling learning	метод общины	jamoaviy til o'rganish metodi
country study	страноведение	mamlakatshunoslik
course	курс	kurs
cramming	зубрёжка	(tushunmasdan) yod olish
creative	творческий, созидательный	ijodiy, ijodkor
creativity	креативность, творчество	ijod, ijodkorlik
criterion (pl. -ia)	критерий	mezon, o'lchov, prinsip
critical	критический	tanqidiy
C-test	разновидность клоуз-теста	klouz-test turlaridan biri
cues	опоры, опоры-стимулы	tayanch turtki
culture	культура	madaniyat

culture shock	культурный шок	madaniy zarba
culturology	культурология	madaniyatshunoslik
cumulative	кумулятивный	kumulativ
cybernetics	кибернетика	kibernetika, axborotni olish, saqlash, yetkazish hamda qayta ishlash haqidagi fan
cyclicality	цикличность	sikllilik, davrlilik
D	неудовлетворительная оценка (UK, US) (близкая к категориям C-, C=)	C-, C= (UK, US) toifalariga yaqin qoniqarsiz baho
data (<i>sing.</i> - datum)	данные, факты	ma'lumotlar, dalillar
data driven learning (DDL)	обучение с помощью базы данных	ma'lumotlar asosida o'qitish
deaf-and-dumb pedagogy	сурдопедагогика	surdopedagogika
deautomatization	деавтоматизация	deavtomatizatsiya
decode	декодировать	topib o'qimoq
deduction	дедукция	deduktsiya
deductive	дедуктивный	deduktiv
deficit	недочёты	kamchiliklar
definition	определение	ta'rif, definitsiya
demonstration	демонстрация	namoyish, demonstratsiya, ko'rsatish
descriptive (grammar)	описательная грамматика	tasviriy grammatika
develop	развивать	rivojlan(tir)moq
developing	развивающий	rivojlantiruvchi
diagnostic test	диагностический тест	diagnostik test, dastlabki sinov
dialogic	диалогический	dialogik
dialogue	диалог	juftnutq, dialog, suhbat
didactic	дидактический	didaktik

didactics	дидактика, теория образования	ta'limshunoslik, didaktika, ta'lim nazariyasi
differenciate	дифференцировать	farqlamoq, tabaqalamoq
differentiation	дифференциация	tabaqalash, differentsiatsiya
difficult	трудный	qiyin, mushkul, murakkab
difficulty	трудность	qiyinchilik, lisoniy tafovut hosilasi
dictate	диктовать	tinglovchi yozib olishi uchun ovoz chiqarib aytmoq
dictation	диктант	diktant
direct: ~ method	прямой метод	to'g'ri metod
direction	направление, указание, установка	ko'rsatma, yo'riq
diploma	диплом	diplom
discipline	поведение учащихся	o'quvchi hulqi
discourse	дискурс	diskurs, nutqiy vaziyatdagi matn
discursive	дискурсивный	diskursiv
distinction	различие, отличие, разница	farq
distract	отвлекать	chalg'itmoq
distribution	организация	taqsimot, distributsiya, taqsimlash, tashkil etish
distributive	распределительный	taqsimlovchi
draft	черновик	qoralama
dramatization	инсценировка	inssenirovka, nasriy yoki she'riy asarni teatr talabiga moslashtirish
drill	тренировка	g'ayrisha'riy mashq
drilling	зарядка	mashq, shug'ullanish
durability	прочность	mustahkamlik

dynamic	динамический	dinamik
easy	легкий	oson, o'zlashtirish uchun kam kuch hamda vaqt talab qiladigan
education	образование, просвещение	ta'lim, o'qitish, o'rgatish, maorif, ma'rifat
educational	образовательный	ta'limiy, ta'limga oid
educator	учитель	o'qituvchi, muallim, domla, ta'lim-tarbiya beruvchi
efficiency	работоспособность	ish (ishlash) qobiliyati, layoqati
egocentrism	эгоцентризм	egosentrizm, o'ta ketgan manmanlik
electicism	электрический подход (комбинированный метод)	elektik yondashuv (aralash metod)
elective	элективный (предмет, курс, учебник)	qo'shimcha, tanlov (fan, darslik)
elicitation/ eliciting	приём, используемый для стимулирования речемыслительной деятельности	nutqiy-fikriy faoliyat o'rgatish usuli
emotion	эмоция	tuyg'u, kechinma
environment	атмосфера	atmosfera, muhit
epi-projector	эпипроектор	svetotexnik ta'lim vositalaridan biri
epistemology	гносология	gnoseologiya (bilish nazariyasi)
epistolary	эпистолярный	epistolar, maktubiy, xatga oid
ergonomics	эргономика	ergonomika
error	(грубая) ошибка	(qo'pol) xato, nutqda til materialini noto'g'ri qo'llash, lisoniy yoki boshqa qiyinchilik

		oqibati
erudition	эрудиция	bilimdonlik
essay	изложение	insho (esse)
ethnopsychology	этнопсихология	etnopsixologiya
etiquette	этикет	etiket, odob
etude	эюд	etyud, sun'iy namuna
etymology	этимология	etimologiya
European language portfolio	европейский языковой портфель	yevropa lisoniy portfel
exam	экзамен, проверка	sinov, imtihon
exercise	упражнение	mashq, chet tilda bajariladigan o'quv amali
expansion	упражнение на расширение	kengaytirish uchun mashq
experience	опыт	tajriba
experiment	эксперимент	eksperiment, tajriba
experimental	экспериментальный	eksperimental
explain	объяснять	tushuntirmoq
express-method	экспресс-метод	ekspres-metodi
exposition	экспозиция	ko'rgazma
expository	описательный, разъяснительный	tasvirlovchi, izohlovchi
extensive	экстенсивный	ekstensiv (cho'ziladigan)
exteriorization	экстериоризация	eksteriorizatsiya (tashqi harakat)
exteriorization of speech	экстериоризация речи	tashqi nutq (og'zaki, yozma)
extralinguistical	экстралингвистический	ekstralingvistik
extraversion	экстраверсия	ekstraversiya, introversiyaga zid hususiyat, tashqi olamga ochiqlik
extravert	экстраверт	ekstravert, muloqotchan

facilitation	фасилитация	fasilitatsiya, yordam, yengillashtirish
facilitator	посредник	yordamchi
facultative	факультативный	fakultativ (majburiy bo'lmagan)
filling	заполнение	to'ldirish
film	фильм	film
film exercise	киноупражнение	kinomashq, kino namoyish qilib bajariladigan mashq
film fragment	кинокадр	kinokadr, kinoparcha, kinofragment kinolavha
film lesson	киноурок	kinodars
filmstrips	диафильм	diafilm
final	заключительный	yakuniy
flanelegraph	фланелеграф	flanelegraf
fluency	беглость	ravonlik
fluent	свободный	ravon
foreign (<i>adj.</i>) ~ language	иностранный иностранный язык	ajnabiy, xorijiy, chet til; maktabda o'qitiladigan chet tillar (- ingliz, ispan, nemis, fransuz, rus — Yevropa tillari, hamda arab, turk, fors, xitoy, koreys, hind, urdu — Sharq tillari)
foreign language teacher's portfolio	портфель учителя иностранного языка	chetl til o'qituvchisi portfoliosi
foreigner	иностранец	xorijzabon, horijlik, chet ellik
form	форма	forma, shakl
formal	формальный	formal, rasmiy
formation	формирование	shakllanish
forming	формирующий	shakllantiruvchi
forum	форум	forum

fossilization	фоссилизация	fossilizasiya
frontal	фронтальный	frontal, yoppasiga, ommaviy
function	функция	qo'llanilish
functional	функциональный	funksional
gender	гендерный	gender, jinsga oid
general	общее	umumiy
generalization	обобщение	umumlashma, qoida, mavhumot, sodda ta'rif
generalize	обобщать	umumlashtirmoq
genetic	генетический	genetik, irsiy
gestalt-style	гештальт-стиль (подход от общего к частному)	gestalt-uslub (umumiydan hususiyga qaratilgan yondashuv)
gesture	жест, мимика	imo-ishora
global	глобальный	global (ommaviy)
gnoseology	гносология	gnoseologiya (bilish nazariyasi)
goal	цель	maqsad
grade	класс	sinf, yagona o'quv dasturi bo'yicha o'quv yili davomida shug'ullanadigan o'quvchilar jamoasi
graduated	градуированный	ma'lumotli
grammar	грамматика, грамматический	grammatika, grammatik
grapheme	графема	grafema
graphic (<i>adj.</i>)	графический	grafik
graphic (<i>n.</i>)	графика	grafika
group (<i>n.</i>)	группа	guruh, tabaqa, toifa
group (<i>adj.</i>)	групповой	guruhiy
grouping	группирование	guruhlash
guesswork	догадки	topqirlikka oid mashq
guidance	руководство, программа, пособие,	dasturamal, qo'llanma, dastur, darslik

	учебник	
handbook	учебное пособие, руководство	qo'flanma, dasturamal
handout	раздаточный	tarqatma
handwriting	почерк	husnixat
hear	слышать	eshitmoq
hearing	слуховой	eshituv
hesitation	гезитация	ikkilanish
heuristic	эвристический	evristikaga oid, evristik
hierarchy	иерархия	iyerarxiya (tadrij)
historical	исторический	tarixiy
homework	домашнее задание	uy vazifasi
home reading	домашнее чтение	uyda o'qish uchun vazifa
homograph	омограф	omograf, yozuvda o'xshash, biroq turli ma'nodagi so'z
homonym	омоним	omonim, shakldosh, ma'nodosh
homophone	омофон	omofon, aytilishda o'xshash, ma'nosi turlicha so'zlar
hyperactivity	гиперактивность	o'ta faollik
hypnopedia	гипнопедия	gipnopediya
i-conception	концепт –я	men – konsepti
idea	идея, представление	g'oya, fikr
idiom	идиома	idioma
illustration	иллюстрация	rasm, surat
imitate	имитировать	taqlid qilmoq
imitation	имитация	imitatsiya (taqlid)
imitative	имитативный	taqlidiy
immanent	имманентный	bevosita (immanent)
implementation	выполнение	bajarish
implicit	имплицитный, подразумеваемый, невыраженный	yashirin, nazarda tutiladigan, anglashiladigan

imprinting	импринтинг, запечатление	taasurot, (xotirada) muxrlanish
improvement (of professional skill)	повышение (квалификации)	(malaka) oshirish
improving	совершенствующий	takomillashtiruvchi
improvisation	импровизация	badiha
improvised (speech)	импровизированная, случайная (речь)	tayyorlanmagan (nutq)
independent	самостоятельный	mustaqil
indicative (mood)	изъявительное (наклонение)	aniq (nisbat)
individual	индивидуал	individual (shaxsiy)
individualization	индивидуализация	shaxsga bog'liqlik
induction	индукция	induksiya
inductive	индуктивный	induktiv
influence	влияние	ta'sir
information	информация	axborot (informatsiya)
informational	информационный	axborotga oid
informative	информативный	informativ
initial	начальный, пороговый	dastlabki, boshlang'ich
initiative	инициативный	erkin (nutq)
insistence	настойчивость	tirishqoqlik, turg'unlik
inspiration	поощрение	rag'bat
integral	интегральный, целый, цельный, неотъемлемый	butun, ajralmas, yaxlit
integrated	интегрированный	butun yaxlit xolda
integrative	интегративный	umumlashtiruvchi, bir butun qiluvchi
integrity	целостность	butunlik, yaxlitlik
integration	интеграция	yaxlitlash
intellect	интеллект	intellekt, aql
intellectual	интеллектуальный	intellektual, aqliy
intensification	интенсификация	jadallashtirish, intensifikatsiya
intensify	интенсировать	faollishtirmoq

intensive	интенсивный	jadal
intention	намерение	niyat, istak
interaction	интеракция	o'zaro ta'sir
interactive	интерактивный	interaktiv
interest	интерес	qiziqish
intercultural	межкультурный	madaniyatlararo
interface	интерфейс	o'zaro bog'lanish
interference	интерференция	interferensiya, salbiy ta'sir
interferential	интерференционный	interferensiyaga oid
interiorization	интериоризация	interiorizatsiya, ichki harakat
interlingua	язык-посредник	vosita tili
interlocutor	собеседник	suhbatdosh
international	интернациональный	xalqaro, baynalmilal
international friendship club (IFK)	международный клуб дружбы (МКД)	baynalmilal do'stlik klubi (XDK)
internationalism	интернационализм	internatsionalizm (xalqaro birdamlik)
internet	интернет	internet
interval	интервал; промежуток	oraliq; tanaffus
interview	интервью	intervyu, mushohada
in-textual (exercises)	притекстовые (упражнения)	matn-o'qish (mashqlari)
intonation	интонация	intonatsiya, ohang
introduction	введение	kirish
introspection	самонаблюдение	o'z-o'zini kuzatish
introversion	интроверсия, сосредоточенность на самом себе	introversiya, o'ziga berilganlik
introvert	интроверт	kamgap, tortinchoq
intuitive	интуитивный	intuitiv
intuition	интуиция	ichki his, sezgirlik
issue	проблема	masala
jigsaw:	мозаика;	mozaika;

~ activities	упражнения для обмена информацией по типу «мозаика»	ma'lumot almashinish uchun "mozaika" tipidagi mashqlar
judgement	суждение	hukm
keyword	ключевое/ опорное слово	tayanch, til o'rganishga yordam ko'rsatadigan lisoniy birlik
kinesthetic	кинестетик	kinestetik, harakatga oid
know	знать	bilmoq
knowledge	знание	bilim
lab. = laboratory	лаборатория	laboratoriya
laboratory	лаборатория	laboratoriya
lacuna	лакуна	qiyoslanayotgan tillarning birida mos so'zning yo'qligi
language	язык	til, lison
language portfolio	языковой портфель	lisoniy portfolio
latent	скрытый, латентный	latent, so'zning xotirada saqlanish muddati
layout	расположение	joylashuv, joylashish tartibi
learner-centred	лично-ориентированный	o'quvchiga mo'ljallangan
lecture	лекция	leksiya, oily o'quv yurtida tegishli mavzu yuzasidan og'zaki sistematik bayoni
lesson	урок	mashg'ulot, dars, saboq
letter	буква; письмо	harf; xat
lexical	лексический	leksikaga oid
lexicon	лексикон, толковый словарь	izohli lug'at
linear syllabus	программа линейного типа	takrorlanmas turdagi dastur
lingaphone	лингфон	lingafon

linguodidactics	лингводидактика	lingvodidaktika, til ta'limshunosligi
linguo-country study	лингвострановедение	lingvomamlakatshunoslik
linguoculturology	лингвокультурология	lingvakulturologiya, (lisoniy madaniyatshunoslik)
lingual	лингвистический	lisoniy, tilga oid
linguophysiology	лингвофизиология	lingvofiziologiya, nutq fiziologiyasi
linguopsychology	лингвопсихология	lingvapsixologiya, til o'rgatish psixologiyasi
linguostylistics	лингвостилистика	lingvostilistika
linguotechnology	лингвотехнология	lingvotexnologiya
linguist	лингвист, языковед	tilshunos
linguistic	лингвистический	filologik
linguistics	лингвистика	tilshunoslik
linked	прикрепленный	bog'langan (til hodisasi)
linking	прикрепляемый	bog'lanuvchi (unli oldi o'qiladigan [r] xarfi)
listening comprehension	понимание на слух	tinglab tushunish
literal	буквальный	so'zma-so'z
literary	литературный	adabiy
live	живой	jonli
localization	локализация	mahalliy sharoitga moslashtirish
logics	логика	mantiq (fan)
macro text	макротекст	makromatn
master	магистр	magistr
master-class	мастер-класс	malakali mutaxassis darsi
material	материал	material
means	средство	vosita
mechanic	механический	mexanik (ong

		ishtirokisiz)
mechanism	механизм	mexanizm
media-education	медиаобразование	mediata'lim
mediation	медиация	vositachilik
mediator	медиатор	mediator
memorize	запоминать	yodlamoq
memory	память	xotira
mentality	менталитет, ментальность	mentalitet (zehniyat)
mentally	мысленно	fikran
meta language	мета язык	metatil (asos til)
method	метод	metod, maqsadga erishish
methodical	методичный	uslubiy, metodik
methodological	методик	metodik
methodologist	методист	metodist
methodology	методика	metodika
methods	методика	metodika (tadris)
micro text	микротекст	mikromatn, mikrotekst, jumla(lar)ga teng matn
micro dialogue	микродиалог	mikrosuhbat, qisqa suhbat, muxtasar juftnutq
mind-map	(метод) карта-памяти	xotira xaritasi
minimization	минимизация	minimizatsiya, o'rganiladigan til materialini minimum miqdoriga keltirish
minimum	минимум	minimum, o'rganilayotgan til makrosistemasidan ta'lim maqsadlariga ko'ra tanlanadigan lisoniy mikrosistema
mistake	ошибка	xato (nutqda til materialini noto'g'ri

		qo'llash, lisoniy yoki boshqa qiyinchilik oqibati)
mixed	смешанный	aralash
mnemonic (activity)	мнемическая (деятельность), вид деятельности, основанной на памяти и воображения	xotira va tasavvurga asoslangan faoliyat
mnemonics	мнемоника, искусство запоминания	mnemonika, eslab qolish mahorati
modality	модальность	modallik
model	модель, эталон	model, namuna, nusxa, qolip, etalon, klishe, tayyor jumla
module	модульный	modulga oid
monolingual	монолингв	yakzabon, bir tilli
monologue	монолог	monolog, yakkanutq
moral	моральный	ma'naviy, axloqiy, ichki (ruhiy) holatga oid
motivation	мотивация	motivatsiya, moyillik, shaylik (nutqiy faoliyat ko'rsatishga moyillik)
motivational	мотивационный	motivatsion (moyillikka oid)
motive	мотив	motiv, undovchi sabab, ichki va tashqi turtki
motor	мотор	motor, harakat
movie	кинофильм	kinofilm
multicultural	мультикультурный	ko'pmadaniyatlilik
multimedia	мультимедиа	multimedia; matn, audio-, video- va animatsion elementlardan iborat ta'lim vositasi
natural	натуральный (метод)	tabiiy (metod)

negative	негативный; отрицательный	salbiy, ijobiy emas, nomaqbul
neobehaviorism	необихевиоризм	neobixeviorizm, Amerika ruhshunoslarining qator yoʻnalishlarini jamlovchi ifoda
net	сеть; сетевой	tarmoq; tarmoq(qa) oid
neurolinguistics	нейролингвистика	neyrolingvistika
neuropsychology	нейропсихология	neyropsixologiya
neutral	нейтральный	betaraf, neytral, xolis
neutralization	нейтрализация	neytralizatsiya, bartaraf etish
nomenclature	номенклатура совркупность терминов	sohalarda qoʻllanadigan terminlar majmui
nomination	номинация	nominatsiya (nomlash)
norm	норма	norma, meʼyor
normal	нормальный	moʻtadil, normal
note	конспект	konspekt (dars rejasi)
notion	понятие	tushuncha, fikr formasi, psixik hosila
objective	задача	vazifa (ilmiy ishda)
observation	наблюдение	kuzatish
observe	наблюдать	kuzatmoq
ontogenesis	онтогенез	ontogenez (har bir organizmning avvalidan oxirigacha boʻlgan hayoti va hayotiy jarayonlari)
operating	операцион	operatsion
operation	операция	operatsiya, faoliyat birligi, harakat qilish usuli
operative	оперативный	operativ, amaliy
opinion	мнение	fikr

opposition	оппозиционный; оппозиция	oppozitsion talaffuzdagi qiyinchilik
optimization	оптимизация	optimizatsiya, yengillashtirish, smaradorlik
oral	устный	og'zaki
oral: ~advance principle	(принцип) устное опережение	og'zaki ilgarilash (prinsipi)
organization	организацияязыкового материала	tashkil etish (til materialini taqsimlash)
organizational	организационный	tashkiliy
orientation	ориентировка	mo'ljallash, chamalash
oriented	ориентированный	yo'llangan
orienting	наводящий (вопрос)	yo'llovchi savol
original	оригинал	asl, original, asliyat, asl nusxa, qo'l yozma
originality	оригинальность	asllik; chinlik
orthogram	орфограмма	orfogramma
orthography	орфография	orfografiya, imlo, yozish qoidasi
paper	реферат	referat, o'qilgan matn/asarning qisqach yozma bayoni
paradigm	парадигма	paradigma, so'zning turlanish, tuslanish tartiboti, bir-biriga qarshi ma'noli lisoniy birliklarni umumiy belgilari asosida jamlanganligi
paradigmatics	парадигматика	lisoniy paradigmalarni jamlovchi til sistemasi
paralinguistics	паралингвистика	paralingvistika (noverbal nutq vositalarini o'rganuvchi

		tilshunoslik bo'limi)
paraphrases	парафраза	parafraza (fikr, harakat yoki voqeani dastlabki foydalanilgan lisoniy vositalardan farqli tasvirlash)
paronym	пароним	paronimlar
pass-fail/ pass-no pass	зачет	sinov
passive	пассив	passiv (nisbat)
pause	пауза	to'xta(li)sh
pedagogic(al)	педагогический	pedagogik, pedagogikaga oid
pedagogics	педагогика	pedagogika, ta'lim-tarbiya haqidagi fan, tarbiyashunoslik
pedology	педология	pedologiya
perception	перцепция, восприятие	persepsiya, idrok qilish
perceptive	перцептив	perseptiv (idrokgga oid)
performance	владение (языком)	egallash (tilni)
performative	перформатив, высказывания эквивалентные действию, поступку	ayrim harakatning ifodalanishi va harakatning o'zi so'zda aks etishi, ularga l shaxsdagi «minnatdor bo'lmoq», «va'da bermoq», «buyurmoq» kabi fe'llar kiradi
persistence	настойчивость	tirishqoqlik, turg'unlik
phoneme	фонема	fonema
phonetic	фонетический	fonetik
phonetics	фонетика	fonetika
phono	фоно	fono
phonogram	фонограмма	fonogramma
phonograph	фонограф	fonograf

phonology	фонология	fonologiya
phrasebook	разговорник	so'zlashgich, kitob
phraseological competence	фразеологические компетенция	frazeologik kompetensiya
plan	план	plan, reja
planning	планирование	rejalashtirish, planlashtirish
plurilingualism	плюрилингвизм	ko'ptillilik
point	точка; балл	nuqta; ball
policultural	поликультурный	ko'pmadaniyatli
polyglossa	полиглоссия	poliglossiya, ko'p tillilik
polyglot	полиглот	polyglot, ko'p tillarda so'zlashuvchi, ko'p tilli
polylogue	полилог	polilog, guruhnutq, ko'pchilik suhbat
polysemy	полисемия	polisemiya, ko'p ma'nolilik
portal	портал	portal
portfolio	портфолио (папка)	portfolio (papka)
pose	поза	qiyofa, nutq jarayonida
position	позиция	joy, holat; nuqtai nazar
positional	позицион	pozitsion
positive	позитивный	ijobiy
post-textual (exercises)	послетекстовые (упражнения)	matn-orqa (mashqlari)
potential	потенциал	potensial
practice	практика	amal
(in) practice	на практике	amalda
practical	практический	amaliy
practice	практика	praktika, amaliyot, ish, tajriba
pragmatics	прагматика	pragmatika
precedent	прецедентный, предшествующий	o'xshash, teng
prediction	прогноз	prognoz, oldindan aytish, bilish, bashorat,

		karomat
prefixation	префиксация	prefiksatsiya, old qo'shimchasi (-prefiks) qo'shish
presentation	презентация	prezentatsiya, taqdimot
presupposition	пресуппозиция	oldindan taxmin qilish
pre-textual (exercises)	предтекстовые (упражнения)	matn-oldi (mashqlari)
prevalence	распространенность	tarqalganlik
principle	принцип	prinsip, mezon
problem	проблема	muammo, masala
problem-search	проблемно-поисковый	muammo qidiruvchi
procedure	процедура	jarayon
process	процесс	jarayon
production	порождение, продуцирование	natija, samara, oqibat
productive	продуктивный	samarali, produktiv
professional	профессиональный	kasbiy, mutaxassislikka oid, professional
proficiency	владение, умение	egallash, bilish (tilni)
profile	профиль, специальность, профессия	ixtisos, mutaxassislik, kasb
program	программа	programma, dastur
programmed	программированный	programmallashtirilgan
programming	программирование	programmallashtirish
progress	прогресс	o'zlashtirish, shaxsning ijtimoiy-tarixiy (jumladan lisoniy) tajriba orttirish yo'li
project	проект	loyiha
prompt	подсказка	sekin aytib turish, luqma solish
pronunciation	произношение	talaffuz
	программный	programmaviy, dasturiy, programmaga oid

propaedeutic(al)	пропедевтический	kirish (muqaddima)dan iborat bo'lgan
(to be) read	читается	o'qilishi
prosodic(al)	просодический	prosodiyaga oid
prospect	проспект	istiqbol (prospekt)
protocol	протокол	protokol
pseudo passivity	псевдопассивность	soxta sustlik
psychic	психик	psixik
psychoanalysis	психоанализ	psixoanaliz
psychodiagnosis	психодиагностика	psixodiagnostika
psychodrama	психодрама	psixodrama
psycholinguistics	психолингвистика	psixolingvistika, nutq faoliyatini o'rganadigan fan sohasi
psychological	психологический	psixologik, psixologiyaga oid
psychologist	психолог	ruhshunos, psixolog, ruhiyatshunos
psychology	психология	psixologiya, ruhshunoslik
psychophysiology	психофизиология	psixofiziologiya
psychosemantics	психосемантика	psixosemantika
psychotherapeutic	психотерапевтический	psixoterapevtik
psychotherapy	психотерапия	psixoterapiya
publicistic	публицистический	publitsistikaga oid
pupil	ученик	o'quvchi, bilim hamda ta'lim oluvchi, tahsil ko'ruvchi, talaba
pure	чистый	sof
qualitative	квалитатив	kvalitativ
quantitative	квантитатив	kvantitativ
question	вопрос	savol, so'roq
questioning	расспрос	so'rov
questionnaire	анкета, вопросник	anketa, so'roq varaqasi
quiz	викторина	viktorina, savol-javob musobaqasi, o'yini,

		tomoshasi
rater (table)	рейтерская (таблица)	reyter (jadvali)
rating scale	рейтинг	reyting, o'quvchi/talaba bilim, ko'nikma, malakalari darajasini aniqlash
rational-logistic	рационально-логический	mulohaza-mantiqqa oid
reaction	реакция	reaktsiya, sezish, ta'sirlanish
reactive	реактивный	reaktiv, ta'sirli
reactivity	реактивность	ta'sirchanlik
readability	легко читаемость	o'qilishi oson
readiness	готовность	shaylik, moyillik (-o'rganiladigan obyekt — til materiali/nutqga subyekt (-o'quvchi)ning shayligi (-moyilligi)
reading	чтение	mutolaa, o'rganuv (o'qish turi), o'qish, matndan axborot olish, ya'ni matnni idrok etib mazmunini anglash (nutq faoliyati turi); yozilganni aytish, ya'ni harf-tovush munosabatining ro'yobga chiqishi (o'qish texnikasi); tahsil olish, o'rganish, ta'lim olish
ready	готовый	tayyor
real	реальный	real, haqiqiy
realia	реалиа	realia (xos so'zlar)
reception	рецепция	retsepsiya, og'zaki nutqni tinglab yoki

		yozma matnni o'qib tushunish (-umuman idrok etib tushunish)
receptive	рецептивный	retseptiv, retsepsiyaga oid
receptor	рецептор	retseptor
recipient	реципиент, (слушатель, читатель)	resipiyent, og'zaki va yozma nutqni idrok etib tushunish
reduction	редукция	unli tovushlarning qisqa talffuz etilishi yoki o'zgarishi
reference	референция	tavsiyanoma
referencing	реферирование	asarni qisqacha mazmunini yozma bayon etish
referent	референт	referent, muayyan sohada axborot beruvchi
reflection	рефлексия	refleksiya (mulohaza, fikr yuritish)
reflector	рефлектор(ный)	refleksga oid, beixtiyor
reflex	рефлекс	refleks, ta'sir, asar, aks
reflexology	рефлексология	refleksologiya (reflekslar haqida ta'limot)
reinforcement	закрепление	mustahkamlash
relaxation	релаксация	susaytirish, yengillashtish
relaxopedy	релаксопедия	relaksopedia
remark	реплика	replika, lo'nda fikr
remembering	запоминание	yodda tutish, eslab qolish
replica	реплика	replika (javob va gapirishga undovchi jumla)
report	рапорт	raport, dars

		boshlanishida navbatchi o'quvchining og'zaki axboroti
reproducing	репродуцирование	fikrni og'zaki va yozma bayon etish
reproduction	репродукция (высказывание)	reproduksiya (fikrning og'zaki va yozma bayoni)
reproductive	репродуктивный	reproduktiv, reproduksiyaga oid
request	просьба	iltimos
research	исследование	tadqiqot, tekshirish, o'rganish, izlanish
researcher	исследователь	tadqiqotchi
resumé	резюме	rezume, qisqacha xulosa/ma'lumot
retrospective	ретроспективный	retrospektiv, tarixiy, o'tmish (-moziy) bilan bog'liq
revision	повторение	qaytarish, takrorlash
rhema	рема	rema
rhetoric	риторика	ritorika, notiqlik san'ati nazariyasi
rhetorician	ритор. оратор	notiq
rote	зубрежка	quruq yodlash
rule	правило	qoida, nutqda qo'llanadigan til materiali haqidagi mavhumlashtirilgan ko'rsatma yoki umumlashma
rythmopedy	ритмопедия	ritmopedia, ritm asosida o'rgatish
sample	пример, образец	andaza, qolip, mezon, namuna
search	поиск	qidiruv

searching	поисковой	(axborotni) qidirish
sectorial	отраслевой	sohaviy, sohaga, biror fanga oid
selection	отбор, селекция	tanlash, saralash, ajratish, saylash, seleksiya
selective	выборочное, просмотровое (чтение)	saylab, tanlab (o'qish)
self-analysis	самоанализ	o'z-o'zini tekshirish, o'z-o'ziga baho berish
self-correction	самокоррекция	o'z xatosini to'g'rilash
self-dictation	самодиктант	mustaqil yoziladigan diktant
self-education	самовоспитание, самообразование	mustaqil ta'lim/tarbiya
self-esteem	самооценка	bilimini mustaqil baholash
self-realization	самореализация	o'zlikni anglash
self-suggestion	самовнушение	ixlos bilan o'rganish
self-study	самообучение	mustaqil ta'lim
self-teacher	самоучитель	mustaqil o'rganish uchun qo'llanma/darslik
sema	сема	sema (ma'no)
semantic	семантический	semantik, semantika bilan bog'liq, ma'noviy, ma'noga oid
semantics	семантика	semantika (tilshunoslikning tarmog'i)
semantization	семантизация	semantizatsiya, yangi so'z ma'nosini ochish
seminar	семинар	seminar (oliy o'quv yurtida mash g'ulot turi)
semiotics	семиотика	semiotika
sense	чувство	sezgi

sensor	сенсорный	his etish, sezish
sentence	предложение	jumla, gap
sequence	последовательность	izchillik, ketma-ketlik, tadrijiylik
series	серия	seriya (turkum)
server	сервер (ЭВМ)	server (EHMda)
setting	установка	yo'naltirish, ko'rsatma, yo'l-yo'riq
scientific	научный	ilmiy
school	школа	maktab
score	балл	ball (baholash mezon)
(cinema) screen	киноэкран	kinoekran
shortage	недочёты	kamchiliklar
show	шоу	ko'rsatuv, tomosha
silence-fillers	«слова-паразиты» (заполнители пауз)	nutqda to'xtamaslik uchun qo'llanadigan so'z
silent	тихий	ovozsiz (o'qishga oid)
similar	подобный (по форме)	o'xshash (ma'no, shakl, qo'llanishga oid)
simulation	симуляция	simulyatsiya (sun'iy nutq vaziyat)
simultan	симултан (одновременность)	simultan, bir vaqtning o'zida yuz beradigan (mas. idrok bilan tushunish/tushunmaslik)
situation	ситуация (речи)	(nutqiy) vaziyat
situative	ситуативный	situativ, nutqiy vaziyatga oid
sketch	кроки, набросок, эскиз	kroki, xomaki rasm
skill	умение	malaka, ong ishtirokisiz avtomatlashgan faoliyat
slide	слайд	ko'rgazmali vositalardan biri
slide projector	диапроектор	diaproyektor
socialization	социализация	sotsializatsiya

		(ijtimoiylashuv)
social	социальный	ijtimoiy
sociocultural	социокультурный	ijtimoiy-madaniy
sociolinguistics	социолингвистика	sotsiolingvistika
sociology	социология	sotsiologiya (jamiyat to'g'risidagi ta'limot)
sociometry	социометрия	sotsiometriya
sound	звук	tovush (talaffuz birligi)
speak	говорить	so'zlamq, gapirmoq
speaking	говорение	gapirish
speaker	тот, кто говорит	so'zlovchi, gapiruvchi, notiq
specialty	специальность	ixtisos, mutaxassislik
speech	речь	nutq
speech situation	учебно-речевая ситуация – УРС	o'quv-nutqiy vaziyat— O'NV
speed	скорость (речи)	tezlik, sur'at (nutqqa oid)
spelling	спеллинг, правописание	spelling (so'zni harflab aytish)
spontaneous	спонтанный	spontan, o'z-o'zidan, beixtiyoriy sodir bo'ladigan nutq
stage	стадия, ступень	stadiya, bosqich, davr
stamp	штамп	tamg'a
standard	стандарт	standart (ta'limning me'yorlangan mazmuni)
statar	совершенный	statar
step	шаг	qadam, bosqich
stereotype	стереотип	stereotip fikran tamg'alanish
stimulating	стимулирующий	undovchi
stimulus	стимул	stimul, gapirishga undash, turtki, rag'bat
stochastic	стохастический	stoxastik, assotsiativ fikrsiz (nutq)

strategy	стратегия	strategiya, ta'lim jarayonini boshqarish
structure	структура	struktura
structural-global	структурно-глобальный	struktural-global (metod haqida)
student	студент	student, talaba
study (n)	кабинет	darsxona
study (v)	учиться	tahsil olmoq, o'qimoq, o'rganmoq
subculture	субкультура	xususiyl madaniyat, kasb va yoshga oid
subject	(учебный) предмет	predmet (fan)
sub-skill	навык	ko'nikma
substitution	подстановка (слов)	so'zning o'rnini almashtirish
substitutional	подстановочный (о таблице)	almashtiriladigan (jadvalga oid)
suffix	суффикс	suffiks qo'shimcha
suffixation	суффиксация	suffiksatsiya, suffikslar qo'shilishi
suggestion	суггестия	ishonchga asoslanish
suggestive	суггестив	suggestiv, ishonchli
suggestology	суггестология	suggestologiya
suggestopedia	суггестопедия	suggestopediya, ishonchga asoslangan ta'lim
suggestopedic	суггестопедический	suggestopedik (ishonchga asoslangan)
supply	принадлежность	qurol
survey	опрос	so'rov
syllabic	программный	dasturiy
syllable	слог	bo'g'in
syllabus	программа	dastur
synchronic	синхронный	sinxron
synonym	синоним	ma'nodosh, sinonim

synonymy	синонимия	sinonimiya, ma'nodoshlik
syntagm	синтагма	sintagma, so'zlarining yonma yon kelishi (mas. so'z birikmasi)
synthetic	синтетик	sintetik
synthesis	синтез	sintez, yaxlit, butun
system	система	sistema, tizim
systematic	системный	sistematik, sistemali, tizimli
systemization	систематизация	tizimlashtirish
table	таблица	jadval
tact	такт	maqom, vazn
tactics	тактика	taktika
talent	талант	layoqat, iqtidor, qobiliyat
tandem-method	тандем-метод	tandem-metodi
task	задание	vazifa, topshiriq
tautology	тавтология	tavtologiya (takror)
teacher	учитель, преподаватель	o'qituvchi, domla, ustoz, mudarris
teaching	обучение	o'rgatish, o'qitish, tushuntirish, yangi materialni bildirish, saboq berish, ta'lim berish
technical	технический	texnikaviy
techniques	приём	usul(lar)
technology	технология	texnologiya, muayyan jarayonni yurgizish usullari hamda vositalari
telecourse	телекурс	telekurs, television kurs
television	телевизор	televizor
temperament	темперамент	temperament (mijoz)
tempo	темп	sur'at, tezlik, temp
test	тест	test (sinov turi)

test training	пробное обучение	sinov mahg'ulotlari
text	текст	matn
textual	текстуальный	tekstual, matnga oid
textbook	учебник	darslik
thematic	тематический	tematik, mavzuiy
theme	тема	mavzu
theoretical	теоретический	nazariy, nazariyaga asoslangan
theory	теория	nazariya
thesaurus	тезаурус	tezaurus (lug'at turi)
thesis	тезис	tezis, asosiy fikr
thinking	мышление	tafakkur
ticket	билет	bilet
timbre	тембр	tembr (tovushga oid)
time-study	хронометраж	xronometraj, til ta'limida sarflanadigan vaqtni o'lchash
tolerance	толерантность	tolerantlik
tracing-paper	калька, копировка	nusxa tushiradigan qog'oz, kalka
traditional	традиционный	traditsion, an'anaviy
training	тренировка	trening, amaliy mashg'ulot tizimi/rejimi, mashq qilish
transcription	транскрипция	transkripsiya yozuvda tovush belgisi, fonetik yozuv
transfer	перенос	ko'chish (ko'nikmaga oid)
transliteracy	транслитерация	bir tildagi harfning boshqa tilda berilishi
transposition	транспозиция, положительное влияние	transpozitsiya, ijobiy ta'sir, ijobiy ko'chish
trilingual	трилингв	trilingv, uch tilda so'zlashuvchi, uch tilli

training	трейнинг	trening, amaliy mashg'ulot
train	ГОТОВИТЬ	tayyorlamoq
trained	подготовленный	tayyorgarlik ko'rib chiqqan
training	подготовка	tayyorgarlik
translation	перевод	tarjima, tildan tilga o'girish, ag'darish
trust	вера, доверие	e'timod, ishonch
tutor	репетитор	repetitor, xususiy (yollanma) o'qituvchi
TV-didactics	теледидактика	teledidaktika, o'quv teleko'rsatuvlar tizimi
TV-lesson	телеурок	teledars, televizion dars
typhlopedagogy	тифлопедагогика	tiflopedagogika
typo	типовой	namunaviy, andazaviy, asos bo'ladigan
typology	типология	tipologiya, tasnif(lash)
understand	понимать	tushunmoq
union	объединение	birlashma
unit	единица	birlik
unreasonable	нерассудительный	fikrsiz, ongsiz
upbringing	воспитание	tarbiya(lash)
usus (language usage)	узус (употребление языковых единиц)	til birliklarining qo'llanilishi
valentia	валентность	valentlik
validation	оценка эффективности (учебных материалов)	samaralilikni baholash (o'quv materiallarini)
validity	валидность, достоверность, обоснованность, надежность (теста или тестирования)	ishonchlilik, asoslilik
verbal	вербальный	verbal, so'z bilan ifodalanmish

verbal-logical	словесно-логический	verbal-mantiqqa oid
verbalization	вербализация	verbalizatsiya, chet til o'rgatishning psixologik prinsipi
vice versa	наоборот	teskari, aks holda
video	видео	video
virtual	виртуальный	virtual
visual	визуальный	visual, ko'rishga oid
visuals	наглядность	ko'rgazmalilik
visualization	визуализация	vizualizatsiya, ko'rsatish, namoyish etish (-til birligi yoki vizual vositalardan foydalanish jarayoni)
vocabulary	лексика, словарный запас	so'zlik, lug'at (so'z) boyligi, vokabular
voluntary	произвольный	ixtiyoriy (ko'ngilli)
voluntary attention	произвольное внимание	ixtiyoriy diqqat
way	способ	usul (yo'l)
web quest	веб-квест	veb-kvest, internet ma'lumotlariga tayanib hal qilinadigan muammoli masala
whisper	шептать	pichirlamoq
will	воля	iroda
word	слово	so'z
word form	словоформа	so'z shakli
work	работа	ish
working-out	разработка	ishlanma
world outlook	мировоззрение	dunyoqarash
write	писать	yozmoq, tovush kodini harfiy kodga o'tkazmoq (-til birliklarini harliy

		timsollar yordamida ifodalamoq)
written	письменный	yozma, harfiy timsollar bilan ifodalangan
writing	письмо	yozuv, yozma shaklda fikr bayon etish (nutq faoliyati turi)

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