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**Theory and practice of teaching English at schools**

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Theory and practice of teaching English at schools. Методичний посібник з методики викладання англійської мови - Кривий Ріг, 2012.-177 с.

Пропонованим посібником є курс лекцій і практичних занять з методики викладання англійської мови. Зміст лекцій присвячений цілям і завданням навчання англійської мови в школі, формуванню комунікативної компетенції учнів. До кожної лекції пропонується практичне заняття, яке включає питання для обговорення, практичні завдання, базову термінологію і тестовий контроль рівня сформованості методичної компетенції студентів.

Посібник призначений для студентів педагогічних університетів, вчителів середніх шкіл і викладачів вузів.

Передмова

У багатьох педагогічних університетах на факультеті іноземних мов викладання методики навчання англійської мови ведеться англійською, у зв'язку з чим виникла необхідність у створенні навчального посібника «Theory and practice of teaching English at schools».

Зміст лекцій відображує вимоги програми з курсу методики викладання іноземних мов у школі та результати сучасних вітчизняних і зарубіжних досліджень з проблем викладання іноземних мов.

Курс лекцій починається з розгляду змісту навчання іноземної мови в школі і висвітлює особливості навчання іноземної мови та її засвоєння учнями. Окремі лекції присвячено методиці навчання фонетичного, граматичного і лексичного матеріалу, а також техніки читання, .проблемам формування мовленнєвої компетенції учнів (аудіюванню, монологічному та діалогічному мовленню, читанню), питанням планування уроків іноземної мови, контролю досягнутих результатів.

До кожної лекції надається практичне заняття, яке містить базову термінологію, питання для обговорення, практичні завдання й тестовий контроль рівня сформованості методичної компетенції студентів.

Мета методичного посібника – допомогти студентам оволодіти основами теорії методики, методикою формування мовної й мовленнєвої компетенцією, вміннями планування навчального процесу та організації контролю навичок і вмінь учнів, а також допомогти студентам оволодіти методичною термінологією.

Посібник призначений для студентів факультету іноземних мов педагогічних університетів, вчителів і викладачів англійської мови.

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**Lecture 1. GENERAL PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**1.English as a compulsory subject in school education**

**2. Practical aims and content of foreign language teaching**

**3. First and second language acquisition**

**1. English as a compulsory subject in school education**

Social and economic factors and the need for European integration call for certain actions aimed at the improvement of teaching foreign languages. The national educational programme “Education of the XXI century” emphasizes the role of foreign languages. It is believed that foreign languages take the second place after Ukrainian in terms of importance and special attention.

General education is divided into three levels:

I level: primary school

II level: basic (lower secondary) school

III level: senior (upper) secondary school

Secondary foreign language education is divided now into three relative stages: primary (grades 1-4), middle (grades 5-9) and senior (grades 10-11) schools.

The results of every foreign language learning stage are described in the Educational Standards developed and applied for the first foreign language at primary stage as level A1+, at middle stage as level A2+ and at senior – B1+ (according to the National Educational Standards and Common European Framework).

The Common European Framework (CEFR) divides learners into three broad divisions which can be divided into six levels:

A Basic User: **A1** Breakthrough, **A2** Waystage

B Independent User; **B1** Threshold, **B2** Vantage

C Proficient User; **C1** Effective Operational Proficiency, **C2** Mastery

The CEFR describes what a learner is supposed to be able to do in reading, listening, speaking and writing at each level.

Until the early 2000s the compulsory foreign language instruction in the general schools began in the 4th/5th grade. The educational reform of 2000 lowered the age of compulsory primary education from 7 to 6 years old and introduced foreign language as a compulsory subject in 2002. In the new 11-year school learning of one foreign language is compulsory and begins in the 2nd grade or in the 1st (depending on the type of institution). A second foreign language is introduced in the 5th grade. In schools specialising in foreign languages (specialized schools or language schools) compulsory foreign language learning begins in the 1st grade and a second foreign language begins in the 5th grade. The curriculum at the specialized schools also includes such courses as regional studies, foreign literature, business foreign language and technical translations.

Nowadays four foreign languages are being learned in Ukraine: English, German, French and Spanish. Besides, in certain institutions teaching of Chinese, Japanese, Arabic, Turkish, Hindi, Korean, Persian, Polish, Scandinavian is available for the learners. Linguistic diversity and choice ensure friendly and tolerant value education and promote respect towards other nations and their history and culture.

Pupils learning two or three foreign languages develop their cultural sensitivity. Linguistic and cultural competencies help in developing international interaction and promote social communication skills. They enrich personality and ensure more open view on the cultural experience.

The growing need in communication and cooperation between different countries, people with different languages and various cultural traditions, the new educational system in Ukraine demanded complete changes in approaches to teaching, renovation of the content, methods of teaching foreign languages at the secondary school level.

Introduction of the communicative language teaching into curriculum coincided with the initiation of new system of performance assessment. The new curriculum on foreign languages teaching for non-specialized secondary schools was created. This curriculum is based on the results of the contemporary psycho-pedagogical and methodical researches, which regard learning foreign languages as the process of the student’s individual development in the context of "the polylogue of cultures".

Due to the active support of some international organizations (The British Council, The American Council on International Education, Department of Press and Culture of the American Embassy in Ukraine, British publishers) new syllabus for English teaching in grades 2 to 11 were prepared. Currently teaching foreign languages is being realized with two sets of syllabi –for the schools with 11 years of studies (approved in 1998) and for the schools with 11 years of studies (approved in 2010).

New syllabi for the schools with 11 years of studies are based on the development of the communicative competences. This approach is focused on linguistic functions supporting to develop communicatively oriented language learning.

Methodology grounds of new syllabi are correlated with the Common European Framework and mostly oriented at the development of some competences.

The aim in teaching foreign language is to use the language as a means of communication. We can communicate directly (orally) and indirectly (in written form). Direct communication – listening and speaking, indirect communication – reading and writing.

**2. Practical aims and content of foreign language teaching**

The practical aim in foreign language teaching is the developing of **communicative competence**. Competence is the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions. General competences are those not specific to language, but which are called upon for actions of all kinds, including language activities. Communicative competence is that which empowers a person to act using specifically linguistic means.

Communicative competence includes the following competences (subcompetences): linguistic, speech, linguasociocultural, and academic-strategic.

**1. Linguistic competence** includes knowledge of how the linguistic system of a language operates and appropriate skills. It is the competence that we associate with mastering the linguistic code of a language. Here we develop grammar competence, lexical competence, phonological competence, competence in technique of reading and writing. Linguistic competence is an aspect of speech competence.

**2. Speech competence** is the ability we have to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances, it is the individual's ability to produce and understand speech. Discourse means everything from simple spoken conversation to lengthy written texts (articles, books, and the like).

Linguistic and speech competence highlights the difference between knowledge "about" language rules and forms and knowledge that enables a person to communicate. In this view, speech production results from the creative use of a learned set of linguistic rules, i.e. "performance". While linguistic competence focuses on sentence-level grammar, speech competence is concerned with intersentential (text-level) relationships, the ability to use the language. Speech competence focuses on the development of ***competence***in***listening****,* ***speaking****,* ***reading****,* ***writing, translation and mediation.***

3. **Linguasociocultural competence** includes several competences: sociolinguistic, sociocultural and social.

***Sociolinguistic competence*** - ability to select and use appropriate language forms and means depending on the purpose and the situation of communication taking into account the social roles of participants of communication.

It is important to know the semantic features of words, idiomatic expressions and their semantics, how they affect the interlocutor depending on the style and type of communication. Sociolinguistic competence in respect of dialect and accent includes the ability to recognize language features of social groups, places of residence, origin, occupation. These features occur at the level of vocabulary, grammar, phonetics, manner of speaking, paralinguistics, body language.

The content of sociolinguistic competence is all that relates to the means of verbal contact. Having good sociolinguistic competence means to be able to read situations and know what is the right thing to say or do. Sociolinguistic competence asks: Which words and phrases fit this setting and this topic? How can I express a specific attitude (courtesy, authority, friendliness, respect) when I need to? How do I know what attitude another person is expressing?

The formation of this competence begins at the stage of the selection of language and speech material by authors of textbooks. It is proposed that carefully designed language activities be carried out by instructors in order to impart sociolinguistic skills to learners.

***The sociocultural competence*** is the body of knowledge about the country of target language, national and cultural features of social and language behavior of native speakers, and ability to use this knowledge in communication, taking into account rules of behavior, norms of etiquette, social conditions and behavior stereotypes of native speakers.

The content of social competence ensures the development of interpersonal skills and intercultural dialogue based on knowledge about national and cultural peculiarities of the country of target language, as well as the ability to represent own country and own culture in intercultural communication.

The sociocultural competence includes the following knowledge and skills of sociocultural context of communication:

- Knowledge of the social system of the country of the target language;

- Knowledge of the sociocultural portrait of the country of the target language: the main stages of development of history, knowledge of cultural heritage (art, literature, folklore, etc.);  
- Knowledge of the cultural characteristics of native speakers, their customs and traditions, social conventions and rituals such as visiting rituals (time of arrival / departure, gifts, clothing, food, keeping the conversation, compliments, good-bye); eating and drinking rituals;

- Knowledge of norms of behavior and etiquette, including verbal and non-verbal ways of contact, e.g. body language (shaking hands, touching, hugging, hand gestures, facial expression, eye language, distance communication, posture, the rules of politeness);

- Skills of sociocultural behavior, including skills in verbal and non-verbal ways of contact.

***Social competence*** - the ability to join in communicative relationships with other people, orientate to a social situation and manage it. It involves the willingness and desire to interact with others, self-confidence and ability to put oneself in another's place and the ability to manage the situations that arise; it is important to create a sense of tolerance, that is, willingness to listen to and understand the point of view that differs from yours.

Social competence refers to the social, emotional, and cognitive skills and behaviors that people need for successful social adaptation.

It is known that the process of verbal communication is not always characterized by a complete understanding and sufficient level of sociability. Understanding may have difficulty by reason of psychological barriers in the minds of people involved in communication, or involved in intercultural communication situations - cultural barriers (culture shock). The former is due to social constraints in the awareness of cultural and social differentiations. The psychological factors that affect the process of understanding include psychological incompatibility of partners in communication, shame, distrust of people, etc. Cultural barriers associated with belonging to different traditions, customs, including level of the household activities. Thus in the learning process along with the aim to develop pupils’ traits of secondary linguistic identity , it is necessary to form pupils’ skills not only to simulate the verbal behavior with native speakers (linguistically correct), but at the same time to understand them / foreign culture.

Social competence includes the desire and ability (skill) of learners to communicate with other people in a foreign language. An important role is assigned to a sense of tolerance, i.e. tolerance for other people's point of view.

**4. Academic-strategic competence** is the knowledge of different learning and communication strategies and skills to use them in the process of foreign language learning and in situations of real intercultural communication.

This competence consists of two competences: academic and strategic.

***Academic competence*** - the ability of a learner to use rational methods of mental work, strategies for mastering the speech, linguistic and linguasociocultural competences; improve him/herself in intercultural communication independently.

In foreign language teaching the attention is given to both general and specific learning skills and strategies. First of all, it is learners’ ability to independent and responsible learning, skills and ability to collaborate with other learners and teachers, the ability to perform different types of tasks, and so on.

***Strategic competence*** (sometimes it is called compensation competence) - the ability to compensate for insufficient level of the foreign language in the process of communication, as well as speech and social experience of communicating in the foreign language, the ability to use strategies of intercultural communication.

It is the competence underlying our ability to make repairs, to cope with imperfect knowledge, and to sustain communication through "paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, and guessing, as well as shifts in register and style" (Savignon 1983).

In fact, strategic competence is the way we manipulatelanguage in order to meet communicative goals. Strategic competence asks: How do I know when I’ve misunderstood or when someone has misunderstood me? What do I say then? How can I express my ideas if I don’t know the name of something or the right verb form to use? How do I manage a social situation when I am not quite sure about the rules of etiquette?

As a rule three basic types of strategies are distinguished: learning strategies (metacognitive and cognitive); strategies to use a foreign language in different types of speech activities (reading, listening, speaking and writing, translation / mediation); communication strategies (compensation, affective, social).

The content of foreign language teaching responds to the questions: “What to teach”. The content is the primary component of the teaching-learning process, and it is determined by the aims of teaching. Bearing in mind that what is taught is the result of culture, learners should obtain knowledge and skills in such a unity which would provide them an ability to function successfully in intercultural communication. The components of content of teaching should be considered in two aspects: in subject aspect and process aspect.

Subject aspect components include the following:

1. domains and types of communication, psychological and speech situations, non-linguistic means of expression (gestures, body language, and suchlike), communicative purposes and intentions, topics, issues and texts;
2. linguasociacultural material (country study and linguacultural; social situations);
3. linguistic material (vocabulary; grammar, phonological minima carefully selected for the purpose; for teaching technique of reading and writing);
4. learning strategies, strategies to use foreign language in different types of speech activities and communication strategy.

Process aspect components comprise the following:

1. skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing, translation and activities to develop the skills; the related knowledge;

2) linguasociacultural skills and activities to develop the skills; skills to join in communicative relationships, to orientate to social situations and manage them, activities to develop these skills, the related knowledge;

3) linguistic skills and activities to form them, the related knowledge.

4) learning strategies skills, skills of different speech activities strategies and communication strategy skill; activities to develop these skills; the related knowledge.

It should be mentioned that the achievement of practical aims in FLT makes possible the realization of educational, cultural, and developing (formative) ones.

Educational aims help the pupils extend their knowledge of the world in which they live. Cultural aims develop the pupils’ mental capacities and intelligence in the process of foreign language learning. Formative or developing aims help develop in learners sensual perception, motor, kinesthetic, emotional and motivating spheres.

The aims and the content of the teaching as well as the method of instruction are stated by the syllabus. The syllabus, therefore, is a state document which lays down the aims of teaching, the extent of the knowledge, skills pupils must acquire, the sequence of topics which constitute the academic content of the subject. The syllabus is an essential document for every teacher, and he is responsible for the fulfillment of its requirements. The teacher cannot make alterations in the syllabus. The syllabus is uniform for all the teachers working in schools of the given type. In the syllabus the teacher will find also find some suggestions as to the approach to teaching oral language, reading, and writing, vocabulary, and grammar.

New national textbooks for foreign languages are developed according to the General Curriculum Framework and Standards and language proficiency levels of the Council of Europe.

**3. First and second language acquisition**

Some children acquiring their first language easily and well yet often meet with great difficulty in the learning of the second language. To understand what teaching methods and procedures should be recommended in second language teaching or understand why some teachers fail in teaching, we have to compare first and second language acquisition. The results of the comparison show the following.

1. There are no direct global analogies between first and second language acquisition.

2. We should take into consideration the age of the learner – if it is a child or an adult.

On the surface one would look at child first language acquisition and adult second language acquisition and see similarities. In each case the learner first learns how to make basic sounds, then words, phrases and sentences; and as this learning continues the sentences become more and more complex. However, the differences between these two types of acquisition are dramatic.

***1. Frequency of rapidity or language surrounding density of communication***

A child's first language acquisition is different because it cannot be repeated. No matter how many languages are learned later in life, the rapidity and accuracy of the first acquisition can simply not be repeated.

Difference between first (L1) and second (L2) language learning is **input***–* specifically the quality and quantity of input. Language learning process depends on the input frequency and regularity. It is here where one finds the greatest difference between L1 and L2 acquisition. A child hears the language all day everyday, whereas an adult learner may only hear the target language in the classroom – which could be as little as two - three hours a week. The one- on- one interaction (parents) versus a class room setting (where an instructor could be speaking to up to twenty, or more students) also ties in with the idea of quality.

2. The next great and obvious difference between L1 and L2 learning is ***age***. Here we should mention the idea of a " sensitive /critical period”, or the "time after which successful language learning cannot take place". The sensitive periods represent critical points of a child’s development. The sensitive period for language occurs from birth to about age six. Some scholars points the period from 2 to 11 (It is at this time that the child learns the primary language spoken at home. He also has the ability to learn and fluently speak other languages. Many scholars believe that there is a biological window of opportunity for human beings to acquire a language. There is a period during which language acquisition is easy and complete. That is, many believe that there is a biologically determined critical period for language acquisition. It is a period when certain experiences are particularly important because they have a significant influence on later development.

In 1967, Eric Lenneberg first proposed the notion of a critical period for language acquisition. He suggested that the period between **infancy and puberty** (the beginning of adolescence) was a critical period for language acquisition. This critical period was thought to end at puberty because of important maturational changes in the brain that occur at this time. Language must be acquired during the critical period if it is to be acquired at all. Language will be learned most easily during this period. After the sensitive period language can be learned but with greater difficulty and less efficiency.

At puberty there are three main physical changes one undergoes in regards to language acquisition.

**The first is the presence of muscular plasticity**. A child's plasticity goes away at about the age of five. After this age it is very hard for a learner to fully master pronunciation of a second language.

**The second change is one's memorization** capabilities. It is fairly well known that as a person grows older their ability to hold large amount of information reaches its peak fairly early in life, and then begins to decrease.

**The third physical change that occurs is more related to neurology**.

How might neurological (brain) development affect second language success? Does the maturation of the brain at some point influence language acquisition ability? Some scholars have singled out the lateralization of the brain as the key to answer.

Brain lateralization is a term used to describe the neurological functions that take place in each of the brain’s two hemispheres.

Researchers have attempted to find out when lateralization takes place and the impact it has on language learning. Some researchers have suggested that as the brain matures, the prospect of acquiring a second language becomes much more difficult.

Many scholars believe that lateralization takes places between the age of 2 and the age of 12. Some scholars believe that full lateralization of the brain occurred sometime around the age of 5. The brain, basically, assigns specific functions to each hemisphere. For instance, **the left side is responsible for language ability** in humans. Plasticity or the capabilities of the brain are at their greatest during childhood. Second language learners were found to use their **right hemisphere** (which controls the emotional functions) more than first language learners.

It has been found that cognitive developments of the human brain occur quite rapidly over the first 16 years of life (Brown 1994) and decrease after adulthood. As well, Jean Piaget found that puberty is the most critical stage for language acquisition. It is after puberty that people often experience more difficulty in acquiring a second language and a natural or native-like accent (Brown 1994).

Children are so successful in learning second languages because they are not “aware that they are even learning a second language” (Brown 1994). Children are not conscious of the fact that they are even acquiring sophisticated rules of language and master their first language and develop their knowledge of syntax subconsciously.

Language learning is mainly a matter of imitation. First he listens, and then he speaks. Understanding always precedes speaking. Therefore, this must be the right order of presenting the skills in a foreign language. The natural order for first and second language learning is listening, speaking, reading, and writing. A small child simply uses language. He does not learn formal grammar. You don't tell him about verbs and nouns. A child of 5 or 6 easily learns words and sentences of a foreign language and associates them directly with the things, actions, etc. He learns a sentence as a sense unit without any strain as easily as he learns isolated words. Moreover, it is easier for a child to learn a sentence than isolated words. English words live side by side with words in the native language and the child uses those words which first come to his mind. Therefore in teaching English the children must be given words in connection with selected sentence patterns. For example: *a doll. Give me a doll*. (There are some dolls on the table.) *Give me the doll*. Under these conditions the children will not mix up English and words in the native language in a sentence. They will use sentence patterns, and include the words they need.

Unfortunately, adult second language learners do not acquire the rules of syntax unconsciously as easily as children do. However, it is obvious that this does not mean that it is impossible for adult language learners to attempt to learn a second language. Here the most important is the amount of practice with second language, the motivation and the role of input. The age does not affect all aspects of language. Critical period affects formal properties of a language, mainly phonology.

Some researches suggested that foreign accents, for example, are difficult to overcome after childhood (Brown 1994). As a result, pronunciation is largely dependent on early maturing of the brain.

It is widely believed that the earlier children start to develop a physical skill, the better they will be at that skill. This appears to be true for children who start to play sports or study a musical instrument at a very young age. The child learns to develop and control dozens of muscles and speech organs such as the tongue, lips, throat and mouth. This helps them attain native-like or natural pronunciation.

Adults have, for their L1, already developed muscles in their throat, mouth, lips, etc. and then must go through this process again for their L2. The adult L2 learner must develop new habits for learning their L2. This may be one reason that adult second language learners have more difficulty achieving a native-like accent, whereas, children learning a second language are more successful in acquiring a native-like accent. However, it is possible for adult L2 learners to still achieve high fluency in their second language without having native-like pronunciation.

The one advantage adults seem to have over children is their cognitive ability. Adults are better able to benefit from learning about structure and grammar.

**The fourth puberty change** is within the emotional or affective realm. The emotional changes much affect **motivation** of learning. A child's motivation is simple. In order to communicate and to be a part of family and society the child must master the target language. Adult motivations usually fall into one of two categories: integrative motivation (which encourages a learner to acquire the new language in order to become closer to and/or identify themselves with the speakers of the target language) or instrumental motivation (which encourages a learner to acquire proficiency for some practical purposes e.g. career, study abroad etc. Either one of these types of motivation must be prevalent for successful acquisition to take place. Also, first language learning often takes place in a meaningful context, whereas second language learning usually occurs in an artificial environment such as a classroom.

The final change that takes place, and changes language learning has to do with **egocentricity.** Children are naturally egocentric. While learning their language they are not afraid to make mistakes, and in general, they do not feel upset when they are corrected. Children are not worried about what other people will think of them if they make a mistake. Adults, on the other hand usually feel frustrated or threatened in the struggle of learning a different language. Mistakes are seen more as failures than as opportunities for growth. Adults tend to believe that mistakes should not be made and feel humiliated or foolish when they make a mistake. The adult learner may also feel greatly frustrated, for being only able to express their highly complex ideas at a discourse level of an elementary school pupil. These new emotions leave an adult learner in a slightly helpless position, unable to regain the egocentricity of their childhood. As a result, many adult second language learners give up.

Factors such as motivation, quality and quantity of input and a lack of egocentrism, among many other factors, will forever stand in the way of adult second language learning.

**Practical class 1. General problems of foreign language teaching**

**1. Questions to be discussed**

1. The practical aims of teaching foreign language.

2. The content of foreign language teaching.

3. The syllabus for school. What is stated by this document?

4. Difference between first and second language acquisition.

5. Sensitive period for learning language.

6. Second language acquisition and maturational changes in the brain at puberty.

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**2. Questions for control**

1 What are the practical aims of teaching foreign language?

2. What is linguistic competence?

3. What is speech competence?

4. What subcompetences does linguasociocultural competence include?

5. What is the content of foreign language teaching?

6. What stages are there in teaching language in school?

7. What information is given in the syllabus?

8. What are major differences in teaching first (L1) and second language (L2)?

9. How do you understand “sensitive period” for learning language?

10. What are main changes at puberty?

11. Why is the learning L2 more difficult after sensitive period?

12. Is it possible to achieve native-like accent while learning L2?

13. What kind of motivation have the L2 learners ?

14. How does egocentricity help in leaning L2?

**3. Practical tasks to do:**

1. Make up a table of content of teaching.

2. Make up a table of aims of teaching.

3. Make up a table of differences between L1 and L2 acquisition.

4. Make up a table of changes at puberty.

**4. Glossary. Practical class 1 (Lecture 1)**

1. **Learn the following methodological terms:**

level - рівень володіння ІМ

breakthrough – рівень виживання

waystage – допороговий/базовий

threshold – пороговий рівень (комунікативно-достатній рівень володіння ІМ, необхідний для спілкування ІМ)

vantage – пороговий просунутий

mastery – досконалого володіння

effective operational proficiency - рівень професійного володіння

linguistic competence – мовна компетенція

phonologicalcompetence –фонетична компетенція

speech competence – мовленнєва компетенція

sociocultural competence - соціокультурна компетенція

communicative competence - комунікативна компетенція

linguasociocultural competence – лінгвосоціокультурна компетенція

sociolinguistic competence – соціолінгвістична компетенція

social competence – соціальна компетенція

academic-strategic competence –навчально-стратегічна компетенція

academic competence – навчальна компетенція

strategic competence - стратегічна компетенція

compensation competence - компенсаторна компетенція

learning strategies – навчальні стратегії

metacognitive strategy – метапізнавальна стратегія

cognitive strategy – когнитівна стратегія

communication strategies – комунікативні стратегії

affective strategy – емоціональна, афективна стратегія

vocabulary - лексика

period - урок

academic content of the subject – зміст предмету

National Curriculum – Державний освітній стандарт

the foreign language syllabus- навчальний план з іноземної мови

linguistic material- языковой материал мовний матеріал?

language material – мовний матеріал

speech material - мовленнєвий матеріал

written language – письмова мова

oral language – усна мова

acquire - засвоювати

skills – навички та вміння

realm. - область, сфера

plasticity - пластичність, гнучкість, рухливість

the lateralization of the brain – літералізація функцій головного мозку

the left hemisphere – ліва напівкуля

neurology. – нервова система

puberty- статеве зрілість

input – навчальний матеріал

rapidity- повторюваність

target language – мова, що вивчається

first and second language acquisition – засвоєння першої і другої мови

discourse – дискурс

**5. Multiple choice test**

**Circle the correct variant.**

1.Which of these units belong to the speech material?

a) vocabulary and grammar minima

b) texts for reading

c) grammar rules

2. Which of these units belong to the language material?

a) audiotexts.  
b) phonemes and intonation patterns.  
c) situations

3. Which of the following types of speech activities relates to the receptive?

a) writing.  
b) monologue.  
a) reading.

4. Acomponent of linguasociocultural competence is:

a) professional competence;  
b) linguistic competence;  
c) socio-cultural competence;

5. At puberty there are changes in

a) muscular plasticity

b) speech organs

c) language surrounding

6. A second language is acquired more effectively in:

a) a meaningful context

b) a classroom environment

c) in a language speaking country

7. Speech competence is the ability:

a) to form a meaningful whole

b) to master the linguistic code of a language

c) to develop vocabulary skills

8. Linguistic competence does not include:

a) grammar competence

b) competence in technique of reading

c) the ability to connect sentences in stretches of discourse

**Lecture 2. TEACHING PHONETIC MATERIAL**

**(DEVELOPMENT OF PHONOLOGICAL COMPETENCE)**

**1. Aims, tasks and content of teaching pronunciation at schools**

**2. The factors that affect teaching pronunciation**

**3. How to teach pronunciation. Typology of phonetic exercises**

**1. Aims, tasks and content of teaching pronunciation at schools**

The importance of correct pronunciation in language learning is obvious. The basis of all languages is sound. The first impact of any language comes from the spoken word. Words are merely combinations of sounds. It is in these sound sequences that the ideas are contained.

The first experience is listening. The acquisition of good pronunciation depends to a great extent on the learner's ability of listening with care and discrimination. One of the tasks of language teaching consists in devising ways to help the learner "aud" the unfamiliar sounds. Therefore teaching pronunciation is of great importance in the developing of pupils' hearing and speaking habits and skills.

Teaching pronunciation is of no less importance in the developing of reading and writing habits and skills, since writing (or what is written) is a graphic representation of sound sequences. In reading the visual images become acoustic images. These are combined with kinesthetic images, resulting in inner speech. Hidden articulation movements were registered when a person seemed silent just listening to somebody else talking or reading a text.

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

The target of teaching pronunciation is to develop in learners’ **phonological competence**, which involves the knowledge of phonetic system, and skills in the perception and production of:

the sound units (*phonemes*) of the language and their realization in particular contexts (*allophones*); the phonetic features which distinguish phonemes (distinctive features, e.g. voicing, rounding, nasality, plosion); the phonetic composition of words (*syllable structure,* the sequence of phonemes, word stress, word tones); sentence phonetics (prosody) - sentence stress and rhythm, intonation.

Phonological competence includes the knowledge of how speech sounds

(phonemes) are used in actual speech production. This includes **elisions** (absence of sounds as in "Chris/t/mas") and **assimilation** (where one sound merges in the next sound as in "hambag" standing for "handbag", "lasyear" (last year), "cabnet" (cabinet), etc.). This is called "modification of phonemes in connected speech".

The pronunciation of words is not only a matter of sounds, but also of stress or accent. Some words have the heavier stress on the first part of the word: *sorry, evening, morning, answer,* and other words have the heavier stress on the second part: *begin, mistake, about, reduce, result, occur, effect.*

Stress is very important for English pronunciation. Foreigners often find it difficult to understand an Englishman's speech and ask him to speak more slowly, because in quick speech the accented syllables are so strong that they almost drown the others.

The pronunciation of sentence patterns includes also variations of musical tones: rise and fall. Sometimes the learners speaking English use wrong intonation because of the interference of the mother tongue. That often leads to misunderstanding and impoliteness. For example, '*Will you 'wait for me’ here?* is not only a wrong tone-pattern, but is impolite in its form.

Therefore, **the content of teaching pronunciation** is hearing-pronunciation skills and rhythmical- intonation skills.

By hearing - pronunciation skills we mean skills of phonemically correct pronunciation in speech of all the sounds studied and recognition of all the sounds while listening to the speech of others. The pupils should know all sounds and diphthongs, to articulate English sounds correctly, should be taught to discriminate or to distinguish English sounds from sounds of the native language, long sounds from short ones.

By rhythmical- intonation skills, we mean skills to produce intonationally and rhythmically correct speech and comprehension of the speech of others.

Pupils should study English literary pronunciation which constitutes received pronunciation. This is the language of radio, TV, theatres, universities and schools. In our schools we teach pupils literary pronunciation which is characterized by: (a) clear stress in all the rhythmic groups, b) clear pronunciation of the sounds, for example, *give me* and not *gimme* admitted by colloquial English; (c) typical abbreviations in auxiliary words: *it's, won't, doesn't, can't shouldn't,* etc.

The goalof teaching pronunciation is not to make the learners sound like native speakers of English. Absolute correctness is impossible. Only few highly gifted and motivated individuals can achieve it. A more realistic approach is to enable the learners to pronounce the language with the ability to comprehend the message, with the correctness that ensures communication between people speaking the same language. We cannot expect more than approximate correctness. This approach to teaching pronunciation is called **approximating.**

**2. The factors that affect teaching pronunciation**

What are the factors that affect pronunciation in teaching foreign language?

Here we should consider:

1. **Native language**

Any language has its specific phonic system. This is true for English as well. The sounds of English are not the same as the sounds of Russian or Ukrainian, though there are, of course, some sounds which occur both in English and in Russian or Ukrainian. If you are familiar with the sound system of the native language you will be able to diagnose pupils’ difficulties.

Here are some characteristics of the phonic system of the English language as compared with that of the mother-tongue (Ukrainian or Russian).

There are no palatal consonants, and if some consonants may be pronounced slightly palatalized, this does not change the meaning of the word. For instance, we may pronounce the word *like* withdark [1] and light [1], i. e., slightly palatalized, the meaning of the word remains the same. In the Russian language there are palatalized and nonpalatalized consonants and palatalization changes the meaning of the word: e. g., был –быль ; koh — koнь;

In English voice consonants such as *d ,g, z, b*  are never unvoiced in the final position *bed (not be t), dig ( not dik).* Inthe Russian language they are unvoiced. – код (т), слог (к), столб (п);

The learners make errors in pronouncing the foreign sounds because particular sounds may be absent in the mother tongue. **They are - *w, r, h, ŋ, Ə, θ.*** It is the first group of the sounds to pay attention to in teaching English. These sounds are strange to pupils and they need much practice. To pronounce these sounds we should develop new articulation base. A person learning a foreign language unconsciously continues to use his muscles in the old ways and substitutes the phonemes and the intonation of his native language, e. g., he pronounces *zis* instead of *this,* or *veal* instead. of *wheel;* He does not even notice his mistake.

Learners have some difficulty with the sound [ŋ]. In English it comes in the middle or at the end of many words: *English, think, song, sitting, longer* and presents a lot of trouble to pupils to produce it correctly as there is no sound like this in Russian or Ukrainian.

Some sounds may exist in the mother tongue but with a different articulation (e.g. long and short vowels (i:, i , o, o:, open ǽ). It is the second group of the sounds. Similar native sounds may change the meaning of an English words , e.g.( bed – bad); (beat – bit).

And the third group of the sounds that are similar to the native language sounds – b, m, s, z . They do not need much practice, just imitation.

**2. Age**

It is the next factor that influences pronunciation**.**

Children under the age of puberty stand an excellent chance of sounding like a native if they have continued exposure in authentic contexts. Beyond the age of puberty, adults will almost surely maintain a foreign accent. Here a fifty-year old can be as successful as 18-year old if all other factors are equal. Here the youth has no special advantage.

1. **Exposure**

It is time when a learner is “with people”. The quality and intensity of exposure is more important than the length of time. In class time we should spend time focusing on pronunciation. Just living in a foreign country doesn’t help much without this full concentration on the pronunciation.

1. **Innate phonetic ability**

Some people manifest a phonetic ability; they have an “ear” for language. In many cases, if a person had exposure to a foreign language as a child he has a “knack” at language later even if he doesn’t remember the language. Others are simply more or less attuned to phonetic discriminations. If pronunciation seems to be difficult for some pupils they can achieve their level of competence but with some effort and concentration.

1. **Motivation and concern for good pronunciation**

If the motivation and concern is high then good pronunciation can be achieved by any learner with the necessary effort as motivation is the strongest factor among the all factors that affect pronunciation.

**3. How to teach pronunciation**. **Typology of phonetic exercises**

In the English language the words have long changed their pronunciation but their original spelling still remains the same. The English orthographic system functions on the "conservative principle" while pronunciation appears to be more dynamic and changes with time.

In teaching pronunciation there are at least two methodological problems the teacher faces: (1) to determine the cases where conscious manipulation of the speech organs is required, and the cases where simple imitation can or must be used; (2) to decide on types of exercises and the techniques of using them.

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

The teacher's task is to determine which sounds the pupils will find hard to pronounce, which sounds they can assimilate through imitation, and which sounds require explanations of the position of 'the organs of speech while producing them. Pupils must become conscious of the differences between English sounds and those of the native language. This is possible provided the foreign sound is contrasted with the native phoneme which is substituted for it, e.g.: ***[i:] - и:****вушка - s****ea***

Press your lips tightly if it is [b, m, p], and press the tip of the tongue to the alveoli but not to the teeth if it is *[d, t, n, l, і, ]*

First pronounce *[д, л, н, ч, т]* in Russian words: *надо - только - доля - надежда - чело - дочь - точка.* Then pronounce the same words with English pronunciation according to the rule - tip of the tongue + alveoli *[n]а[d]о - [t]о[l]ко - [d]о[l]я - [n]а[d]еж[d]а - []е[l]о - [d]о[] - [t]о[]ка.*

Teaching English pronunciation in schools should be based on **analytical –imitative method.** Here the following procedure in teaching pronunciation should be observed:

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

*E. g. It is a tree. It is a green tree.*

*Tree, green*

*[r]*

Pupils are invited to find the correct position of the tip of the tongue for pronouncing *[r]*. For example with the help of Russian word *“жир”.* After they have found the position of the tongue for *[r]* they pronounce it as a single unit or as an isolated element. Then they pronounce the sound in the word *tree, green* and in the sentence: *It is a tree. It is a green tree*.

The sequence in the teacher's work with the sound and in that of pupils' differs:

Teacher:

a sentence— *It is a tree. The book is thick.*  
a word— *tree thick*

a sound *— [r]*  **[***θ*]

Pupil:

a sound— *[r]* [*θ*]

a word— tree thick

a sentence— *It is a tree. The book is thick.*

Pupils pronounce first in unison, then individually, and then in unison again until the teacher sees that they can pronounce the sound, the word with the sound, and the whole sentence correctly. When asking individuals to pronounce a sound, a word, and a sentence the teacher first asks bright, then average, and finally slow pupils to pronounce what is required. After the stage of introduction the teacher moves to the stage of automation to develop pronunciation skills.

Exercises used for developing pronunciation skills may be of two groups: **receptive exercises** and **reproductive exercises.**

**Receptive exercises** are designed for developing pupils' ability to discriminate sounds and sound sequences, i.e. for developing pupils’ phonemic hearing. Indeed the acquisition of correct English pronunciation by pupils depends to a great extent on their ability to aud. That is language perception. Pupils should have much practice in listening to be able to acquire the phonic aspect of the language. The ability to aud is developed with the help of exercise for **recognition, discrimination, identification.**

***Recognition*** exercises develop pupils’ ability to recognize a new sound, to recognize the new sound in a sound combination, in words, in phrases, and sentences by hearing. The teacher pronounces a number of English words and asks his pupils to recognize the new sound. For example, the new sound is [ǽ]. The teacher pronounces the words: *a desk, a nest, a pen, a pan, a bed, bad.* When a pupil hears the new sound he raises his hand and in this way the teacher sees whether the pupil can recognize the new sound among other sounds already learned or not. One more example: The teacher pronounces the sentence: *I see three green trees* – and asks the pupils to say how many times they here long i: . The teacher pronounces English phrases with a rising or falling tone and asks pupils to raise their hands when they hear a falling tone, e. g., *with my 'friend —with my ,friend*; *in his ‘hand — in his ,hand.* If pupils raise their hands in the right place then they can recognize the melody.

***Discrimination*** exercises develop pupils’ ability to discriminate a new sound in words or in sentences. The teacher asks the pupils to say whether there is any difference in the words he pronounces, and he pronounces [ju:z] — [ju:s],

[li:v]- [liv], [mi:t]- [mi:l] (put + is they sound similar or – if they are different). Or the teacher asks the pupils to say which word is stressed. They left for Kiev yesterday

(the second, the fourth and the fifth). Visual perception of the teacher when he produces English sounds and sound sequences facilitates auding; listening to the speaker from a tape-recording or a record without seeing the speaker is more difficult for pupils.

***Identification*** sentences develop pupils’ ability to identifying a new sound. The teacher asks the pupils to show a card with the transcription of the sound or the word they heard.

**Reproductive exercises** are designed for developing pupils' ability to articulate English sounds correctly and to combine sounds into words, phrases and sentences easily enough to be able to speak English and to read aloud in this language. These exercises are designed on the material of single sounds, words, sentences.

It can be done:

a**)** byperforming **imitative exercises:**

The teacher asks them to listen to him and repeat after him:

words:*this, that, with, without, other, another- no, go, home, alone, don't*;

sentences: *My birthday is on Thursday, the thirteenth of May.*

b) by performing **substation exercises**:

The teacher asks the pupils to complete the sentence using a word or word combination with the new sound. *Don't go home …..; My birthday is on …..*

c) by **answering**  some questions, in the answers the pupils use words with the new sound. *What can you see in the picture? (a tree)*

The ability to hear the difference in pronunciation of people should be developed from the very first steps. The teachers should design a special stage for developing pronunciation at each lesson in primary school. But pronunciation is a skill that should be developed and improved throughout the whole course of learning the language that is why at the intermediate and senior stages the teacher should use pronunciation drill during the lesson. A few minutes at each lesson must be devoted to drilling the sounds which are most difficult for pupils.

The place of a pronunciation drill should not be strictly fixed. The teacher may turn to pronunciation drill whenever he wants to draw his pupils' attention to the phonic aspect of the material they deal with and in this way teach pupils correct English pronunciation.

The material used for pronunciation drill should be connected with the lesson pupils study. These may be sounds, words, word combinations, phrases, sentences, rhymes, poems, and dialogues. International words, proper names, geographical names, etc., can also be used for pronunciation drill. The material for a particular lesson depends on the stage of teaching, pupils' progress in the language, their age, the objectives of the lesson.

If pupils often repeat the same mistakes again and again then the teacher can either begin the lesson with pronunciation drill or find a special stage within the lesson for the drill. If pupils mispronounce words with [*ә:*], the following words and sentences could be suggested for pronunciation drill as warming up activity: *first, girl, word, work, worker, birthday, Thursday, thirteen, thirteenth. My birthday is on Thursday, the thirteenth of May.*

If the teacher is going to introduce the Present Continuous, pupils should review how to pronounce [*ŋ*]. The pronunciation drill may include the following words: *English, song, sing, drink, think, thing* and pairs of words: *write* — *writing; read* — *reading; sit* — *sitting; open*— *opening; study — studying; play* — *playing.*

The same should be done with the regular verbs in the Past Indefinite when pupils study this tense.

The words are arranged into three groups in accordance with the sound each one ends in: *[t], [d], [id].*

*wash — washed open — opened want — wanted*

*thank — thanked close — closed skate — skated*

*work —-worked live — lived recite— recited*

*stop — stopped smile — smiled rest — rested*

**Practical class 2. Teaching phonetic material (development of phonological** i**competence)**

**1. Questions to be discussed**

1. Role of correct pronunciation in language learning. Aims, tasks and content of teaching pronunciation.

2. The factors that affect pronunciation. Brief characteristics of the phonic system of the English language as compared with that of the mother tongue.

3. How to teach pronunciation. Typology of phonetic exercises.

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**2. Questions for control**

1. What is pronunciation?

2. What is the aim of teaching pronunciation?

3. What is a pronunciation skill?

4. What is an intonation skill?

5. What is meant by the idea of approximation in teaching pronunciation?

6. What is the content of teaching pronunciation?

7. What is the technique of the presentation of a new sound?

8. What types of exercises are used in teaching pronunciation?

9. What are the tasks of a phonetic drill?

10. What techniques are used for a phonetic drill?

11. What are peculiarities of the phonic systems of the mother-tongue and the target language?

12. What are the factors that affect pronunciation?

**3. Practical tasks to do**

1. Make up a catalogue of exercises for teaching pronunciation.

2. Design fragments of lessons on presentation and primary assimilation of the phonemes (**- *w, r, θ,* i:).** Act out the designed fragments.

3. Learn Tongue twisters for teaching pronunciation of the sounds ***w, r, h, ŋ, Ə, θ* i:, ǽ, ә:.**

**4. Glossary. Practical class 2 (Lecture 2)**

1. **Learn the following methodological terms:**

discrimination - відмінність

inner speech – внутрішня мова

to comprehend - розуміти

approximating – наближення до норми

received pronunciation.- прийнята стандартна вимова

hearing-pronunciation skills- слухо-вимовні навички

rhythmical- intonation skills – ритмико-інтонаційні навички

drown - заглушати

a “knack” (nak at language) – здібності

exposure – мовне оточення, мовне середовище, частота спілкування

innate phonetic ability – природжені фонематичні здібності

attune- пристосовуватися

phonetic discrimination – здатність розрізняти, розпізнавати фонеми

phonemic hearing- фонематичний слух

receptive exercise –вправа на сприйняття, рецептивна вправа

reproductive exercise – репродуктивна вправа

imitative exercises- імітативні вправи

analytical –imitative method –аналітико-імітативний метод

recognition – впізнання

discrimination– дифференціація

identification- ідентифікація

substation exercises – підстановчі вправи

phonetic drill – тренувальні вправи, дрилли на звуки

**5. Multiple choice test.**

**Circle the correct variant.**

**1. Correct pronunciation is:**

a) necessary condition of communication;

b) an unimportant factor.

**2. The main aim of teaching pronunciation at school is:**

a) to pronounce the most important sounds correctly;

b) to form pronunciation and intonation skills.

**3. The first group of exercises to teach pronunciation is:**

c) speech exercises;

d) reproductive exercises;

e) receptive exercises.

**4. The English literary pronunciation is called:**

a) received pronunciation;

b) colloquial.

**5. Distribute the sounds /m, t., g, s, r, k, w, q, h, h/ into 3 groups:**

a) the sounds which don’t need any special explanation or drill;

b) the sounds which require corrections;

c) the sounds which require special demonstration.

**6. Pupils should hear first a particular sound:**

a) separately/ in isolation;

b) in a speech pattern;

c) in a word.

**7. We should start teaching pronunciation with:**

a) speech exercises;

b) articulation exercises;

c) receptive exercises;

**Lecture 3. TEACHING LEXICAL MATERIAL**

**(DEVELOPMENT OF LEXICAL COMPETENCE)**

**1. Active, passive and potential** **vocabulary.**

**2. Factors which determine the process of teaching vocabulary.**

**3. How to teach vocabulary in school.**

**1. Active, passive and potential** **vocabulary**

Vocabulary is one of the aspects of the language to be taught in school. To know words it doesn’t mean to know a language, pupils should know how to use the vocabulary for communication. The aim in teaching vocabulary is to develop lexical competence –the knowledge how to use vocabulary for communication.

**How many words are there and how many do we need to teach?**

It’s almost impossible to say exactly how many words there are in English.

The *Global Language Monitor* has counted up to almost a million at 988,968. *Webster’s Third New International Dictionary ,* 1993 includes around 470,000 entries.

Counting words is a complicated business. What do we mean by a word? Look at these members of the word family *RUN*: *run, runs ,running, ran, runner,* and *runners.* Should we count these as one “word” or six? How do we count different uses of the same word? For example, is the verb *run* the same in *run a marathon* as in *run a company*? How do we deal with idiomatic uses like *run out of gas,* or *a run of bad luck*? And, of course, new words are being added to the language all the time; the Internet especially has given us lots of new words like *blog.*

Despite such difficulties, researchers have tried to estimate how many words native speakers know in order to assess the number of words learners need to learn. Estimates for native speakers vary between 12,000 and 20,000 depending on their level of education. One estimate is that a native speaker with university education knows about 20,000 word families (Goulden, Nation, and Read, 1990), not including phrases and expressions. Current learners’ dictionaries such as the *Cambridge Dictionary of American English* include more than 40,000 frequently used words and phrases.

Because some high-frequency words are repeated, it is said that learners can understand a large proportion of texts with a relatively small vocabulary. So, for example, learners who know the most frequent 2,000 words should be able to understand almost 80 percent of the words in an average text, and a knowledge of 5,000 words increases learners’ understanding to 88.7 percent (Francis and Kucera 1982). For spoken language, about 1,800 words make up over 80 percent of the spoken corpus (McCarthy 2004; O’Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter 2007). So learning from 2,000 up to 5,000 words, it represents an achievable learning goal for most learners.

It is evident that the number of words learning in schools should be limited because pupils have only 2—4 periods a week; the size of the group is not small enough to provide each pupil with practice in speaking; schools are not yet equipped with special laboratories for individual language learning. The number of words pupils should acquire in school depends wholly on the syllabus requirements. The textbooks now in use contain more word units than the syllabi set. According to the syllabus for comprehensive schools the pupils are to know about 1200 -1500 lexical units and for specialized schools about 2500 lexical units. In the vocabulary minimum words and phraseological units are included.

Modern tendency is to select vocabulary depending on the language activities to be developed. In teaching vocabulary 3 minima are distinguished: **active vocabulary, passive and potential**. Active and passive minima are real vocabulary. Potential vocabulary includes the words the meaning of which the pupils can guess themselves. They are international words (*internet, resolution, businessman etc*.), compound word

(*reader, snowman, etc*.), converted words (*water, n – water, v*), new meaning of a known polysemantic words (*face, hand, etc*). Due to the context and guessing the vocabulary of a learner can be increased by 8-12 times. It is an individual potential vocabulary.

For developing speaking and writing skills pupils need "active/productive vocabulary". For developing listening and reading skills pupils need "passive/receptive vocabulary".

The aim in teaching active vocabulary is to develop **reproductive vocabulary skills.** It is skills to use active vocabulary in speaking and writing, that is in oral and written communication.

The aim in teaching passive vocabulary is to develop **receptive vocabulary skills.** It is n skills to recognize and understand active and passive vocabulary while listening and reading, skills to guess the meaning of a word of the potential vocabulary. Students often feel frustrated that they can understand more than they can produce, but it is a normal part of learning.

According to linguistic approach the following principles of word selection for active and passive minimum are used.

**1. Frequency**

Which words and expressions are most frequent and which are rare. It is derived by counting the number of occurrences of words appearing in spoken language or in printed materials (novels/ essays, plays, poems, newspapers, textbooks, and magazines). Frequency lists are useful to help us make choices about what to teach and in what order. For example, we can see that many idioms are rare, so we can teach them later in the language programme. On the other hand, we can see which items in a large vocabulary set (colors, types of music, clothing, health problems, etc.) people talk about most and teach those first, leaving the less frequent words until later.

**2.** **Differences in speaking and writing**

Which vocabulary is more often spoken and which is more often written. For example, the word *nice* is in the top fifteen words in conversation, but it is rare in written academic English. The word *probably* is about five times more frequent in conversation than in newspapers. On the other hand, *however* is eight times more frequent in newspapers than in conversation.

**3. Contexts of use**

The situations in which people use certain vocabulary, whether an item of vocabulary is used by everyone in all kinds of situations, or mostly by people who know each other very well, or mostly in more polite situations with strangers or work colleagues, etc.

4. **Collocation**

Which words are often used together. This is particularly useful for finding the collocates of verbs like *have, get, make,* and *do,* which are often referred to as delexical verbs*.* These are verbs which don’t have a (lexical) meaning of their own, but take their meaning from the words that they are used with. For example, the verb *make* has a different meaning in each of the expressions *make a cake, make a decision,* and *make fun of,* so it is sensible to teach verbs like these in expressions, as collocations.

1. **Grammatical patterns**

How words and grammar combine to form patterns.

1. **Strategic use of vocabulary**

Which words and expressions are used to organize and manage discourse.

The principles mentioned above demonstrate the linguistic approach to word selection. The selection of the vocabulary is not the teacher's chief concern. It is only the "what" of teaching and is usually prescribed for him by textbooks. The teacher's concern is "how" to get his pupils to assimilate the vocabulary prescribed.

**2. Factors which determine the process of teaching vocabulary**

The teacher must know the difficulties pupils experience in assimilating vocabulary and factors which determine the process of teaching vocabulary.

**1. Linguistic factors**

Every word has its form, meaning, and usage and each of these aspects of the word may have its difficulties. Indeed, some words are difficult in form *(daughter, busy, bury,)* and easy in usage; other words are easy in form *(enter, get, happen)* and difficult in usage. Consequently, words may be classified according to the difficulties pupils find in assimilation. We should distinguish the following groups of words: concrete, abstract, and structural.

Words denoting concrete things *(book, street, sky),* actions *(walk, dance, read),* and qualities *(long, big, good)* are easier to learn than words denoting abstract notions *(world, believe, promise, honest).* Structural words are the most difficult for pupils. Structural words (or function or grammatical words) serve to express grammatical relationships with other words within a sentence and between sentences. Structural words include articles, determiners, pronouns, prepositions, connectives, modal verbs. *E.g. this book; this = structural word, book = concrete word*

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

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

The word *grandmother* is used instead of the sentence pattern. *Yes, I have a grandmother. Train, boy, house, take —* conveys no meaning. *'The boy takes a train to his house'* is full of meaning." The meaning is not in the words themselves but in the words as a 'pattern".

**2. Psycholinguistic factors**

Speech is taken in by ear and reproduced by the organs of speech. In teaching pupils vocabulary both the ear and the organs of speech should take an active part in the assimilation of words. Pupils should have practice in hearing words and pronouncing them not only as isolated units but in various sentences in which they occur. Here are some rules for the teacher.

**Rule 1**: While teaching pupils vocabulary, introduce words in sentence patterns in different situations of intercourse. Then fix them in the pupils' memory through different exercises in sentence patterns and phrase patterns.

**Rule 2**: While introducing a word pronounce it yourself in a context, ask pupils to pronounce it both individually and in unison in a context, too.

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

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

1. to present the word, to get his pupils to identify the concept correctly;
2. to get them to recall or recognize the word by means of different exercises;
3. to stimulate pupils to use the words in speech.

**3. How to teach vocabulary in school**

There are 3 stages in teaching vocabulary: 1. **presentation or explanation**, 2. **retention or miming** and 3. **practice or consolidation.**

**Stage 1. Presentation of new words.**

Here the teacher should remember the following.

- The vocabulary of **active minimum** should be presented in the oral form in separate sentences or in a text.

- To present a word means to introduce to pupils its forms (phonetic, graphic- structural, and grammatical) and usage and to explain its meaning.

So there are 2 steps in presentation: **introduction of new words** (7-12 words) and **conveying the meaning** of new words.

**Introduction of new words.** The teacher has great possibilities for pictorial and written representation of words on the blackboard. He can use either printed pictures, or pictures drawn by himself or by the pupils for classroom teaching and, finally, pictures cut out of periodicals. He should use slides, film-strips, maps, plans, objects, etc.

As the first perception is of great importance for storing, the first presentation must be as bright as possible and connected with this or that vital situation. After the oral presentation the teacher says new words (each word separately), and pupils repeat them in unison and individually. It is necessary for primary acquiring of the sound form of a word. New words are also written down to make three kinds of memory

(acoustical, visual and motor) work. Note that children have visual and motor kinds of memory more developed. They say, the one who writes, that reads twice.

So the teacher shows the pupils how to pronounce, to read, and write a new word.

The teacher writes down the word on the blackboard (let it be *spoon*) and invites some pupils to read it (they already know all the letters and the rule of reading *oo).* The pupils read the word and put it down in their notebooks. In this case the pupils have two more difficulties to overcome: to learn how to write and how to read the word. Later when pupils have learned the English alphabet and acquired some skills in spelling and reading they may be told to copy the new words into their exercise-books and read and write them independently; this work being done mainly as homework.

Next stage **is conveying the meaning** of the words.

There are two methods of conveying the meaning of words: **direct method and translation.**

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

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

The teacher may use gestures, for example, for conveying the meaning of *stand up, sit down*. He says: *Lena, stand up.* He shows with his hands what she must do.

T: *Lena, stand up*. *Now,' sit down.* With the movement of his hands he shows the girl what she has to do. The other pupils listen to the teacher and watch what Lena is doing. Then many pupils are invited to perform the actions.

The second group of techniques involves the utilization of **verbal means** for conveying the meaning of unfamiliar words. These may be: context, synonyms, antonyms, definitions, word-building elements, etc.

Teacher: *It* *was hot. We had nothing to drink. We were thirsty. Do people need water when they are thirsty? They need water.* Teacher: *What do people need when they are thirsty? They need water (or something to drink).*

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

The teacher may use a definition. Teacher: *The new word is* ***blind****. A blind person is one who cannot see.* The mother tongue has not been used.

Now an example of the use of the word-building elements for conveying the meaning of words.

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

The teacher asks the pupils to form a verb by dropping the ending *–er.* This work may be done on the blackboard: *teacher* — *teach.*

Teacher: *Who teaches you English?* Pupi1: *You do*. Teacher: *Who teaches you geography?* Pupil: *Maria Ivanovna does*.

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

It is difficult to cover all the techniques the teacher may have at his disposal to convey the meaning of new words directly without the help of the mother tongue. There are teachers, however, who do not admit that pupils can understand what a new word means without translating it into the native tongue, and though they use some techniques of the direct method for conveying the meaning of new words, they immediately ask their pupils to say *what is the Russian for...?*

Forexample, teacher presented the word *ball* in the second form. She had brought a ball. She showed the ball to the pupils and said: *This is a ball ... a ball. The ball is red and blue. What is the Ukrainian for 'a ball', children?- Who can guess?* Of course everyone could. They cried: М’ЯЧ. What is the use of bringing the ball if the teacher turns to the mother tongue? So instead of developing pupils' abilities and skills in establishing associations between the English word and the object it denotes, she emphasized the necessity for the use of the mother tongue in learning the word. It does not mean, of course, that the teacher cannot turn tothe mother tongue to check pupils' comprehension when uses the direct method of conveying the meaning of difficult words not like *a ball* — when he is not sure that everyone has understood them properly.

If the teacher cannot work with visual aids and is not an actor to a certain extent (after all, every teacher ought to be something of an actor), it is he, but not the method, who fails in conveying the meaning of new words.

The use of the direct method, however, is restricted. Whenever the teacher is to present words denoting abstract notions he must resort to the mother tongue, i. e., to translation. (*friendship, motherland, etc*) and use the translation method.

From psychology it is known that the more active the pupils are during the explanation of new words the better the results that can be achieved. The choice of methods and techniques is a very important factor as it influences pupils' assimilation of words.

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

1.Psychological factors:

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

-pupils' intelligence: the brighter the child the more direct the method.

2.Pedagogical factors:

-the stage of teaching (junior, intermediate, senior);

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

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

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

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

3.Linguistic factors:

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

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

As far as the stages of instruction are concerned, the methods of conveying the meaning of unfamiliar words should be used as follows:

**visual presentation** prevails in junior forms;

**verbal means** prevail in intermediate and senior forms;

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

For vocabulary assimilation two groups of exercises may be recommended:

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

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

They are performed on the next stages (stage 2 and 3).

**Stage 2. Retention of words. Miming.**

Correct usage of words means the correct choice and insertion of the words in speech. To use a word the pupil should, first, search for it in his memory, choose the very word he needs, and then insert the word in a sentence, i. e., use it properly to express his thought.

To attain the desired end pupils must first of all perform various exercises to fix the words in their memory. For this purpose it is necessary to organize pupils' work in a way permitting them to approach the new words from many different sides, in many different ways, by means of many different forms of work. The teacher can ensure lasting retention of words for his pupils provided he relies upon pupils' sensory perception and thinking, upon their auditory, visual, and kinaesthetic analysers so that pupils can easily recognize the words while hearing or reading, and use them while speaking or writing whenever they need.

Learning vocabulary is largely about remembering, and students generally need to see, say, and write newly learned words many times before they are able to remember and use them. Some researchers have suggested various numbers of **encounters** with a word for learning to take place, ranging from five to up to twenty. [see, e.g., Nation (1990); Rott (1999); Ghadirian (2002)].

The group of exercises for retention or miming may include the following **language exercises**:

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

- Pick out the words (a) which denote school objects: *(1) a pen, (2) a cup, (3) a blackboard, (4) a desk, (5) a bed, (6) a picture, (7) a car -* pupils are expected to take (1), (3), (4), -(6);

or (b) which denote size: *(1) red,(2) big,(3) good,(4) small,(5) great,(6) green* - pupils should take (2), (4), (5).

- Choose the right word: *They (ate, drank) some water*. *The (sheep, fly) is an insect*.

- Arrange the words in pairs of the same root: *usual, danger, development, usually, dangerous, develop* (pupils are expected to arrange the words *usual* — *usually, danger — dangerous...).*

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

- Name the object the teacher shows (the teacher shows pupils *a book*, they say *a book).*

*-* Give it a name: (1) we use it when it rains; (2) it makes our tea sweet; (3) we sleep in it (pupils are expected to say *an umbrella, sugar, a bed.*

* Say those words which (a) you need to speak about winter, (b) refer to sports and games.
* Say the opposites of: *remember, hot, day, get up, answer, tall, thick.*

- Name the words with a similar meaning to: *city, go, cold, reply* (pupils should name *town, walk, cool, answer).*

- Make a list of objects one can see in the classroom.

- Say as many words as you can which denote size (colour or quality).

The aim of the stage is to learn the words and to develop pupils' skills in choosing the proper word. But to really 'know' a word students need to use it. So the teacher arranges the practice with the new words.

**Stage 3. Automation of learners’ actions with new words (Practice or** [**consolidation**](http://www.tnpu.edu.ua/subjects/7426/metangl2/wordlist.htm#consolid)**).**

The pupils should do a great number of exercises which require the use of the words in speaking.The pupils perform exercises designed to form pupils' skills in using the word in sentence, they are **pseudo-communicative exercises of Group II.**

The following order of exercises is recommended:

**1. Imitation.** For example: Agree with me if I am right. T: *The pencil is under the book*. P: *You are right. The pencil is under the book*.

**2. Substitution** For example: Correct me if I am wrong. T: *The pencil is under the book.* P*: You are wrong, the pencil is on the book*

Help me to say it correctly T: *The pencil is* ……

**3. Answer the questions.** For example: T: *Where is the pencil?* P: *The pencil is under the book.*

**4. Combination.** For example: name a quality of the words *sky*, *rain, snow, weather*

(Pupils have to say: (a) *blue sky, heavy rain, white snow, fine weather)*

**5. Reproduction.** For example: T: *Say what you can see here*. (The teacher shows his pupils pens and pencils of different colour and size for them to say *I see* *a blue pen, a long pencil,* etc. Or he can use situational pictures for the purpose.)

Say where the things are. (The teacher puts the pens in different places for pupils to say *The pencil* is *on the table, in the box, under the bag, over the…,* and so on.)

**6. Describe some** object or a picture .  
**7. Play a guessing game**. The teacher, or one of the pupils, thinks of a word. Pupils try to guess the word by asking various questions: *Is it a* ...? *Is it big or small*/? *Can we see it in* *the classroom?*

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

1. the number of exercises to be used;

2. the type of exercises to be used;

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

The desirable relationship between Group1 and Group2 exercises should be in the ratio 1 : 2, that is most of the exercises must be connected with developing pupils' skills in using the words in sentences and in connection with the situations offered.

Vocabulary should be repeated as often as possible in activities that have students actively recall words and produce them in speech.

The following activities are possible at this stage: problem-solving tasks; values clarification; write a story or a dialogue; discussion and role-play.

At both stages of teaching vocabulary the teacher should constantly use all kinds of vocabulary testing to see how his pupils assimilate the form, the meaning, and the usage of the words. For testing the retention of the written form dictations may be suggested. For testing the meaning special tests may be recommended such as writing synonyms, antonyms, identification, and some others. For testing the usage of the words the teacher may administer such tests as making up sentences using the words given, composing a story on a picture or a set of pictures, and some others.

**Practical class 3. Teaching lexical material (development of lexical competence)**

**1. Questions to be discussed**

1. Active, passive and potential vocabulary.

2. Factors which determine the process of teaching vocabulary.

3. How to teach vocabulary in school.

**List of recommended literature**

1. Методика викладання іноземних мов у середніх навчальних закладах / Кол. авторів під керівн. С.Ю. Ніколаєвої. – К.: Ленвіт, 2002. – 328 с.

2. Практикум з методики викладання англійської мови у середніх навчальних закладах: Посібник. Вид. 2-е, доп. і переробл. / Кол. авторів під керівн. С.Ю. Ніколаєвої. – К.: Ленвіт, 2004. – 360 с.

3. Celce-Murcia M. Teaching English as a Second or a Foreign language, 2-nd edition, University of California. - Heinle and Heinle Publishers, 1991.- 567p

4. French Allen, V. Techniques in teaching vocabulary. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1983.

5. Gairns, R. and S. Redman.. Working with words: A guide to teaching and learning vocabulary. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1986

6. Lewis M. & Hill J. Practical Techniques for Language Teaching CUP, 1985.

7. Nation, I. S. P. Teaching and learning vocabulary. Victoria University of Wellington: Heinle and Heinle Publishers, 1990.

8. Rogova G.V. Methods of Teaching English.-Л., Просвещение,1983.-312p.

9. Thornbury S. How to Teach Vocabulary. Longman, 2002.

10. Zdybiewska, M. One-hundred language games. Warszawa: WSiP, 1994.

**2. Questions for control**

1. Explain the notion “vocabulary minimum”.

2. Name differences between active, passive and potential minimum.

3. Name basic criteria for selecting a minimum vocabulary.

4. Described two methods of conveying meaning of the words.

5. Give examples of the direct method of conveying meaning.

6. Give examples of the translation method of conveying meaning.

7. Give examples of exercises for automation of active vocabulary.

8. What role do you see for the learners’ mother tongue in the learning of second language vocabulary?

9. What are some recommendations you can make to someone to improve his vocabulary?

10. Name the factors which determine the process of teaching vocabulary.

11. What are the stages in teaching vocabulary?

12. Comment on the main rules in teaching vocabulary.

13. Give some example of imitative exercises, substitution, combination, reproductive exercises.

**3. Practical tasks to do**

1. Make up a catalogue of exercises for teaching vocabulary

2. Design a lesson plan which includes 3 stages: presentation, miming , practice to teach the words. Topic “Household activities”, Form 7. (7 -12 new words).

3. Prepare a series of situations to stimulate pupils to use the words on Topic “Household activities”. Use two forms of speech: dialogue and monologue.

4. Act out the designed lesson.

5. Examine one of the lessons in Pupil’s Book to deduce upon what methods of conveying meaning of new words are presented. Make your recommendations.

6. Choose an appropriate method to convey the meaning of the following words: ***exaggerate, ambitious, shabby, expert, speedy, turkey***.

1. **Glossary. Practical class 3 (Lecture 3).**

**1. Learn the following methodological terms:**

spoken corpus – корпус (лексичний запас) розмовної мови

lexical unit – лексична одиниця

active vocabulary – активна лексика

passive vocabulary – пасивна лексика

potential. vocabulary – потенційний словниковий запас

real vocabulary – лексика, якою користуються

reproductive vocabulary skills –репродуктивні лексичні навички

receptive vocabulary skills – рецептивні лексичні навички

retention of words, miming – запам'ятовування, утримання в пам'яті

encounters with a word – зустріч зі словом

automation of learners’ actions with new words – автоматизація дій учнів з новими словами

[consolidation](http://www.tnpu.edu.ua/subjects/7426/metangl2/wordlist.htm#consolid) – закріплення

in the ratio –у співвідношенні

linguistic factors – лінгвістичні фактори

psycholinguistic factors – психолінгвістичні фактори

presentation of new words – презентація нових слів

introduction of new words – введення нових слів

conveying the meaning of new words – розкриття значення нових слів (семантизація)

direct method of conveying the meaning of words - прямий (безперекладний) метод розкриття значень слів

technique(s) – прийоми

visual presentation - презентація за допомогою наочності

verbal means – вербальні засоби

**5. Multiple choice test**

**Circle the correct variant.**

**1. School vocabulary minimum includes:**

a) the active and potential vocabulary

b) active and passive vocabulary

c) active, passive and potential vocabulary

**2. Potential vocabulary includes:**

a) words that the pupils use in speaking

b) words, the meaning of which they found in a dictionary

c) words, the meaning of which they can guess when reading and listening

**3. The purpose of learning vocabulary in school is**

a) vocabulary skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing

b) knowledge of the entire vocabulary of a foreign language

c) forming potential vocabulary

**4. Choosing a method of conveying the meaning of a word depends on:**

a) teacher’s preference

b) topic

c) the nature of the word

**5. A word, which belongs to the active vocabulary, should be presented:**

a) in a speech situation

b) in a written text

c) as a list of words on the blachbourd

**6. Define the sequence of the following types of exercises for the acquisition of the words belonging to the active vocabulary**

a) the independent use at the phrase level

b) response to the alternative question

c) complete the statement.

**Lecture 4. TEACHING GRAMMAR MATERIAL**

**(DEVELOPMENT OF GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE)**

**1. The features of English grammar that cause Ukrainian/Russian speaking learners difficulties.**

**2. Aims and content of teaching grammar in schools.**

**3. Teaching grammar. Types of exercises.**

Grammar is something that produces the sentences of a language. Grammar is a system of rules governing the arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence. One may know all the words in a sentence and yet fail to understand it, if one does not see the relationship between the words in the given sentence. No speaking is possible without the knowledge of grammar, without the forming of a grammar mechanism. If a learner has acquired such a mechanism, he can produce correct sentences in a foreign language.

The chief difficulty in learning a new language is that of changing from the grammatical mechanism of the native language to that of the new language. Indeed, every language has its own way of fitting words together to form different types of sentences. The chief differences are that Russian (or Ukrainian) is a synthetic language, whereas English is an analytical language**.**

Let us consider some differences between the native language (Russian, Ukrainian) and English. Because of these differences the Ukrainians often find learning English a serious problem.

**1. Word order.** English has a fairly fixed word order. Meaning is expressed through the addition of words (for example auxiliaries) and movement of words within limited boundaries. Russian (Ukrainian), on the other hand, conveys meaning largely through changes in the composition of words (e.g., by inflections or the addition of prefixes and suffixes). Its word order is very fluid. *He gave Helen a rose* indicates what was given (a rose), to whom (Helen), and by whom (He). If we change the word order we shall change the meaning of the sentence.

To make some questions in English we use auxiliaries –*do, did, will* ….. Beginning learners often omit the auxiliary in questions or negatives: *How you do that? / I no have it*. In the native language it is enough to change intonation to make a question.

**2. Verb/Tense.** The English tense system also presents a lot of trouble to the pupils because of the difference which exists in these languages with regard to time and tense relations. For example, the pupil cannot at first understand why he must say *I* *have seen him today* and *I saw him yesterday.* For him the action is completed in both sentences, and he does not associate it in any way with *today* or *yesterday.* The native language system is based on the concept of *aspect*: actions are either completed or not completed. This is shown by adding affixes to the verb stem.

**3. The sequence of tenses** is another difficult point of English grammar for the pupils because there is no such phenomenon either in Russian or Ukrainian. Why should we say *She said she was busy* when she *is busy*?

**4. The use of modal verbs in various types of sentences**. Modal verbs are heavily used in English to convey shades of meaning in the areas of compulsion, ability, permission, possibility, hypothesis, etc. For example, learners have problems understanding the difference between: *He must have done it* and *He has had to do it*.

A learner should differentiate the use of *can* and *may.* Then he should remember which verb must be used in answers to the questions with modal verbs. For instance, *May I go home? No, you mustn't. May I take your pen? Yes, you may. Must I do it? No, you needn't.*  Mistakes such as *Must you to work on Friday? / I will not can come*, etc. are common among the learners.

**5.** Pupils find some **specific use of infinitive, participle and gerund constructions** difficult. For example: I *saw him run (running). I want you to go there.*

6. The most difficult point of English grammar is **the article** because it is completely strange to Russian/Ukrainian-speaking pupils. Russian/Ukrainian has no articles and the English article system itself is extremely complex. The use of the articles and other determiners comes first in the list of the most frequent errors. Pupils are careless in the use of articles and consider them unimportant for expressing their thoughts when speaking English.

7. **Some other differences**. All Ukrainian nouns are one of three genders. This results in problems such as: *Have you seen my book? I put* ***her*** *on the table.*

**2. Aims and content of teaching grammar**

Now let us consider the aims of teaching grammar in schools.

Knowledge of the grammar rules is called grammatical competence (a component of linguistic competence). Grammatical competence is necessary for communication to take place, or for the development of language competence, when we use knowledge in acts of communication.

By grammatical competence one can mean adequate comprehension and correct usage of grammar in the act of communication, that is, the intuitive knowledge of the grammar of the language. Such knowledge is acquired by a child in the mother tongue before he goes to school. He has no idea of the system of the language; he simply uses the system. The child learns to speak the language, and to use all the word-endings for singular and plural, for tense, and all the other grammar rules without special grammar lessons only due to the abundance of listening and speaking.

Teaching process in schools is a designed process to achieve some practical purposes. In school not all grammar phenomena are taught but specially selected units. For teaching English as a second language we need the grammar that meets the requirements of the school syllabus in foreign languages.

There exist 2 grammar minima – **active** for teaching speaking and writing and **passive** for teaching listening and reading.

There exist principles of selecting grammar material both for active minimum and passive minimum. The main principle for selection of active grammar units is principle of frequency, i.e., how frequently this or that grammar item occurs, how frequently it is used both in conversation and in various texts. Pupils should be taught to reproduce phrases and sentences stored up in their memory and say or write sentences of their own, using grammar items appropriate to the situation. The final aim is to develop reproductive/productive grammar skills.

In selecting passive grammar material the principle of polysemy is of great importance. Pupils should be taught to distinguish such grammar items and easily recognize grammar forms and structures while hearing and reading. The aim is to develop receptive grammar skills. This is usually done after 7th grade.

So the content in teaching grammar (What to teach) is grammar minima and grammar skills. The amount of grammar material pupils should assimilate in school (either actively or passively), and the way it is distributed throughout the course of study, may be found in the syllabi for schools. The textbooks emphasize how to teach and present this or that approach in teaching grammar.

**3. Teaching grammar. Types of exercises.**

It is recommended to use different techniques (methods) in teaching active and passive grammar, as we should achieve different final aims.

The process of teaching active grammar material consists of two stages:

presentation of the structure and automation of learner’s grammar skills (or practice phase).

**Stage 1 - presentation of the structure.**

How can a grammar structure be presented? The two approaches are possible: a deductive approach or an inductive approach.

A deductive approach starts with the presentation of a rule and is followed by examples in which the rule is applied. The rule is generally stated by the teacher, in a textbook, or both. Traditional abstract grammatical terminology is used.

The disadvantage of the deductive approach is that grammar explanation encourages a teacher-fronted learning and the students have little chance to practice using English. It encourages the belief that learning a language is simply a case of knowing the rules. Little by little, the students will only concentrate on explanation and the forms of the language. Moreover many pupils may find grammatical concepts difficult, and such explanations for beginners will be almost impossible. Although the students know the rules very well, they make mistakes in using it again and again, especially in their oral English.  Only some advanced students may profit from grammatical explanations to a certain extent, at lower levels we must usually find simpler ways of giving students grammatical information.

A more effective is an inductive approach. It is a less frightening way of presenting form to let the students see and/or hear the new language, drawing their attention, in a number of different ways, to the grammatical elements of which it is made, allowing students to discover the rules for themselves.

An inductive approach starts with some examples to illustrate the teaching problem. Induction or learning through experience is based on the principle that learners learn best when they are wholly engaged (both physically and mentally) in the language learning process. The teacher manipulates with the structure to demonstrate the function of the structure,   while at the same time attracting students’ attention to the form of the structure. Students are more actively involved in the learning process, rather than being simply passive recipients. Rules that learners discover for themselves may be more likely to fit their existing mental structures than rules they have been presented with. This in turn will make the rules more meaningful and memorable.

The meaning or use of the new grammar form is demonstrated in the context.

The teacher must show the pupils how it is used, must also show them how the grammatical form is said and/or written. Often the textbook is not always so appropriate: in such cases the teacher must create his own contexts for language use. It can be done with the help of:

Model sentences for oral practice + picture e.g. *The butcher has some meat. He doesn’t have any lamb. Contrasting sentence pairs.*

Dialogues *e.g. A: I'd like some bacon, please. B: I’m sorry, we don’t have any.*

Situations *e.g. I'm going to take a bus to…..*

Demonstration *e.g. prepositions of place - I'm going to put the cassette tape into the cassette player.*

Texts *e.g. The sun shines more in Spain than in England.*

The meaning can be presented in the form of timetables, notes, charts, diagrams *- e.g. Time Line for Present Perfect v Past Simple , drawings, etc.*

We can use real charts and timetables, growth statistics, etc. or we can design our own which will be just right for our students. The structure should appear often enough during the presentation to be salient to the student without making the language sound unnatural. It provides opportunities for the teacher to create comprehension through the negotiation of meaning. The teacher focuses learner attention on some aspect of the language used during the presentation activity. This can be achieved in several ways. Teachers can ask questions about patterns found in a text or about words and phrases repeated in a story. Some example sentences from the presentation can be prepared, with important words and phrases circled or underlined and written out on the blackboard. The point of this step is to get learners to focus attention on the target form. Then the teacher helps the pupils to infer a rule for the structure themselves.

Learners and teachers should be co-constructors of grammatical explanation. After learners focus attention on the target form, the teacher assists them in raising their awareness about the target structure. During this step, students are guided to guess, make predictions, or come to generalizations about the target form. For example, asking students questions such as "what words do you hear or see repeated in the text, and what could they mean?," "What pattern do you see in this group of words?," and "How do certain words change as their meanings change?" is a way to focus the learners on the new structure. This helps learners discover regular grammatical patterns, word order, meanings of words, or grammar functions. Here comparative analysis of the grammar item in English and in the native language may be helpful. The teacher should remember: the more he speaks about the language the less time is left to practice. The more the teacher explains the less his pupils understand what he is trying to explain, this leads to the teacher giving more information than is necessary, which does not help the pupils in the usage of this particular grammar item. Teachers are also aware that the help they provide is graduated and may range from brief hints about the target form to explicit instruction if needed. Teachers can assess how much help is needed to attain the concept.

**Stage 2 - automation of learner’s grammar skills (or practice phase)**.

We know the best way to learn a foreign language is to live with those who speak it, but for those students who will not venture beyond the classroom, there is much practice to be done with peers and with teacher, whose responsibility is to find or create meaningful practice.

It should be meaning-centered activities. Such activities facilitate comprehension on the part of the learners. Furthermore, the extension activities encourage learners to integrate meaning, form, and function while experiencing language in context. It should be mentioned that creating meaning-centered activities is probably one of the most difficult aspects of whole language teaching, since, many textbooks still provide for context-reduced practice.

The practice should be arranged so that the students have many opportunities to get closer to both forms and functions of the grammatical item learned.

The learners cannot assimilate the material if they only hear and see it. They must reproduce it. The more often they say it the better they assimilate the material.

First practice involves learners in reproducing the targeted structure in a controlled manner gradually increasing independency of the students in usage of the structure.

In the exercises the pupils should have only one difficulty to overcome. But the student should be as mentally active as possible in all assigned work.

Professor E.I. Passov worked out a set of communicative exercises that helps to arrange communication even at the level of a separate phrase.

The set of exercises includes 4 main types of exercises:

1. Imitative exercises

2. Substitution exercises

3. Transformation exercises

4. Reproductive exercises

The exercises can be pseudo- communicative and communicative.

1. In imitative drills the learner simply repeats a phrase or structure (e.g., *" I have 4 classes a day "*. Pupils pronounce the sentence pattern after the teacher, in imitation of the teacher but it is meaningful for a pupil as the teacher instructs him to agree with him or say that he does the same as the teacher but not just to repeat after him, e.g.:

*T: I know you have 4 classes a day, am I right?*

*P: You are right, I have 4 classes a day.*

The mere mechanical repetition of language forms is in reality passive rather than active learning. It does not engage the student's full mental powers. The teacher should arrange meaningful repetition of the structure, when the learners receive practice in using this structure and produce meaningful statements.

Then the teacher moves to substitution exercises, toward less controlled exercises in which the student can add his own ideas.

2. Substitution exercise trains the students to be more familiar with the verb form used. Pupils substitute the words or phrases in a sentence pattern due to their choice or personal experience. For example:

*T: The children are reading in the class room. What else are they doing?*

*P: The children are writing in the class room.*

The use of a particular verb can be stimulated with pictures (or a word). As pupils have only one difficulty to overcome the work does not take much time. There is advantage in performing this type of exercises -pupils consolidate the grammar item without thinking about it. They think of the words, phrases, but not of the form itself, therefore, involuntary memory is at work.

Pupils can complete the sentences the teacher utters looking at the pictures he shows. For example:

*Teacher: Look at the picture. He is ... ... .*

*Pupil: He is writing.*

Substitution drill (by showing a picture or explaining a scene from the students experience) is a pseudo- communicative exercise, that includes a small element of communication.

3. Transformation exercises help the learners expand the usage skills through changing the form being taught. They are pseudo- communicative exercises.

Transformation exercises involve learners in further manipulating language patterns, and can raise their complete awareness of structure. For example, the pupils are asked to change tense, number, pronoun, case, etc. The learners are not asked to use this or that tense or other grammatical form, they are asked to perform some activity to demonstrate a function of the grammar unit.

*T: I know you have seen the movie this year. Say that you saw it last year.*

*P: Oh, yes, I saw the movie last year.*

The forms of the exercises may vary according to the particular grammatical item: interrogative sentences, questions, singular or plural, pronouns.

The teacher asks to express your surprise but not “ Make questions using present perfect tense” .

*T:I have seen movie “ the Titanic” five times.*

*P: Have you really seen …..?*

Or disagree with me – not “Make these sentences negative”.

4. Reproductive exercises are intended to check students’ progress in using the grammar learned. The aim is to enable students to use the grammatical item correctly in a communicative task set by a communicative exercise. Teachers move from a controlled situation to a less controlled situation in which the student can communicate his own ideas. *T: Name all actions you are doing in the class and which ones you are not doing.* But nor the formal instruction like “*Make 5 sentences using present continuous tense”.*

The teacher provides tasks to check whether the students completely grasp what they have been taught. In this case, the students are required to work individually.

The process of teaching passive grammar material consists of the following stages:

***Stage 1. Presentation***T: Today we will learn a new English structure "be going to+do" It refers to doing something in the near future or what will happen soon. Such as:  
*a) I am going to buy some chocolate tomorrow. b) He is going to have his birthday party next Saturday*

***Step 2.  Explanation***T: Now let me stress clearly about this structure:  
First, you should remember that it applies to a future plan. Second, the verb "be" should be used in different forms according to its subject, number or tense. Thus there will be many different usages when you apply it, such as:  *"I am going to do..." "He/She/It is going to do..." "We/You/They are going to do..."*

***Step 3.  Practice***

The students are asked to do language- training exercises using the right form of the verb "be" or do some tests, translation, answer the questions. These are language-training or pseudo- communicative exercises. The teacher sets a writing task for pupils to write a few sentences about their plans using the structure taught. If there is enough time, the teacher can invite some students to read out their sentences to the whole class. The class discusses it and the teacher makes any necessary changes.

The teacher draws pupils' attention to the new element in the sentence. It is usually done in the mother language. For example: Пам'ятай, що в заперечних реченнях вживається допоміжне дієслово “do not” (“does not”). The rule helps the learner to understand and to assimilate the structural meaning of the elements. This provides conditions for the recognition of the forms. If a pupil can recognize the forms while reading or listening, that is sufficient. So the pupils have passive grammatical skills developed and they obtain the practical aim in teaching passive grammar.

**Practical class 4. Teaching grammar material (development of grammatical competence)**

**1. Questions to be discussed**

**1. The features of English grammar that cause Ukrainian/Russian speaking learners difficulties.**

**2. Aims and content of teaching grammar.**

**3. Teaching grammar. Types of exercises.**

**List of recommended literature**

1. Методика викладання іноземних мов у середніх навчальних закладах / Кол. авторів під керівн. С.Ю. Ніколаєвої. – К.: Ленвіт, 2002. – 328 с.

2. Мильруд Р.П. Методика преподавания английского языка. English teaching Methodology: учебное пособие для вузов – М.:Дрофа, 2007. – 253 с.

3. Практикум з методики викладання англійської мови у середніх навчальних закладах: Посібник. Вид. 2-е, доп. і переробл. / Кол. авторів під керівн. С.Ю. Ніколаєвої. – К.: Ленвіт, 2004. – 360 с.

4. Brown H. Douglas. Principles of Language Learning and teaching. 2nd edition. – Printice Hall, 1987. -285 p

5. Celce-Murcia M. Teaching English as a Second or a Foreign language, 2-nd edition, University of California. - Heinle and Heinle Publishers, 1991.- 567p

6. Lewis M. & Hill J. Practical Techniques for Language Teaching CUP, 1985.

7. Rogova G.V. Methods of Teaching English.1983.-311p.

8. Sysoyev Pavel V. [sysoyev [at] pvs.tambov.ru](about:blank)

9. http://www.scribd.com/doc/9070403/Grammar

**2. Questions for control**

1. What is grammar?

2. What are the differences between English and native language grammar?

3. What are the aims of teaching grammar?

4. What is a reproduction grammar skill?

5. What is a receptive grammar skill?

6. What is the content of teaching grammar?

7. What are the ways of presenting a new grammar unit of active grammar minimum?

8. What types of exercises are used in teaching active grammar?

9. What are the stages of teaching passive grammar material?

10. Why should grammar be presented in context?

11. What do you think are the advantages of making a grammar example with learners’ experience?

12. What happens if a teacher only uses mechanical grammar practice activities?

13. How can a grammar structure be presented?

14. What are the disadvantages of the deductive approach?

15. What are the techniques to focus the students on the new structure?

**3. Practical tasks to do**

1) Make up a catalogue of exercises for teaching grammar.

2) Give a contrastive analysis of Present Simple Tense of ***to be*** to determine the difficulties it presents to Russian/Ukrainian –speaking pupils.

3) Write a lesson plan which includes 2 stages: 1. presentation, 2. practice to teach modal verbs ***CAN*** and ***MAY*** in a context.

4) Act out the designed lesson.

5). Examine one of the lessons in Pupil’s Book to deduce upon what principles grammar is taught. Change instructions to make them communicative.

**4. Glossary. Practical class 4 (Lecture 4)**

**1. Learn the following methodological terms:**

grammar mechanism – граматичний механізм

to violate the word order - порушити порядок слів

the abundance of listening and speaking – достатня кількість, (надлишок) сприйняття на слух і мовлення

to deduce - встановити, простежити

a designed process – розроблений (запланований) процес

reproductive/productive grammar skills- репродуктивні/продуктивні граматичні навички

active and passive minimum – активний і пасивний мінімум

the principle of frequency – принцип частотності

passive grammar material - пасивний граматичний мінімум

the principle of polysemy – принцип багатозначності

receptive grammar skills – рецептивні граматичні навички

types of exercises – типи вправ

technique - прийом

presentation of the structure - презентація структури

automation of learner’s grammar skills –автоматизація граматичних навичок учня

the function of the structure – функція структури

the form of  the structure – форма структури

to be salient – впадати в очі

to infer a rule (for)- виводити правило (для)

to facilitate - полегшувати, допомагати

set of communicative exercises – комплекс комунікативних вправ

pseudo- communicative exercises – умовно-комунікативні вправи

imitative exercises – імітативні вправи

substitution exercises – підстановчі вправи

transformation exercises- трансформаційні вправи

reproductve exercises – репродуктивні вправи

to consolidate the grammar item *–* закріплювати граматичне явище

language-training exercises – мовні вправи

**5. Multiple choice test.**

**Circle the correct variant.**

**1.The task of studies of grammar at school is**

a) to develop students’ systematic knowledge of grammar

b) to develop only reproductive grammatical skills

c) to develop reproductive and receptive grammatical skills

**2. In school the pupils study**

a) all grammatical phenomena of a foreign language

b) grammatical phenomena, selected to the school grammatical minimum

c) grammatical phenomena which are met in texts

**3 .The active grammatical minimum (AGM) includes**

a) grammatical phenomena which must be recognized in texts while reading

6} grammatical phenomena which a student must use in speaking and writing and understand while reading and listening

c) grammatical phenomena which are used only in oral speech.

**4. Define the rational sequence of these types of exercises for mastering of AGM. Put number 1, 2, 3.**

a) imitative exercises

b) transformation exercises

c) substitution exercises

**5. Select communicative exercises designed to teach interrogative forms of the verb**

a) make the given sentences interrogative

b) insert the necessary auxiliary verb

c) ask your friend whether he performed the actions that I named

**6. The passive grammar minimum includes:**

a) grammatical phenomena to be recognized while reading and listening

b) grammatical phenomena used in oral speech and reading

c) grammatical phenomena that are used only in oral speech

**7. The aim of teaching the passive grammar minimum in school is**

a) knowledge of grammatical phenomena which are used only in written speech

b) receptive grammatical skills

c) reproductive grammatical skills

**8. Methods of teaching active and passive grammatical minimum**

a) do not differ

b) differ a little

c) differ greatly

**9. For mastering passive grammatical material are mainly used**

a) receptive exercises

b) reproductive exercises

c) productive exercises

**Lecture 5. TEACHING TECHNIQUE OF READING**

**1. Reading as a process.**

**2. Difficulties pupils have in learning to read in the English language.**

**3. Teaching technique of reading.**

**1. Reading as a process**

Reading is of great educational importance, as reading is a means of communication, people get information they need from books, journals, magazines, newspapers, etc. Through reading in a foreign language the pupil enriches his knowledge of the world around him. He gets acquainted with the countries where the target language is spoken. Reading develops pupils' intelligence. It helps to develop their memory, will, imagination. Pupils become accustomed to working with books, which in its turn facilitates practice in further reading. The content of texts influences pupils.

The syllabus for foreign languages lists reading as one of the leading language activities to be developed in school. It runs: "To read, without a dictionary, texts containing familiar grammar material and no more than 4—6 unfamiliar words per 100 words of the text the meaning of which, as a rule, should be clear from the context or familiar word-building elements. Pupils are to read, with the help of a dictionary, easy texts containing familiar grammar material and 6—8 unfamiliar words per 100 words of the text."

Reading is not only an aim in itself, it is also a means of learning a foreign language. When reading a text the pupil reviews sounds and letters, vocabulary and grammar, memorizes the spelling of words, the meaning of words and word combinations. In teaching reading the teacher must:

- know about content of teaching reading;

- know about pupils’ difficulties in learning reading;

- know about kind of reading;

- know how to teach reading.

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. Reading comprehension is much more than decoding. We develop reading competence when the reader uses knowledge, skills, and strategies to determine what that meaning is.

Reading comprehension results when the reader knows how to apply skills to accomplish the reading purpose.  Teaching reading in a foreign language is a bit different than the way native speakers are taught to read.

Reading is a complicated intellectual work. It requires the ability on the part of the reader to carry out a number of mental operations: analysis, synthesis, induction, deduction, comparison.

Reading as a process is connected with the work of visual, kinesthetic, aural analyzers and thinking.

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

A good reader does not look at letters, not even at words, one by one; he takes the meaning of two, three or four words at a time, in a single moment. He is reader in the true sense when he sees through a window to the view outside without consciousness of the glass. Reading by word-concentration is a method corresponding to typing with one finger; it can by practice lead to certain proficiency, but not to the required skills. The pupil must focus his attention on the meaning and not on the form, when the pupils looks at words and phrases for their meaning almost without noticing the shapes of the separate letters.

Reading as a process has 2 aspects: **technical (technique of reading** ) to assimilate the graphic system of the target language as a means which is used for conveying information in printand **content** to get information from the text. In teaching reading we develop 2 groups of skills for both aspects.

A good reader should:

1. associate the graphic system of the language with the phonic system of that language; know all letters and sound them;

2. know reading rules of letters and their combinations;

3. read single words and word combinations;

4. divide sentences or texts into logical parts and read with good intonation;

5. use different strategies to get information from the text.

1. **Difficulties pupils have in learning to read in the English language**

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

Reading in the English language is one of the most difficult things because there are 26 letters and 146 graphemes which represent 46 phonemes. Indeed the English alphabet presents many difficulties to Ukrainian/Russian-speaking pupils because the alphabet in the native language differs greatly from that of the English language. The comparison of the two languages shows that of the 26 pairs of printed letters (52 — if we consider capital and small letters as different symbols) only 4 are more or less similar to those of the native language alphabet, both in print and in meaning. These are K, k, M, T. Some letters are completely new to pupils. These are b, D, d, F, t, G, g, h, L, 1, I, i, J, j, N, n, Q, q, R, r, S, s, t, U, u, V, v, W, w, Z, z. The letters A, a, B, C, c, E, e, H, 0, o, P, p, Y, *y,* X, x occur in both languages, but they are read differently. They are, therefore, the most difficult letters for the pupil to retain. Obviously in teaching a pupil to read English words, much more attention should be given to those letters which occur in both languages but symbolize entirely different sounds. For example, H, p ... (Pupils often read *How* as *(*nau). Therefore, in presenting a new letter to pupils the teacher should stress its peculiarity not only from the standpoint of the English language (what sound or sounds it symbolizes) but from the point of view of the Russian/Ukrainian language as well.

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

The teacher cannot teach pupils all the existing rules and exceptions for reading English words. When learning English pupils are expected to assimilate the following rules of reading: how to read stressed vowels in open and closed syllables and before *r;* how to read *ay, oo, ou, ow;* the consonants c, s, *k, g; ch, sh, th, ng, ck* and *tion, ssion, ous.* The rules are not numerous, but they are important to the development of reading. There are 13 variants of reading the letter “a” and its combinations, 13 variants of the letter “o”, 12 variants of the letter “u”, 10 variants of the letter ”e”, 8 variants of the letter ”i”, 3 variants of the letter “y”. Pupils should learn the reading of some monosyllabic words which are homophones. For example: *son-* *sun; tail- tale; too-* *two; write - right; eye-* *I*, etc.

At the very beginning, the pupil is compelled to look at each printed letter separately in order to be sure of its shape. He often sees words and not sense units.

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

**3. Teaching technique of reading**

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

***Reading aloud***

In teaching reading aloud the following methods are observed: **the phonic analytic-synthetic method, the word, and the sentence methods, the method of rules of reading.**

In schools the phonic analytic-synthetic method is mainly used. When **the phonic analytic-synthetic method** is used, the child learns the sounds and associates them with graphic symbols — letters. The teacher sounds a letter and asks the pupils to repeat it. Eg. m m m m, focusing on very simple regular words and using the SOUND, not the letter. **U**sing this method, children learn the different sounds made by different letters and letter blends, and rules about how they go together. Words are tackled in groups with similar patterns (such as *cat, mat, rat, bat*, etc). A good phonic knowledge equips children to become good spellers and gives them word-tackling strategies. It is important to have a set of flash cards at hand or use the blackboard. Flash cards when the teacher uses them allow him:

1. to present a new letter (a letter combination);
2. to make pupils compose a word (several flash cards are distributed among the pupils, for example, *p, n, e* they compose *pen*.

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

*(d)* to make pupils recollect the words beginning with the letter shown (p — *pen, pencil, pupil,* etc.);

(e) to make pupils show the letter (letters) which stand for the sound (*ou*),(*a:*), etc.

If the teacher uses the blackboard instead he can write printed letters on it and pupils can recollect the words they have learnt orally which have this or that letter, compose a word, etc. The same devices are applied for teaching pupils to read words, the task being different, however:

1. pupils choose words which are not read according to the rule, for example: *lake, plane, have, Mike, give, nine;*
2. pupils are invited to read the words which they usually misread:

*yet — let cold — could*

*form — from called — cold*

*come — some wood — would*

*does — goes walk — work*

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

*though — thought since — science*

*through — though with — which*

*hear — near content — context*

*hear — hare country — county*

1. pupils are invited to pick out the words with the graphemes *oo, ow, ea, th*, ...

In teaching to read transcription is also utilized. It helps the reader to read a word in the cases where the same grapheme stands for different sounds: ***build, suit.***

In the **word method (**also called **the ' Look and Say ' method)** a complete word is first presented to the child. When several words have been learnt they are used in simple sentences. Using this method, children learn whole words without breaking down each sound. It is a good way to start - in fact, it is the natural way that children do start, because the first word a child reads is almost always his own name. He doesn't break it into letter sounds, but develops a picture of the shape of the word.   
The teacher makes a few single-word signs such as *'television', 'chair', 'fridge'* or words which are not read according to the rule: ***aunt, colonel*** and the pupils read them.

The **sentence method** deals with the sentences as units in teaching reading. The teacher can develop pupils' ability to read sentences with correct intonation. Here are a few examples:

* Read the sentence with different intonations.
* Divide the sentence into logical parts.
* Read the sentence adding new words to it.

The combination of the three methods can ensure good reading. All the analyzers are at work: visual, auditory, kinesthetic. The leading role belongs to the visual analyzer. It is necessary that the graphic symbols (images) of words should be fixed in the pupils' memory. In teaching English in schools, however, little attention is given to this. Pupils are taught how "to sound" words rather than how "to read" them. They often repeat words, combination of words without looking at what they read. They look at the teacher.

Reading in chorus, reading in groups in imitation of the teacher which is practiced in schools forms rather kinesthetic images than graphic ones. The result is that pupils can sound the text but they cannot read. The teacher should observe the rule "Never read words, phrases, sentences by yourself. Give your pupils a chance to read them." For instance, in presenting the words and among them those which are read according to the rule the teacher should make his pupils read these words first. This rule is often violated in school. It is the teacher who first reads a word, a column of words, a sentence, a text and pupils just repeat after the teacher. Doing these exercises the teacher uses individual, group, and full class reading.

In teaching reading a system of exercises is used in school, which includes:

**1. Graphemic-phonemic exercises** which help pupils to assimilate graphemic-phonemic correspondence (letter-sound correlation) in the English language.

**2. Exercises for reading single words or word combinations.**

**3. Exercises for predicting the word.**

**4. Structural-information exercises.**

**5. Exercises to widen the eye span and to develop the reading speed.**

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

***1.The graphemic-phonemic exercises*** develop pupils' ability to associate the graphic symbols with the phonic ones. Pupils perform these exercises reading them aloud, for example:

-Sound some letters.

- Read some letters in different positions.

- Define how many sounds and letters are in the word.

***2. Exercises for reading single words or word combinations:***

**-** Group the words according to the type of syllable.

- Among some words find the word read by the teacher.

- Guess what letters are missing and read the words.

***3. Exercises for predicting the word:***

- Build the words from letters (parts of words).

- Read the sentences inserting the necessary words.

- Complete the words and read them.

***4. Structural-information exercises***are done both inreading aloud and in silent reading. Pupils are taught how to read sentences, paragraphs, texts correctly. Special attention is given to intonation since it is of great importance to the actual division of sentences, to stressing the logical predicate in them. Marking the text occasionally may be helpful. At an early stage of teaching reading the teacher should read a sentence or a passage to the class himself. When he is sure the pupils understand the passage, he can set individuals and the class to repeat the sentences after him, reading again himself if the pupils' reading is poor. The pupils look into the textbook.

Pupils' poor comprehension often results from their poor knowledge of grammar (syntax in particular). The teacher should instruct pupils how to work with a dictionary and a reference book so that they can overcome some difficulties independently. The teacher often applies grammar and lexical analyses doing structural-information exercises. Here are a few examples of structural-information exercises:

- Read the following sentences and guess the meaning of the words you don't know.

- Read the text. Stress the words conveying new information in each sentence.

- These sentences are too complicated. Break them into shorter sentences and read them.

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

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

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

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

***5.Exercises to widen the eye span and to develop the reading speed:***

* Read the text for a fixed time.
* Read sentences adding some elements.
* Read the text and answer the question as fast as possible.

Should we correct a mistake in the process of reading a passage or after finishing it? Both ways are possible. The mistake should be corrected at once while the pupil reads the text if he has made it in a word which will occur two or more times in the text. If the word does not appear again, it is better to let the pupil read the paragraph to the end. Then the mistake is corrected.

**Practical class 5. Teaching technique of reading**

**1. Questions to be discussed**

1. Reading as a process.

2. Difficulties pupils have in learning to read in the English language.

3. Reading aloud. How to teach technique of reading.

**List of recommended literature**

1. Клычникова З.И. Психологические особенности обучения чтению на иностранном языке: Пособие для учителей.– 2.е изд.,испр.– М.:Просвещение,1983. – 207 с.

2 Методика викладання іноземних мов у середніх навчальних закладах / Кол. авторів під керівн. С.Ю. Ніколаєвої. – К.: Ленвіт, 2002. – 328 с.

3. Мильруд Р.П. Методика преподавания английского языка. English teaching Methodology: учебное пособие для вузов – М.:Дрофа, 2007. – 253 с.

4. Практикум з методики викладання англійської мови у середніх навчальних закладах: Посібник. Вид. 2-е, доп. і переробл. / Кол. авторів під керівн. С.Ю. Ніколаєвої. – К.: Ленвіт, 2004. – 360 с.

5. Bernhardt, E. (1991). Reading development in a second language. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

6 Brown H. Douglas. Principles of Language Learning and teaching. 2nd edition. – Printice Hall, 1987. -285 p.

7. Celce-Murcia M. Teaching English as a Second or a Foreign language, 2-nd edition, University of California. - Heinle and Heinle Publishers, 1991.- 567p

8. Eskey, D. (2002). Reading and the teaching of L2 reading. TESOL Journal, 11**(**1), 5-9.

9. Lewis M. & Hill J. Practical Techniques for Language Teaching CUP, 1985.

10. Nuttall, C. (1996). Teaching reading skills in a foreign language (2nd ed.). Oxford: Heinemann

11. Rogova G.V. Methods of Teaching English.-Л., Просвещение,1983.-312p.

**2. Questions for control**

1. The importance of reading as a means of communication.

2. What are the aims of teaching reading in school?

3. Describe reading as a process.

4. Analyze 2 aspects of reading as a process.

5. What skills should be developed in teaching reading?

6. What does it mean to be “A good reader”?

7. What methods are used in teaching reading aloud?

8. Give some examples of the structural-information exercises.

9. The teacher should observe the rule "Never read words, phrases, sentences by yourself”. Comment on it.

**3. Practical tasks to do**

1. Make up a catalogue of exercises for teaching technique of reading.

3. Design a lesson plan for teaching reading letter combinations (***ee, ea, ch, th*** ).

4. Act out the designed lesson.

5. Fill in the table.

**Table**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Forms of reading | Material for teaching reading | Methods of teaching | Exercises |
| aloud |  |  |  |

**4. Glossary. Practical class 5 (Lecture 5)**

**1. Learn the following methodological terms:**

inner speech- внутрішне мовлення

technique of reading – техніка читання

reading aloud – читання вголос

technical aspect,– технічний аспект

content aspect – змістовий аспект

silent reading – читання про себе

the word method- метод слів

the sentence method – метод речення

reading in groups in imitation of the teacher- читання в групах за вчителем

to widen eye span – розширити коло зору

reading in chorus, oral reading – читання хором

to hinder – заважати, перешкоджати

visual analyzer – зоровий аналізатор

kinesthetic analyzer –моторний аналізатор

aural analyzer- слуховий аналізатор

graphemic-phonemic exercises - графемо-фонетичні вправи

structural-information exercises- структурно-інформаційні вправи

a set of flash cards – комплект (набір) карток

**5. Multiple choice test.**

**Сircle the correct answer.**

**1. In reading the leading role belongs to:**

a). the visual analyzer

b) auditory analyzer

c). kinesthetic analyzer

**2. In presenting the words the teacher should make his pupils:**

a). read these words first

b). repeat after the teacher

c). read together with the teacher

**Lecture 6. System of exercises in teaching English**

**1. The notion of “exercise”.**

**2 The system of exercises for the formation of speech skills.**

**1. The notion of “exercise”**

Before we consider the nature of the exercises, let’s consider the term "exercise" in the methodology of teaching foreign languages.

Exercise - it is specially organized separate teaching operations, actions or activities repeated several times to master them or to improve them.

Each exercise, regardless of its character has three- or four- phase structure.

**The first phase** - the task, the second phase - a sample of how to do it, the third phase - the task, the fourth phase-control (the teacher’s control or students’ self-control).

The first phase is very important, because it has a motive to perform certain speech acts / activities, speech situation, the role of speakers (if the exercise is performed in the form of role play), etc. It is explained to the pupil what he has to do and how: orally or in writing, in book or on the board, individually, in pairs, in groups or teams. For example, the task is ***a) You are reporters. Interview three students in their class. Put them 4 questions presented in the table.*** (The teacher assigns some students to the role of reporters). ***b) Write a report about one of three students that you interviewed***.

**The second phase** of exercise is optional: it may be, if the model is required, and may be missing.

**The third phase** – the performance of the task. In this case the exercise is performed orally, but with elements of writing: the student as a reporter put his questions and short answers, the second part is done in writing.

**The fourth phase** - control - may coincide in time with the performance, or follow the performance. In the example, the teacher can monitor one or two interviews, other pairs will be self- or mutually controlled. Skills are formed gradually. Regarding the number of stages in the formation of skills there are different points of view. Most researchers distinguish three main stages of forming habits, based on the psychological character of student’s action - **reception, reproduction and production**.

**The first phase (preparatory**): at this stage, students get acquainted with the new language material - grammatical, lexical, phonetic, which is presented in the situation or context, and perform certain speech (in some cases - language) actions on the model or rule. At this stage a base for developing of skills is formed. **At the second stage (Stereotype-situational)** students’ automatic action with the new language material in similar speech situations takes place. It is mainly at the level of phrases / sentences (in some cases - words or phrases). **The third stage (situational)** is further students’ automatization of actions with the new language material . The new material is used together with that learnt before.

**2. The system of exercises for the formation of speech skills**

To master the skills the system of exercises is needed.

Every textbook for learning a foreign language should contain exercises.

Exercises can be classified according to some criteria. There are basic and additional criteria of classification and their corresponding types of exercises. According to basic criteria (direction of information and communicativeness) the exercises can be defined as:

1. **receptive, reproductive, receptive-reproductive, productive, receptive-productive and**

**2.**  **communicative (or speech), conditional(pseudo) -communicative (or pseudo- speech) , non-communicative ( linguistic) exercises.**

In **receptive exercises** the student gets the verbal information through the auditory or visual channel, and then indicates that he recognizes, distinguishes sounds, grammatical structures, vocabulary etc., and understands oral or written statements. **In reproductive exercises** the student creates without changes or with changes the accepted material (sound, word, sentence, text). All reproductive activity is actually receptive- reproductive, because the student first takes the verbal information from a teacher or speaker or a textbook, and then reproduces it fully or partially.

According to communicativeness the system of exercises includes first of all **the conditional-(pseudo) communicative exercises** designed to develop linguistic skills and then **communicative,** used for the development of language skills. Along with conditional – communicative exercises the system can include **non-communicative exercises**.

In a system of exercises for learning receptive types of speech ( listening and reading )- receptive types of exercises are used; for teaching productive speech activities ( speaking and writing ) first receptive -reproductive exercises are used, then productive exercise.

Some types of exercises are divided into types according to the criterion of form of performance (oral,

written), participation of native language (monolingual, bilingual (translation ), function in teaching (training , control), place of performance (class, home, laboratory).

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Main criteria** | **Direction of information**  **(reception or reproduction)** | **receptive,**  **reproductive,**  **receptive-reproductive,**  **receptive-productive,**  **productive.** |
| **Communicativeness** | **Communicative (or speech)**  **Conditional(pseudo) -communicative (or pseudo- speech)**  **Non-commutative ( linguistic)** |
| **Additional criteria** | **Form of performance** | **Oral**  **Written** |
| **Participation of native language** | **monolingual**  **bilingual (translation)** |
| **Function in teaching** | **Training**  **Control** |
| **Place of performance** | **Class**  **Home**  **Laboratory** |

We should distinguish the common system of exercises for learning to communicate in foreign language, covering all types of speech activities and that finds its material embodiment in a text book. Then the system of exercises to develop listening, speaking, reading and writing skills and the subsystem of exercises for "technical skills" (technique of reading and writing), linguistic and language skills in a certain kind of SA, within which we should distinguish some groups of exercises to master the specific skills (e.g. vocabulary, spelling, etc..) and separate skills (such as exchange of remarks).

In methodological literature, you will meet the notion of "complex of exercises”, which various authors interpreted in different ways. We will consider this notion dealing with a specific language or speech material (e.g . complex of exercises for mastering the future tense, etc.). The general structure of exercises to teach a foreign language to teach communication, includes four systems according to four main types of SA. Each system contains two or three subsystems which, in turn, are divided into groups. The scheme cannot show the relationship between different types of SAs.

**Classification of exercises in teaching English**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Types of exercises | Non communicative  (linguistic) | **Conditional(pseudo) -communicative** | Communicative |
|  |  | (pseudo- speech) | (speech) |
|  | Types of exercises | Types of exercises | Types of exercises |
| Receptive | reception, recognition Сприйняття, впізнавання | Listening to or reading | Listening or reading |
| or distinction (differentiation) of sounds,tones, graphemes | information | the text to get the information |
| Lexical units, Grammar structure | Questions orders at the level of phrase, sentences or group of sentences |  |
| Reproductive | Learning by heart ( lexical units, sentences, texts) sentences grammatical structure лексичних одиниць, | Імітація зразка |  |
|  | мовлення (ЗМ), |  |
| imitation (sounds, | підстановка у ЗМ, |  |
| lexical units, sentences) | трансформація ЗМ, | Retelling the text |
| replacement / insertion of | розширення ЗМ, | (unknown to the listeners |
| lexical units; changes of grammar forms, | завершення ЗМ, |  |
| translation; shortening and expansion sentences | відповіді на запитання різних типів, |  |
| expansion of sentences, |  |  |
| Combination of simple sentences into complex sentences | переказ тексту(відомого слухачам, |  |
| Making the sentences Retelling the text (known to listeners) | але від імені персонажа) |  |
| Productive |  | Combining of the speech models | Повідомлення |
|  | (single structural and with various structures) into | якогось факту |
|  | phrasal units; | (фактів); description |
|  | Combining of the speech | (погоди, квартири, |
|  | models into dialogical units Questions -replies | людини); story (about some events, facts); |
|  |  | доказ |
|  | запитання- | (якихось положень, |
|  | контрзапитання; | фактів і т. п.); бесіда |
|  | повідомлення- | (між учнем/учнями і |
|  | запитання; спонукання- | вчителем, між двома |
|  | згода/відмова; | учнями; групова); |
|  | спонукапня-запитання і т. п. | Writing of the note, letter, plan, abstracts, annotations, etc. |

Exercises of the textbook may be subdivided: (1) according to the activity they require on the part of the learners (drill and speech);

The first group of drill exercises includes:

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

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

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

Exercises for developing pronunciation should help pupils to acquire correct pronunciation habits. Special exercises should be provided for the purpose, among them those designed for developing pupils' skills in discriminating sounds, stress, or melody. It is necessary that records and tape-recordings should be applied, and they should form an inseparable part of the textbook.

Exercises for assimilating vocabulary should help pupils to acquire habits and skills in using the words when speaking and writing, and recognizing them when listening and reading. Most of the exercises should be communicative by nature:

* they should remind us of natural conversation: questions, statements, exclamatory sentences, etc.;
* they should be somehow logically connected with pupils' activity;
* they should reflect pupils' environment;
* they should stimulate pupils to use the given ?

Grammar exercises should develop pupils' habits and skills in using grammar items to be learnt in speaking, reading, and writing. The teaching of grammar may largely be carried on through sentence patterns, phrase patterns, words as a pattern, and the ample use of these patterns in various oral and written exercises. Grammar, therefore, must be divided into small fragments, each taught in response to an immediate need "... It is not the grammar of English that is so difficult: it is English usage. " 1 Therefore grammar exercises must be suggested in connection with situations, and remind us of the real usage of grammar forms and structures in the act of communication.

Exercises for developing oral language should constitute 40—50% of the exercises of the textbook. The other 50% will be those designed for assimilating vocabulary, grammar, the technique of reading, etc.

**1 *Gurrey*** *P.* Teaching English as a Second Language. Longmans, London,. 1963, p. 78.

Exercises designed for developing oral language should prepare pupils:

— to use a foreign language at the lessons for classroom needs;

- to talk about the subjects within pupils' interests, and about the objects surrounding them;

— to discuss what they have read and heard.

The textbook should provide pupils with exercises for developing both forms of speech — dialogue and monologue. As far as dialogue is concerned pupils should have exercises which require:

(1) learning a pattern dialogue; the pattern dialogues should be short enough for pupils to memorize them as a pattern, and they must be different in structure: question — response; question — question; statement — question; statement — statement;

(2) substitutions within the pattern dialogue;

(3) making up dialogues of their own (various situational pictures may be helpful).

As to monologue pupils should have exercises which help them:

(1) to make statements, different in structure (statement level);

(2) to express their thoughts or to speak about an object, a subject, using different sentence patterns, combining them in a logical sequence (utterance level);

(3) to speak on the object, subject, film, filmstrip, story read or heard, situations offered (discourse level). The textbook should include exercises which prepare pupils for retelling texts, making oral reproductions, etc.

Exercises for developing reading should help pupils to acquire all the skills necessary to read and understand a text. Therefore, there should be graphemic-phonemic, structural information, and semantic-communicative exercises, the amount of each group being different depending on the stage of teaching.

Exercises for writing should develop pupils' skills in penmanship, spelling, and composition.

**Practical class 6 . System of Exercises in Teaching English.**

**1. Questions to be discussed: ?**

**List of recommended literature: ?**

**2. Questions for control. ?**

**3. Practical tasks to do:**

1. Make up a catalogue of exercises for teaching reading.

2. Design a lesson plan which includes all stages in reading (use the text attached “Smell of the Money”).

3. Act out the designed lesson.

4. Examine one of the lessons in Pupil’s Book to deduce upon what methods of conveying the meaning of new words are presented. Make your recommendations.

6.Analyze the fragment of the lesson of teaching letters.(see the attached fragment #1)

6. Fill in the table. ?

**4. Glossary, Lecture 6 ,**

**1. Learn the following methodological terms:**

**?**

**5. Multiple choice test.**

**Instructions: Identify the correct answer and circle it.**

Вправи Типи вправ

1. питально-відповідні а) імітаційні

на вивченому матеріалі

2. складання фраз за зразком b) трансформаційні

/таблицею

3. повторення слів, c) репродуктивні

фраз/списування

4. заміна граматичної форми d) підстановчі

е) аналітичні

**12. У результаті виконання яких вправ формуються основні якості навички:**

а) Підготовчих

б) Мовленнєвих

в) На переклад

**6 . Виберіть із наведених нижче вправ графемно-фонемні:**

а) визначте, яка літера пропущена в словах;

б) прочитайте текст, поділіть його на змістові частини, дайте назву кожній з них;

в) скільки літер у даному слові? Скільки звуків?

г) вставте в речення слово, якого не вистачає за змістом, вибравши його зі слів, подібних за написанням.

**Lecture 7. TEACHING LISTENING** **(The development of communicative competence in listening)**

**1. Listening as a communicative activity.**

**2. The difficulties in auding a foreign language.**

**3. Teaching listening skills. Types of exercises.**

**4. Principles of teaching listening.**

**1. Listening as a communicative activity**

The previous information dealt with the teaching of various aspects of the language, namely, phonetics (pronunciation), vocabulary, and grammar. The knowledge of each of the aspects is of great importance to learners. However, when we say a person knows the language we first of all mean he understands the language spoken and can speak it himself.

Speech is a bilateral process. It includes hearing, on the one hand, and speaking, on the other. When we say "hearing" we mean auding or listening and comprehension. In real life we can hear somebody speak without actually listening to what is being said. Listening is a communicative skill to get the meaning from what we hear. Hearing is an act of receiving the language through the ears without interpretation. Listening is an act of interpreting speech that one receives through the ears.

Listening is the most common communicative activity. In daily life: "we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write." (Morley, 1991). It is stated that people use 45 % of the amount of time for listening, 30% for speaking, 16% for reading, and 9% for writing. So listening is the leader if compared with other speech activities. Listening is also important for obtaining comprehensible input that is necessary for language development.

Auding or listening and comprehension are difficult for learners because they should discriminate speech sounds quickly, retain them while hearing a word, a phrase, or a sentence and recognize this as a sense unit. Pupils can easily and naturally do this in their own language and they cannot do this in a foreign language when they start learning the language. Pupils are very slow in grasping what they hear because they are conscious of the linguistic forms they perceive by the ear. This results in misunderstanding or a complete failure of understanding.

Listening is receptive speech activity and based on the following psychological processes: **auditory perception** (e.g., sound discrimination, recognition of stress patterns, intonation, pauses, etc.); **recognition** (e.g., recognize a word**,** the sound pattern as a word, locate the word in the lexicon, retrieve lexical, grammatical and semantic information about the word, etc.);**discrimination (**the sounds, intonation**,** etc.); **sentence processing** (parsing; e.g., detect sentence constituents, building a structure frame, etc.);**construction the literal meaning** of the sentence (select the relevant meaning in case of ambiguous word);**concentration;** **holding the information** in short-term memory; **anticipation / prediction /** - prediction what is to be said; **guessing / inferring from context**; **segmentation /chunking; grouping; understanding whole discourse and interpretation.**

**2. The difficulties in auding a foreign** **language**

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

(1) linguistic material for auding;

(2) the content of the material suggested for listening and comprehension;

(3) conditions in which the material is presented.

***1. Linguistic material for auding***

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

***Phonetic difficulties*** appear because the phonic system of English and Russian/Ukrsainian differ greatly. The hearer often interprets the sounds of a foreign language as if they were of his own language, which usually results in misunderstanding. The following opposites present much trouble to beginners in learning English: θ – s, θ – f, w – v, tr - t∫, dr – dg, Λ-o, Ə- z , Ə – v, s - z , t - t∫, a: - o, ǽ - e , n – ŋ.

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

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

The difference in intonation often prevents pupils from comprehending communication. For example, *Good ‘morning* (when meeting); *Good ,morning* (at parting). The teacher, therefore, should develop his pupils' ear for English sounds and intonation.

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

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

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

***2****.* ***The content of the material suggested for listening and comprehension***

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

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

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

***The context and pupils' readiness*** (intellectual and situational) to understand it. The way the narrative progresses: whether the passage is taken from the beginning of a story, the nucleus of the story, the progress of the action or, finally, the end of the story. The title of the story may be helpful in comprehending the main idea of the text. The simpler the narrative progresses, the better it is for developing pupils' skills in auding.

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

***3****.* ***Conditions in which the material is presented***

Conditions of presenting the material are of great importance for teaching auding, The following conditions should be taken into consideration.

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

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

***The presence or absence of the speaker.*** The most favorable condition is when pupils can see the speaker as is the case when the teacher speaks to them in a foreign language. The most unfavorable condition for auding is listening and comprehending a dialogue, when pupils cannot see the speakers and do not take part in the conversation.

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

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

**3. Teaching listening skills. Types of exercises**

The teacher must train his pupils in listening comprehension beginning with the first lesson and throughout the whole period of instruction. Conducting a lesson in a foreign language gives the teacher an opportunity to develop pupils' abilities in hearing; to train them in listening to him attentively during the lesson; to demonstrate the language as a means of communication; to provide favorable conditions for the assimilation of the language; to perfect his own speaking skills; to keep his own speech under control, i. e., to keep himself from undue talkativeness.

The teacher uses the foreign language:

(a) when giving the class instructions;

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

(c) when checking pupils' comprehension;

(d) when consolidating the material presented;

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

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

Listening is not a passive process. It involves both ***bottom-up and top-down processes*** and requires the use of non-linguistic as well as linguistic knowledge. **Bottom-up** processing is driven by the ideas that are ready in the listener’s head (recognizing and discriminating sounds, intonation, grammatical structure, lexical meaning). **Top-down** processing deals with global understanding and with the interpretation of the text. Listening has its product – the information received.

The teacher uses **drill and speech exercises** for developing listening comprehension. **Drill exercises** designed for overcoming linguistic difficulties, and exercises which can eliminate psychological difficulties. There are 3 groups of drill exercises to develop perceptive skills of listening. These drills for perception activities and train the learner to perceive correctly the different sounds, sound- combinations, stress and intonation, words, grammar forms.  
 The first group of drill exercises includes:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

*I usually spent my holidays in the country.*

*The Ukraine is a large country.*

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

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

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

*He can help you. I need his help.*

The second group of drill exercises includes:

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

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

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

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

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

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

- Listen to the following text: *I have a sister. Her name is Ann. Mike has no sister. He has a brother.* Now say what the name of Mike’s sister is.

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

(c) exercises which develop pupils' ***visual imagination***:

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

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

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

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

**Speech exercises** are designed for developing pupils' skills in auding. The exercises are fulfilled on a text for listening.

Listening process is usually divided into three basic stages:  
1. Pre-listening (listening with a purpose, brain storming, preparation, etc).  
2 While listening (the actual process of listening).  
3. Post-listening (preparation for other speech activities).

**Pre-listening**

Prepare the learners by introducing the topic and finding out what they already know about it. A good way to do this is to have a brainstorming session and some discussion questions related to the topic. Before pupils are invited to listen to the text the teacher should ensure that all the words and grammar are familiar to the pupils otherwise language difficulties will prevent them from understanding the story. Thus, if there are some unfamiliar words, the teacher introduces them beforehand; he either puts them down on the blackboard with the mother tongue equivalents in the sequence they appear in the text, or he asks pupils to pronounce the words written on the blackboard if he plans a talk on the text afterwards, and pupils are to use these words in their speech. Predicting content from the title etc. can be also done.

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

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

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

- Listen and try to grasp the details. You will have to name them.

- Listen to the story. You will ask questions on it afterwards.

-- Listen to the text. You will retell it afterwards.

-- Listen to the story. We shall have a discussion on it. Etc.

For clarifying any necessary contextual information and vocabulary to comprehend the text showing pictures, maps or graphs and may be helpful.

**2. While listening** When pupils are ready to listen, the text can be read to them. If it is the teacher who reads or tells the story, he can help pupils to comprehend the text with gestures. If the text is recorded, a picture or pictures can facilitate comprehension. The pupils listen to the text once as is usually the case in real communication. In listening, there is no repetition: the message is delivered once. Then the teacher checks their comprehension. If they have not understood it, they are told to listen to the text again. The teacher can use a dialogue to help pupils to understand the text after they have listened to the story for the first time, i. e., he may ask questions, make statements on the text for pupils to agree or reject them.

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

general questions;

special questions;

wrong statements;

pupils' questions on the text;

making a plan;

telling the text according to the plan (it may be done in a chain-like way);

giving the gist of the text.

**Post – Listening**

This activity should help the listener to evaluate success in carrying out the task and to integrate listening with the other language skills extend the topic and help students remember new vocabulary. This could be a discussion group, craft project, writing task, game, etc.

A post-listening activity may relate to a pre-listening activity, such as predicting; may expand on the topic or the language of the listening text; or may transfer what has been learned to reading, speaking, or writing activities.

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

**4. Principles of teaching listening**

1. Listening should receive primary attention in the early stage of ESL instruction.

2. Maximize the use of material that is relevant to students' real life.

3. Maximize the use of authentic language.

4. Vary the materials in terms of speakers' gender, age, dialect, accent, topic, speed, noise level, genre, age.

5. Always ask students to listen with a purpose and allow them to show their comprehension in a task.

6. Language material intended to be used for training listening comprehension should never be presented visually first.

7. Make the "input" language of the activity simpler or less complex:  
 slow your speech;  
 use longer pauses;  
 repeat unfamiliar information;  
 clearly signal shifts in the text (intonation, discourse markers);  
 paraphrase unfamiliar vocabulary.

8. Create pre-listening activities that give a useful preview of the content and procedures in the activity: introduce difficult/new vocabulary, structures in advance; state the purpose clearly; provide some questions in advance; have a warm-up discussion that relates to the topic.

9. Give visual support for the listening activity: maps; graphs; illustrations; photographs; charts; non-verbal communication.

10. Break down the steps of the activity in order to provide sub-goals, in this case listen several times, each time with a different goal.

**Practical class 7. TEACHING LISTENING (The development of communicative competence in listening)**

**1. Questions to be discussed**

**1. Listening as a communicative activity.**

**2. The difficulties in auding a foreign language.**

**3. Teaching listening skills. Types of exercises.**

**List of recommended literature**

1. Гальскова Н.Д. Современная методика обучения иностранным языкам. М.: Аркти, 2000.- С.117–125.

2. Колесникова И.Л. Англо-русский терминологический справочник по методике преподавания иностранных языков / И.Л. Колесникова, О.А.Долгина – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 431 с.

3. Методика викладання іноземних мов у середніх навчальних закладах / Кол. авторів під керівн. С.Ю. Ніколаєвої. – К.: Ленвіт, 2002. – 328 с.

4. Мильруд Р.П. Методика преподавания английского языка. English teaching Methodology: учебное пособие для вузов – М.:Дрофа, 2007. – 253 с.

5. Практикум з методики викладання англійської мови у середніх навчальних закладах: Посібник. Вид. 2-е, доп. і переробл. / Кол. авторів під керівн. С.Ю. Ніколаєвої. – К.: Ленвіт, 2004. – 360 с.

6. Соловова Е.Н. Методика обучения иностранным языкам: базовый курс: пособие для студентов педвузов и учителей. – М.: АСТ Астрель, 2008. – 272 с.

7. Brown H. Douglas. Principles of Language Learning and teaching. 2nd edition. – Printice Hall, 1987. -285 p.

8. Celce-Murcia M. Teaching English as a Second or a Foreign language, 2-nd edition, University of California. - Heinle and Heinle Publishers, 1991.

9. Morley, J. (1984) Listening and language learning in ESL. Orlando, FL: Harcourt, Brace Jovanovich (ERIC, Center for Applied Linguistics)

10. Morley, J. (1991) Listening comprehension in second/foreign language instruction in Celce-Murcia,

11. Rogova G.V. Methods of Teaching English.1983.-311p..

**2. Questions for control**

1. The importance of listening in teaching a foreign language.

2. What are aims of teaching listening in school?

3. Describe listening as a process.

4. What is involved in listening comprehension?

5. Analyzephonetic difficulties of material in teaching listening.

6. Analyzelexical difficulties of material in teaching listening.

7. Analyze grammatical difficulties of material in teaching listening.

8. How does the content of the material influence comprehension?

9. Analyze the conditions in which the material should be presented.

10. The role of teacher's speech in developing pupils’ listening skills.

11. Analyzedrill exercises for developing listening comprehension.

12. What are the stages in working on a text?

13. Principles of teaching listening. Comment on them.

**3. Practical tasks to do**

1. Make up a catalogue of exercises for teaching listening.

2. Design a lesson plan which includes all stages in listening.

3. Act out the designed lesson.

4. Examine one of the lessons in Pupil’s Book to deduce upon whattechniques are used to develop listening skills. Make your recommendations.

5. Examine the syllabus for teaching listening in different forms.

**4. Glossary. Lecture 7. Teaching listening**

**1. Learn the following methodological terms:**

auditory perception– сприйняття на слух

recognition (e.g., recognize the word, the sound pattern as a word, locate the word in the lexicon, retrieve lexical, grammatical and semantic information about the word, etc.) - впізнання

sentence processing (parsing; e.g., detect sentence constituents, building a structure frame, etc.) - опрацювання речення

concentration – зосередженість, увага

holding the information in short-term memory – утримання інформації в оперативній пам'яті

anticipation / prediction /forward inferencing - prediction what is to be said - антиципація, очікування, передбачення

guessing / inferring from context – змістова догадка

segmentation /chunking – сегментування мовленнєвого потоку

grouping- групування

understanding whole discourse and interpretation – розуміння й інтерпретація повідомлення, що сприймається

chunk – єдині блоки, лексико-граматичні єдності, котрі запам'ятовуються учнями цілком як «формули» і легко використовуються у мовленні. Пізніше ці блоки можуть поділятися на окремі слова і вживатися в поєднанні з іншими словами.

**5. Multiple choice test**

**Circle the correct variant.**

**1. In methods of teaching “listening” is understood as:**

a) perception of sounding speech

b) perception and understanding of sounding speech

c) perception and storing of sounding speech

2**. Listening is :**

a) productive activity

b) receptive activity

c) reproductive activity

**3. For successful listening it is necessary:**

a) correct use of lexical units

b) correct pronunciation of sounds

c) differentiation of words that are similar in sounding

**4. In teaching listening the main role play such specific psychological features as:**

a) visual memory, anticipation, acoustical differential sensitivity

b) anticipation , concentration of attention, will

c) acoustical differential sensitivity , acoustical memory, concentration of attention, anticipation

**5. Speed of presentation of audio texts is slowed down due to:**

a) decrease in tempo of speech

b) increase in pauses between semantic pieces

c) increase in quantity of speech pauses

**6. To the preparatory exercises in teaching listening belong the exercises:**

a) in understanding the description of a picture by ear

b) in definition of an unfamiliar word among familiar words by the ear

c) in listening to the text from a tape- recording

**7. To the speech exercises in teaching listening belong the exercises:**

a) in understanding a dialogue by ear;

b) in determining the intonation of the phrase heard

c) in determining the quantity of words heard

**8. Define and distribute into groups the exercises in developing listening skills:**

Drills:

Speech:

1 - to distinguish equally sounding words and to correlate them with semantic value

2 - to learn a word on the base of a familiar root and word-building elements

3 - to make the written plan to the text heard

4 - to define the main idea of the text

5 - to hear the sentence and to understand its main content, ignoring unfamiliar words

6 - to define in the group of sentences the one that expresses the main content of the given text

7 - to define sequence of pictures according to the content of the text

8 - to find in the text a sentence that doesn’t coincide with the content of the text

9 - to choose from some pictures those that illustrate the events described in the sounding text

10 – to choose from given sentences the one that could be a title of the text heard

**9. The basic stages of work on the audio-text:**

1. Removal of difficulties of perception of the text, presentation of the text, repeated presentation of the text, checking understanding of the text.

2. Single presentations of the text, checking understanding of the text.

3. Presentation of the text, removal of the difficulties of perception of the text, checking understanding of the text .

4. Presentation of the text, checking understanding of the text, removal of the difficulties of perception of the text.

**Lecture 8.TEACHING MONOLOGUE (The development of monologue competence)**

**1.Speaking as a skill. Goals in teaching speaking.**

**2 Communicative and linguistic characteristics of monologue.**

**3. Prepared and unprepared monologue.**

**4. Teaching monologue. Types of exercises for teaching monologue.**

1. **Speaking as a skill. Goals in Teaching Speaking**

Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing,receiving and processing information. Speaking requires that learners not only know how to produce specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary, but also that they understand when, why, and in what ways to produce language. Moreover, speech has its own skills, structures, and conventions different from written language. A good speaker synthesizes this array of skills and knowledge to succeed in a given speech act.

Speaking is an integral part of oral conversation. The syllabus requirements for oral language are as follows:

1. to understand the language spoken;
2. to carry on a conversation and to speak a foreign language within the topics and language material the syllabus sets.

This is the practical aim in teaching oral language. But oral language is not only an aim in itself, it is also a mighty means of foreign language instruction. It is a means of presenting language material: sounds, words, and grammar items. It is also a means of practicing sentence patterns (grammar) and vocabulary assimilation. Finally, it is used for developing pronunciation habits and skills and, therefore, for reading and writing since they are closely connected with pupils' ability to pronounce correctly what they read and write. Oral language is a means of testing pupils' comprehension when they hear or read a text. Properly used oral language ensures pupils' progress in language learning and, consequently, arouses their interest in the subject. Thus speaking is the most important part of the work during the lesson.

What makes oral speech different from written language?

The process of speaking starts before the actual moment of articulation. a great deal of planning in the process of speech production is done during speech hesitation pauses.Hesitation pauses occur mostly before the most important parts of utterance where it is necessary to think hard what to say. Speakers do not deal with one meaningful chunk of speech at a time. Instead, speakers begin planning the next meaningful clause while uttering the present one.

Oral speech is addressed to an audience. It is time-bound, spontaneous, interactive, exists in real time, is accompanied by non-verbal features.

Oral speech produces a discourse. The discourse with the information-transferring function is called **transactional**. Transactional function of the language is **message-oriented.** Examples are reports, stories, descriptions, etc. They are presented to the listener or audience. It can be done in the form of monologue. Other types of conversation are different. People chat with each other for different purposes. There are different motivations for speaking with each other. This function of the language is called **interactional.** Interactional function of the language is **listener-oriented.** Such speech is performed in the form of dialogues.

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

Since "language is not a substance, it is a process." (N. Brooks) and "language doesn't exist. It happens." (P. Stevens), we should know under what conditions "it happens".

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

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

2. Speech is always addressed to an interlocutor or audience.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Speaking exists in two forms: monologue and dialogue.

In order to get a better understanding of what monologue is we are to consider the

communicative and linguistic characteristics that should be taken into account in teaching this type of speech activities.

**2. Communicative and linguistic characteristics of monologue**

**2.1. Communicative characteristics of monologue**

**Monologue** is a type of oral communication directed towards the interlocutor or audience and provides speech of one person. In the process of communication the monologue provides the following communicative functions***: informative***– to provide information about objects or the environment, a description of events, actions, condition; ***influence*** - a call to action or prevent unwanted actions; ***expressive*** (emotionally expressive) - use of communication to describe the condition of the speaker, to relieve emotional tension; ***entertainment*** – acting at stage or among friends ; ***ritually-cult*** – speech during any ritual ceremony (e. g, speech at the jubilee).

A speaker can use conventional phrases without much meaning in them (e.g. *How are you?*). The speaker can use plain or metaphoric language to be more expressive (e.g. *If you don’t obey, you’ ll get it in the neck*.).

**2.2. Linguistic characteristics of monologue**

1. **Monologue** is **one way transmission of information** and hasone –sided direction. The speaker doesn’t seek to elicit verbal responses from the interlocutor. It is not necessary to reply to the speaker in the form of speech. The listeners can react in other ways (mime, jests, behavior, etc.).

**2. Cohesion.** The speaker produces clear smoothly flowing well-structured speech due to the use of a number of coherence-creating devices. He uses cohesive devices to link utterances into clear coherent discourse. Listeners expect to be guided in their understanding of the message via markers that highlight the relative importance of ideas, and signal cohesive links between ideas. When these markers are missing, listeners experience difficulty in understanding the message, and communication problems ensue. The speaker should link groups of words with simple connectors such as ***and, but, because*** and use of a variety of organizational patterns and a wide range of connectors including text coherence, text organization. E.g. *At first, then, at last, finely, besides, after that, etc.*

3. **Relevance.** It is the relevance of contributions to the tasks and topic. Ideas and a wide range of vocabulary and complex structures are used effectively. There would be a very positive effect on the listeners.

4. **Rather continuous way of speaking**. It deals with the appropriate length of individual contributions (long or short) to develop the discourse. The extent of the contributions should be appropriate, i.e. long or short as required at a particular point in the development of the discourse in order to achieve the task.  
 5. **Logically organized**. The monologue should be arranged logically to develop the themes or arguments required by the tasks. The ideas are relevant and well developed.

There are certain typical types of monologues with typical and highly predictable features. Among the genres of monologues are **description** (telling the details to an active listener), **narration** (telling the development of events to an active listener), **reasoning** (telling one's train of thought to an active listener), **identification** (talking about one's likes and dislikes), **comment** (opinions and points of view), **decision-making** (people working towards a decision), **reasoning or argument** (seeking a solution and pursuing one's point). The ability to perform these genres is a proof of the skill level. This is how language is used in everyday life.

There are speaker's skills and speech skills are to be developed. A good speaker can:

1. connect some utterances and develop discourse according to logical scheme, e.g. *Who? When? What for?* etc.

2. use the sounds, stress patterns, rhythmic structures, and intonations of the language correctly;

3. use grammar structures accurately;

4. assess characteristics of the target audience, including shared knowledge or shared points of reference, status and power relations of participants, interest levels, or differences in perspectives;

5. select vocabulary that is understandable and appropriate for the audience, the topic being discussed;

6. apply strategies to enhance comprehensibility, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, or checking for listener comprehension;

7. use gestures or body language;

8. adjust components of speech such as vocabulary, rate of speech, and complexity of grammar structures to maximize listener comprehension and involvement .

Teachers should monitor learners' speech production to determine what skills and knowledge they already have and what areas need development.

**3. Prepared and unprepared monologue**

Pupils' speech in both forms may be of two kinds: prepared and unprepared. It is considered prepared when the pupil has been given time enough to think over its content and form. He can speak on the subject following the plan made either independently at home or in class under the teacher's supervision. His speech will be more or less correct and sufficiently fluent since plenty of preliminary exercises had been done before.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Story retelling is a speaking activity in which the learners retell the story that they have read, seen or listened to. This is considered an impromptu monologue activity. The easiest way is to have the learner summarize the story he/she has read, which, however, is regarded as a quasi-impromptu speech as the learner can use the words or phrases they encountered while reading the original story. The same activity can be done after the learner has listened to a story. Another popular way is to show the learner a picture, or pictures and have him/her explain what he/she saw.

To introduce group work is one way to solve this problem. Suppose there are forty students in class. The instructor divides the class into five groups of eight learners. Each group has one speaker, and the other seven members are the listeners. The speaker tells a story to the others. The instructor sees that each speaker tells a different story from other speakers'. When the story retelling is over, the listeners rewrite the gist of the story, and give it to the speaker. The speakers, after reading the rewritten story by the listeners, move to the next group to tell the same story.

**Prefabricated Monologue**  
 No matter whether it is prefabricated or impromptu, monologue can be a real communicative activity if there is an audience. As the speaker is allowed time for preparation, a prefabricated monologue can provide a particularly good opportunity to acquire a large variety of new language items through real communication. It is also a chance for the learner to get familiar with more authentic language since the learner can choose the best way to say what he/she wants to say by rumination. Prefabricated monologues are longer and more complicated than improvisations, and they need more detailed feedback.

**4. Teaching monologue. Types of exercises for teaching monologue**

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

1. No speech is possible until pupils learn how to make up sentences in the foreign language and how to make statements. To develop pupils' skills in making statements pupils are invited to perform various drill exercises within the sentence patterns given:

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

Pupil 1: *I can see a blackboard.*

Pupi1 2: *I can see a picture*.

Pupil 1: *I am fond of music.*

Pupi1 2: *I am fond of classical music.*

**- extension**: *I have an interesting book, I have an interesting book at home;*

**- transformation**: *He has a book, He has no book;*

Say the opposite*.* Teacher (pointing to the boy): *He likes to play hockey*.

Pupil: *I don't like to play hockey.*

**- completion**: *If I have time I'll ...* .

Pattern practice, of course, makes no pretence of being communication. Each pattern will have to be repeated many times with a great variety of changes in its contents until the pattern becomes a habit. Pupils make statements of their own in connection with the situations suggested by the teacher (*Give it a name*. *Make statements on the picture*.).

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

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

Teacher: *Say a few words about it.* (He points to an object.)

Pupil: *This is a pencil. The pencil is green. It is on the table. I like the pencil.*

*Get information and sum up what you have learnt from your classmates*.

Teacher: *She cut her finger*. Pupil: *Who cut her finger?* Class: *Ann*.

- *When did she cut it?*

*- Yesterday.*

*- What did she cut it with?*

*- With a knife.*

*- Why did she cut her finger?*

*- Because the knife was sharp*.

Pupil: *Yesterday Ann cut her finger. She cut it with a knife. The knife was sharp.*

This exercise is useful both for developing dialogue and monologue.

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

3. After pupils have learned how to say a few sentences in connection with a situation they are prepared for speaking at discourse level. Free speech is possible provided pupils have acquired habits and skills in making statements and in combining them in a logical sequence. At this level pupils are asked to speak on a picture, a set of pictures, a film-strip, a film, comment on a text they have read or heard, make up a story of their own; of course, this being done within the language material (grammar and vocabulary) pupils have assimilated. To help pupils to speak the teacher supplies them with "what to speak about". The devices used for the purpose are: visual aids which can stimulate the pupil's speaking through visual perception of the subject to be spoken about, including a text read; audio aids which can stimulate the pupil's speaking through auditory perception of a stimulus; audio-visual aids when pupils can see and hear what to speak about.

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

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

**Practical class 8. TEACHING MONOLOGUE**

**1. Questions to be discussed**

**1. Speaking as a skill. Goals in teaching speaking.**

**2. Communicative and linguistic characteristics of monologue.**

**3. Prepared and unprepared monologue.**

**4. Teaching monologue. Types of exercises for teaching monologue**

**List of recommended literature**

1. Колесникова И.Л. Англо-русский терминологический справочник по методике преподавания иностранных языков / И.Л. Колесникова, О.А.Долгина – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 431 с.

2. Методика викладання іноземних мов у середніх навчальних закладах / Кол. авторів під керівн. С.Ю. Ніколаєвої. – К.: Ленвіт, 2002. – 328 с.

3. Мильруд Р.П. Методика преподавания английского языка. English teaching Methodology: учебное пособие для вузов – М.:Дрофа, 2007. – 253 с.

4. Практикум з методики викладання англійської мови у середніх навчальних закладах: Посібник. Вид. 2-е, доп. і переробл. / Кол. авторів під керівн. С.Ю. Ніколаєвої. – К.: Ленвіт, 2004. – 360 с.

5. Соловова Е.Н. Методика обучения иностранным языкам: базовый курс: пособие для студентов педвузов и учителей. – М.: АСТ Астрель, 2008. – 272 с.

6. Brown H. Douglas. Principles of Language Learning and teaching. 2nd edition. – Printice Hall, 1987. -285 p.

7. Celce-Murcia M. Teaching English as a Second or a Foreign language, 2-nd edition, University of California. - Heinle and Heinle Publishers, 1991.- 567p

8. Littlewood, W. (1981). Communicative Language Teaching. Cambridge University Press.

9. Rogova G.V. Methods of Teaching English.1983.-311p..

**2. Questions for control**

1. Speaking as a skill. Goals in teaching speaking.

2. What makes oral speech different from written language?

3. Communicative characteristics of monologue.

4. Linguistic characteristics of monologue.

5. The main types of monologues.

6. What is the role of reciting in language learning?

7. When is speech considered prepared or unprepared?

8. The rules for teacher’s speech in developing pupils’ speaking skills.

9. What are the stages in teaching monologue?

**3. Practical tasks to do**

1. Make up a catalogue of exercises for teaching monologue.

2. Design a lesson plan which includes all stages in teaching monologue. Topic “My native town” for 6-th form pupils.

3. Act out the designed lesson.

4. Examine one of the lessons in Pupil’s Book to deduce upon whattechniques are used to develop monologue skills. Give your recommendations.

5. Examine the syllabus for teaching monologue in different forms.

**4. Glossary. Lecture 8. Teaching monologue**

**1. Learn the following methodological terms**:

bottom-up **-**  «знизу догори» (від часткового до загального) пор. top-down

prepared speech - підготовлене мовлення

unprepared speech – непідготовлене мовлення

prefabricated monologue – підготовлений монолог  
impromptu monologue – монолог без підготовки  
discourse - дискурсивна компетенція (здатність розуміти і генерувати зв'язні тексти та усні висловлювання, що відповідають нормам певного стилю і жанру).  
cue-cards - картки з ключовими словами

cues - опори; опори-стимули; підказки; **тж.** prompts   
prompt ideas by asking questions (what about her job? how old is she?). підкажіть ідеї за допомогою питань (де вона працює? скільки їй років?)

visual "props"- зорові опори

pseudo-communicative productive exercises – умовно-комунікативні продуктивна вправи

logical-synthetic schemes (charts) – логіко-синтаксичні схеми

cued monologues –каркаси монологів

reciting – відтворення вивченого напам'ять

relevance – відповідність до теми, завдання - тематичність

text coherence –послідовне викладення ідей/думок у тексті

coherent discourse – логічно послідовне висловлювання

coherence-creating devices – пов'язуючі засоби

cohesion - пов'язаність

drill - дрилл (інтенсивне мовленнєве тренування)do a rolling drill where all the students individually, (not chorally), say could you…? again and again. проведіть хвилеподібний дрилл, під час якого учні по черзі ( не хором) вимовляють *could you…?* багато разів поспіль

expansion- розширення (напр. тексту)**,** поширення(речення)students expand the headline as much as they can, adding extra information…- учні розширюють заголовок, додаючи до нього якнайбільше додаткової інформації…

group work - групова робота; робота в групі

intake – засвоєний матеріал

meaningful learning – осмислене навчання, пор. rote learning

rote ~ механічне заучування, пор. meaningful learning

output - активне використання засвоєного матеріалу, інформація, яка передається

paraphrase- вправи на перефразування; перифраз тж. rephrasing

performance – користування мовою; практична мовленнєва діяльність

pre-teaching – попереднє пояснення нового матеріалу (до початку виконання вправи або завдання)reconstruction – відновлення **(**тексту, висловлювання)

reduction- скорочення (тексту)

reformulation див**.** paraphrase тж. rephrasing

rephrasing див**.** paraphrase тж**.** reformulation

skill - 1. вміння, 2. навичка ,3. вид мовленнєвої діяльності  
in other words they (literate people) possess the four basic language skills of speaking, writing, listening and reading. - іншими словами, вони (освічені люди) володіють чотирма основними видами мовленнєвої діяльності: мовленням, письмом, аудіюванням і читанням.macro-~ комплексні вміння

micro-~ часткові вміння **тж.** sub-skills

productive ~ продуктивні види мовленнєвої діяльності

interlocutor- співбесідник

logical sequence- логічна послідовність

manifold repetitions- багаторазові повторення

plenty of preliminary exercises- багато попередньої підготовки

time-consuming- такий, що забирає багато часу, пов'язаний з витратою часу; трудомісткий (про роботу, заняття, тощо)

teacher's supervision- контроль учителя

to "accumulate"- акумулювати, накопичувати;

undue talkativeness- надмірна балакучість

utterance- висловлювання

transactional skills –уміння монологічного мовлення

feedback- зворотній зв'язок (учитель-учень)

rumination -розмірковування

linguistic characteristics/ features – лінгвістичні характеристики, особливості

communicative characteristics/ features- комунікативні характеристики, особливості

oral reporting/ oral report – усна доповідь

superphrase unit - надфразова єдність

problem solving – вирішення проблемних завдань

statement - твердження

**5. Multiple choice test**

**Circle the correct variant**

**1. Monologue belongs to:**

a) productive oral speech

b) receptive oral speech

**2. The following monologue is unprepared:**

a)an utterance on the base of video after its first presentation

b) summary of the read text

c) description of an unknown picture

d) a story on the base of key words

**3. Characteristic feature of monologue is:**

a) use of conversational formulas

b) incomplete sentences

c) completeness and expansion

**4. Specific difficulty of monologue is:**

a) logic coherence of separate speech patterns

b) switching from audition to speaking

c) speed of answers to a question

**5.Initial unit in teaching monologue is**

a) separate phrase

b) superphrase unit

c) coherent text

**6. The aim of teaching monologue is considered achieved if the pupil is able to speak:**

a) with a support of the text-sample

b) with a support of the key words

c) without any support

**7. Exercise which develops monologue has the following task:**

a.) to convince the class mates of advantages of a healthy way of life

b) to retell the learned text

c) to connect two, three sentences in logic sequence

**8. Exercise which prepares for monologue has the following task:**

a) to answer the teacher’s question

b) to attach the phrase in logic sequence to a phrase which the teacher or other pupil has told  
c) to tell about the summer vacation

**9. The most expedient exercise in teaching monologue to pupils of the senior school is:**

a) describe a picture

b) express your thoughts about a story and its author

c) say 3 phrases about the content of a picture

**10. Which of the following tasks develop the pupil’s ability to prove the point of view?**

a) to convey the main plot of the performance

b) say what actors played leading roles

c) to explain to a friend why you liked /disliked the performance (a concert, a film)

**Lecture 9. TEACHING DIALOGUE (The development of dialogue competence)**

**1. Characteristics of a good interlocutor.**

**2 Communicative, psychological and linguistic characteristics of dialogue.**

**3. Lead-response unit as a unit in teaching dialogue.**

**4. Unprepared and prepared dialogue.**

**5. Stages in teaching dialogue.**

**1. Characteristics of a good interlocutor**

Interactional function of the discourse is **listener-oriented.** This function is performed in the form of **dialogues.** People chat with each other for different purposes. A speaker has to be efficient at getting a turn and to be proficient at letting another speaker have a turn. Practical turn-taking requires five abilities:   
1. Knowing how to signal that one wants to speak.   
2. Recognizing the right moment to get a turn.   
3. How to use this structure in order to get one's turn properly and not lose it.

4. The ability to recognize other people's signals or desire to speak.   
5. The ability to acknowledge other people's signals and let them take a turn.

A good interlocutor should have the **following skills** well developed:

- to start a conversation;

- to agree or disagree;

- to ask for and give information;

- to respond an initiative turn appropriately;

- to keep a conversation with the help of initiative turn;

- to keep an emotional tone of a conversation;

- to stimulate an interlocutor to take part in a conversation;

- to end a conversation;

- to produce lead-response units of different types.

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

*- The book is on the desk. Is the book on the desk?*

*-Yes, it is. (No, it isn't.)*

*-Where's the book?*

*- It's on the desk.*

As to the relationship between monologue and dialogue, it should vary from stage to stage in teaching speaking in schools. In the junior stage (2-5 forms) dialogic speech, the time which allows the teacher to introduce new material and consolidate it in conversation, must prevail. In the intermediate stage (6-9 forms) dialogue and monologue must be on an equal footing. In the senior stage (10-12 forms) monologic speech must prevail since pupils take part in discussion and, therefore, express their thoughts in connection with a problem or retell the text read or heard. To sum it up both forms of speech (monologue and dialogue) should be developed side by side with preference for the one which is more important for pupils' progress in learning a foreign language at a certain stage.

**2. Communicative, psychological and linguistic characteristics of dialogue**

**Dialogue** is a type of speech interconnection of 2 or more participants of conversation. In the process of communication the dialogue provides the following communicative functions***: asking*** information***;*** ***providing*** information; ***proposing*** (in the form of request, order, advise); ***accepting/refusing*** what was proposed); ***exchanging*** thoughts, ideas; ***changing mind/reasoning*** own point of view.

These are some psychological factors which are to be taken into account when teaching dialogue. They are as follows:

1. **Conversation must be motivated**, i. e., the speaker expresses a desire to inform the hearer of something interesting, important, or to get information from him, to share his opinion. Suppose one of the pupils is talking to a friend of hers. Why is she talking? Because she wants to either tell her friend about something interesting, or get information from her about something important.

**Rule for the teacher:** In teaching a foreign language it is necessary to think over the motives which make pupils speak. Both of them should have a necessity to speak. Ensure conditions in which the pupils will have a desire to say something in the foreign language, to express their thoughts, their feelings. Remember that oral speech in the classroom should be always stimulated. Try to use those stimuli which can arouse a pupil's wish to respond in his own way. The teacher should create the conditions for a conversation with the help of instructions and situations to sound conversations naturally. It should be mentioned that the desire to talk should have both participants of the conversations. The teacher should distribute the roles for both speakers.

2**. Speech is always addressed to an interlocutor.**

**Rule for the teacher:** Organize the teaching process in a way which allows your pupils to speak to someone, to their classmates in particular, i. e., when speaking a pupil should address the interlocutor, and not the teacher.

3. **Dialogue is always emotionally colored** for a speaker expresses his thoughts, his feelings, his attitude to what he says.

**Rule for the teacher:** Teach pupils how to use intonational means to express their attitude, their feelings about what they say.

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

**Rule for the teacher:** While teaching speaking real and close-to-real situations should be created to stimulate pupils' speech. Think of the situations you can use in class to make pupils' speech situational.

Oral language as compared to written language is more flexible. It is relatively free and is characterized by some peculiarities in vocabulary and grammar. Taking into consideration, however, the conditions in which the foreign language is taught in schools, we cannot teach pupils colloquial English. We teach them Standard English as spoken on the radio, TV, etc. Oral language taught in schools is close to written language standards and especially its monologic form. Pupils should be acquainted with some peculiarities of the spoken language, otherwise they will not understand it when hearing and their own speech will be artificial. This mainly concerns dialogues. Linguistic peculiarities of dialogue are as follows:

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

*- How many books have you? - One.*

*- Do you go to school on Sunday? - No, I don't.*

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

*- Have you seen the film? - Yes, I have seen this film, and I am sorry I've wasted two hours.*

***2. The use of contracted forms***: *doesn't, won't, can't, isn't, etc.*

***3. The use of some abbreviations***: *lab (laboratory), mike (microphone), maths (mathematics), p. m. (post meridian),* and others.

4. **The use of conversational tags**. These are the words a speaker uses when he wishes to speak without saying anything. *"Well*, *they are those things*, *you know”*, which don't actually mean very much, yet they are in fact necessary in English conversation as behavior.

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

**3. Lead-response unit as a unit in teaching dialogue**

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

*- Where is the book?*

*- There, on the shelf.*

There is a great variety of lead-response units. Here are the principal four:

**1. Question - response**

*- Hello. What's your name?*

*- Ann. What's yours?*

*- My name is Williams*

**2. Question - question**

*- Will you help me, sonny?*

*- What shall I do, mother?*

*- Will you polish the floor today?*

*- Is it my turn?*

**3. Statement - statement.**

*- I'd like to know when he is going to come and see us.*

*- That's difficult to say. He is always promising but never comes.*

*- It's because he is very busy.*

*- That's right. He works hard.*

4**. Statement - question.**

*- I'm going to the theatre tonight.*

*- Where did you get tickets?*

*- My friend got them somewhere.*

*- How did he do it?*

*- I don't know.*

In school teaching only one structure of dialogue is usually used, i.e., question - response. More than that, pupils' dialogues are artificial and they lack, as a rule, all the peculiarities mentioned above. In teaching dialogue in schools it is necessary to take into account these peculiarities and give pupils pattern dialogues to show what real dialogues look like.

**4. Unprepared and prepared dialogue. Impromptu Dialogue**

Dialogue activities are done through conversation. Conversation requires quick response and hardly allows the speakers to reflect on their speech in the communication process. To foster accuracy in dialogue activities, the instructor has to create an opportunity for the learners to stop and think while the learners are engaged in conversation. Here is one example of a revised version of a common conversational activity known as find-someone-who.  
 The learners are given a piece of paper that has such questions as "*Who was brought up in a village?*" The learners talk to one another to find someone who belongs to the category. The learners sometimes have to paraphrase the question rather than simply use the same expressions. In this activity, the authenticity of communication varies largely according to the provided questions. If the learners are given the same question, there will be no real communication, for the learners know the questions before they are actually asked. Though different questions to all the learners make communication authentic, the learners will have little chance to reflect on their use of language. As a consequence, the instructor should avoid these two extremes. By providing both the same and different questions, the learners can experience real communication and have a chance to correct their errors at the same time. Let's say the instructor prepares twenty different questions for forty students and give each student five of the questions randomly selected. Seventy-five percent of the activity will be real communication, while the other quarter will be chances where the learners are asked a question they are already familiar with.

**Prefabricated Dialogues** These types of activities, including drama-playing or role plays, are commonly used in the EFL classroom and are believed to facilitate the acquisition of communicative competence. Learners are put in such realistic situations as shopping, asking directions, or answering the telephone, to practice different sorts of conversation. Learning routine phrases in particular situations will surely help the natural flow of communication.

**5. Stages in teaching dialogue**

There are four stages in learning dialogue: preparatory stage (Zero stage), teaching lead-response units (Stage 1), teaching to create micro-dialogues (Stage 2), teaching to make up own dialogues (Stage 3).

**At the preparatory stage** the pupils are taught how to react on a turn presented by the teacher and how to produce an initiative turn. The pupils perform imitative, substitution exercises, answer the questions, and give some information. They perform drills in which the learner simply repeats (or substitutes) a phrase or structure (e.g., "*Excuse me*." or "*Can you help me?*") for clarity and accuracy; gives replies to teacher’s questions or statements.

**At the teaching lead-response units stage** the pupils areinitiating and responding to each other. They develop the ability to participate in a range of situations and the interaction by initiating and responding appropriately within certain lead-response units.

**At the stage of teaching to create micro-dialogues** pupils "receive" the dialogue by ear first. They listen to the dialogue recorded or reproduced by the teacher. In teaching dialogue we should use pattern dialogues as they involve all features which characterize this form of speech. The teacher helps pupils in comprehension of the dialogue using a picture or pictures to illustrate its contents. They listen to the dialogue a second time and then read it silently for better understanding. The pupils are asked to enact the pattern dialogue in person. Pupils enact the dialogue with some modifications in its contents. They change some elements in it. The more elements (main words and phrases) they change in the pattern the better they assimilate the structure of the dialogue. The use of different cues (prompts) (substitution tables, structural –chart of the micro dialogue or its functional chart) is recommended at this stage. Pupils use their own experience while selecting the words for substitutions. The work should not be done mechanically. Pupils should speak on the situation. As a result of this work pupils master the structure of the pattern dialogue (not only the contents), i. e., they can use it as a model for making up dialogues of their own, that is why pattern dialogues should be carefully selected.

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

**At the stage of** t**eaching to make up dialogues of their own t**he pupils are given a picture or a verbal situation to talk about. This is possible provided pupils have a stock of patterns, a certain number of phrases for starting a conversation, joining in, etc. They should use those lead-response units they have learned in connection with the situation suggested for a conversation. At the fourth stage the choice of stimuli is of great importance, as very often pupils cannot think what to say, though they know how to say this or that. Therefore audio-visual aids should be extensively utilized.

**Practical class 9. TEACHING DIALOGUE**

**1. Questions to be discussed**

**1. Characteristics of a good interlocutor.**

**2 Communicative, psychological and linguistic characteristics of dialogue.**

**3. Lead-response unit as a unit in teaching dialogue.**

**4. Unprepared and prepared dialogue.**

**5. Stages in teaching dialogue.**

**List of recommended literature**

1.Колесникова И.Л. Англо-русский терминологический справочник по методике преподавания иностранных языков / И.Л. Колесникова, О.А.Долгина – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 431 с.

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9. Rogova G.V. Methods of Teaching English.1983.-311p..

**2. Questions for control**

1. What skills should be developed to be a good interlocutor?

2. How is monologue related to dialogue in teaching speaking?

3. Describe communicative characteristics of dialogue.

4. Describe psychological characteristics of dialogue.

5. Name the rules for the teacher to arrange dialogue teaching.

6. What are linguistic characteristics of dialogue?

7. Give the characteristics of a lead-response unit as a unit of teaching dialogue.

8 What are the stages in teaching dialogue? Techniques the teacher uses for teaching dialogue.

9. Why is it difficult to teach dialogue in artificial conditions?

**3. Practical tasks to do**

1. Demonstrate the use of different cues (prompts) (substitution tables, structural –chart of the micro dialogue or its functional chart) in teaching dialogue.

2. Give a structure of a dialogue in lead-response units.

3. Make up a catalogue of exercises for teaching dialogue.

4. Design a lesson plan which includes all stages in teaching dialogue. Topic “My native town” for 6-th form pupils.

5. Act out the designed lesson.

6. Examine one of the lessons in Pupil’s Book to deduce upon whattechniques are used to develop dialogical skills. Give your recommendations.

7. Suggest some situations suitable for a dialogue on the topics “My friend” and “The capital of Ukraine”.

8. Examine the syllabus for teaching dialogue in different forms.

**4. Glossary. Lecture 9. TEACHING DIALOGUE**

**1. Learn the following methodological terms:**

turn - репліка  
long/ extended turn ~ розгорнута репліка

short turn – коротка репліка

turn-taking – обмін репліками (наприклад, у діалозі)

speaking turn / line of dialogue – репліка у діалозі

response / reply - реактивна репліка (репліка-відповідь)

model dialogue/ conversation – діалог-зразок

adjacency pair/ dialogical unit/ lead-response unit – діалогічна єдність

drama/dramatizing - драматизація

silence/ pause/ gap fillers – заповнювачі пауз/мовчання

stock of patterns - запас зразків

conversational formulas – мовленнєві формули

interactional/ dialogical speech – діалогічне мовлення

full/elliptical sentences - повні/неповні речення

problem solving – вирішення проблемних завдань

talk - розмова, бесіда

role play - ролева гра

oral interview -співбесіда

skeleton dialogue - структурно-мовленнєва схема діалогу

counterstatement -контраргумент

one-side dialogue/conversation - діалог, в якому один із співбесідників бере всю ініціативу на себе

exchange of opinion - обмін думками

inducement – спонукальний мотив, стимул, спонукання

**5. Multiple choice test**

**Circle the correct variant (s)**

**1. To linguistic characteristics of dialogic speech belong the following:**

a) use of conversational tags

b) use of incomplete sentences (ellipses)

c) use of contracted forms

d) it must be motivated

**2. In the process of teaching dialogue students should develop the skills:**

a) understand someone

b) respond quickly to one’s expression

c) prepare a detailed message

d) maintain a conversation

e) use conversational phrases

**3. The initial unit in teaching dialogue is:**

a) turn

b) lead-response unit

c)microdialogue

**4. Dialogic speech is developed with the help of such exercises as:**

a) conversation in connection with the text read

b) learning dialogue pattern by heart

c) exchanging with turns “request – advise”

d) making a dialogue using substitution tables

**5. To the speech exercises for teaching dialogue belong the following:**

a) conversation on a proposed situation

b) conversation on a natural situation

c) conversation with the use of charts

**6. The most effective means in teaching dialogue is:**

a) audio recordings or video recordings of the dialogue

b) printed dialogue

c) filmstrip

**7. The exercise “Make up a dialogue on the text read” develops the skills of:**

a) prepared dialogue

b) unprepared dialogue

**Lecture 10. TEACHING READING (The development of reading competence)**

**1. Types of silent reading.**

**2. Teaching reading skills.**

**1. Types of silent reading**

There are different styles of reading for different situations. The technique you choose will depend on the purpose for reading. For example, you might be reading for enjoyment, information, or to complete a task. If you are reviewing, you might skim a text. If you're searching for information, you might scan for a particular word. To get detailed information, you might use intensive reading. You need to adjust your reading speed and technique depending on your purpose.

In an academic setting we rarely read an entire text word for word.  More typical is that we look at the contents of a book, the chapters, headings, subheadings, pictures, illustrations, words in italics and bold type - and dive in to find the information we need. These are the concepts of scanning, skimming and reading for detailed comprehension - moving from the big ideas of reading down to the specific details.  These are skills that EFL students don't usually have and must be taught.

There are different types of reading: scanning, skimming, reading for detailed comprehension (intensive).

**Scanning** - reading rapidly to find a specific piece of information, for a specific focus. Scanning is a technique you often use when looking up a word in the telephone book or dictionary. You search for key words or ideas. You move your eye quickly over the page to find particular words or phrases that are relevant to the task you're doing. In most cases, you know what you're looking for, so you're concentrating on finding a particular answer. Scanning involves moving your eyes quickly down the page seeking specific words and phrases. Scanning is also used when you first find a resource to determine whether it will answer your questions. Just to find the information. Once you've scanned the document, you might go back and skim it. When scanning, look for the author's use of organizers such as numbers, letters, steps, or the words, first, second, or next. Look for words that are bold faced, italics, or in a different font size, style, or color. Sometimes the author will put key ideas in the margin.

**Skimming** - reading rapidly for the main points, for getting the gist of something – 75% of content should be got. Skimming is used to quickly identify the main ideas of a text. Skimming is reading through a text quickly without looking at the details to get a general idea of its content: the gist.

Skimming is done at a speed three to four times faster than normal reading. People often skim when they have lots of material to read in a limited amount of time.

There are many strategies that can be used when skimming. Some people read the first and last paragraphs using headings, summaries and other organizers as they move down the page or screen. You might read the title, subtitles, subheading, and illustrations. Consider reading the first sentence of each paragraph. This technique is useful when you're seeking specific information rather than reading for comprehension. Skimming works well to find dates, names, and places. It might be used to review graphs, tables, and charts.

**Reading for detailed comprehension–** reading a short text for detailed information, for detailed comprehension to extract 100% of information accurately. You read every word, and work to learn from the text. In this careful reading, you may find it helpful to skim first, to get a general idea, but then go back to read in detail. Use a dictionary to make sure you understand all the words used.

These different types of reading are used quite naturally when reading in the mother tongue. Unfortunately, when learning a second or foreign language, people tend to employ only "intensive" style reading skills. The learners insist on understanding **every** word. Students studying a foreign language often feel that if they don't understand each and every word they are somehow not completing the exercise.

1. **Teaching reading skills**

There are a number of skills (strategies) that we can teach students to help them improve their ability to understand text. Basically there are three types of reading skills: **pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading.**

To work with a pupil on a reading text you should break the lesson down into some stages.

* 1. ***Pre-reading****.*

Pre-reading activities prepare the students for reading the text. Getting ready to read is one of the most important parts of the reading process. Pre-reading activities introduce students to a particular text, provide appropriate background knowledge. They help the students to gain an idea of what the text will be about and this increases their motivation to read. At this stage the teacher introduces the topic or ideas that are contained in the text (passage). The teacher is trying to activate the knowledge about the topic that the pupil has.

Pre-reading activities include: discussing author or text type, brainstorming, reviewing familiar stories, considering illustrations and titles, scanning and skimming (for structure, main points, and future directions).

Before reading the assignment, the students are asked to think about the following questions: *Where did the material come from? Is it an excerpt from a book, a magazine, an online article, or a journal? Who wrote the article? Do you know anything about the author? What other types of materials has he/she written? How could you find out more about the writer? What is the title of the piece? Can you determine what the topic of the issue that will be discussed is from the title? Look at a picture from the text and guess what will be in the text.*

You can also introduce key vocabulary and grammar structure which you think will be unfamiliar to the pupils, but which is important for understanding the text. (If you have a huge list of words, the passage is too difficult, and you should choose something easier.) You don't have to teach every word that you think the student might not know, just those that are critical to understand the reading passage. This part of the lesson shouldn't take too much time.

The teacher gives “Before questions” (3 -4 questions) and sets time for reading. E.g.

* Read and say what made the Prime Minister leave the country.

- Read and answer why Jack does not do this.

- Read and say where it is happening.

***2. While-reading.***

At this stage the pupils actually read the text. Have the pupils read through the text one time. Their main purpose during the first reading is to achieve a working understanding of the text. The pupil is ready to answer some questions.

1. Did any of your predictions about the text based on the title turn out to be true?

2. What, if anything, surprised you?

3. What is the author's purpose or argument? Is he/she trying to persuade, inform, describe, etc?

4. Does the author want the readers to take an action of any kind?

Be sure to allow enough time for the students to read the entire passage. If one pupil is taking a particularly long time, you may not need to wait until he or she finishes.

Teachers must learn to be quiet: too often, teachers interfere with and so impede their learners' reading development by being too dominant and by talking too much.

After the pupils finish reading, the teacher checks the comprehension of the text It could be done in some ways:

- Answer “Before questions” that were set before reading.

- Translate some sentences or the text.

- Do a multiple choice test.

- Correct the following statements which are not true to fact.

If the students are unable to answer the questions, allow the students to read the passage again.

The teacher instructs pupils how to get information from the text. Semantic-communicative exercises are recommended. The techniques the teacher uses to check pupils' ability to get information from the text may be different. The choice depends on the stage of teaching; on the material used; on pupils' progress.

These may be:

- Read. Find answers to the following questions. All types of questions may be used. However, why-questions are desirable.

- Read the text. Find the words which describe the room.

- There are two causes of the strike. Find them in the text

- The author describes his hero with great sympathy. Find in what words he expresses his attitude.

* Read the text and prove that ... is a kind woman.
* Read the text and find arguments to prove that ...

- Read and draw a scheme that is described.

- Find the following sentences in the text.

* Translate the sentences (the paragraph) beginning with the words… (The teacher reads the words.)
* Read the sentences you find most important in the text.
* Tell your classmates what (who, when, where, why) ...

- Read the words (the sentence or the paragraph) to prove or to illustrate what you say.

- Find the words (sentences) from which you have got some new information for yourself.

- Read the paragraph (paragraphs) you like best, and say why you like it.

- Translate the paragraph...

Some of the assignments may be done in writing:

* Write a short annotation of the text.
* Write a plan of the text (This may be done either in English or in the mother tongue.)
* ***3. Post-reading***.

Post-reading activities increase the students’ understanding of the text. At this stage you can look at different aspects. It is talking about ideas presented in the text, expressing opinions. Have a pupil write or speak about the ideas in his own words. The exercises may include such activities as summaries, new endings, dramatizing, interviews based on the text; and creating role-play situations. This allows the student to bring in his or her knowledge on the topic, and helps to reinforce comprehension and the learning process.

These steps work for learners of all levels and with all kinds of texts.

Recommendations to make reading active:

- Read the title to help prepare for the subject.

- Notice the boldface headings to see what the structure is.

- Notice any maps, graphs or charts. They are there for a purpose.

- Read the first section with your questions in mind. Look for the answers, and make up new questions if necessary. It helps your mind to concentrate.

- After each section, stop and think back to your questions. See if you can answer them from memory. If not, take a look back at the text. Do this as often as you need to.

- Once you have finished the whole chapter, go back over all the questions from all the headings. See you if can still answer them. If not, look back and refresh your memory.

- Always make notes to keep up your concentration and understanding. It's a waste of your time to just passively read, the way you'd read a thriller on holiday.

* Pick out what you think are the most important parts of what you are reading.
* If you are a visual learner, you'll find it helpful to use different colours to highlight different aspects of what you're reading.

- Record the main headings as you read. Use one or two keywords for each point.

- Pause after you've read a section of text.

- Then put what you've read into your own words.

**Practical class 10. TEACHING OF READING (The development of reading competence)**

**1. Questions to be discussed.**

**1. Types of silent reading.**

**2. Teaching reading skills.**

**List of recommended literature**

1. Колесникова И.Л. Англо-русский терминологический справочник по методике преподавания иностранных языков / И.Л. Колесникова, О.А.Долгина – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 431 с.

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14. Rogova G.V. Methods of Teaching English.1983.-311p..

**2. Questions for control**

1. What are the aims of different types of reading: scanning, skimming, reading for detailed comprehension (intensive)?

2. What are the stages in working on a text?

3. What are some recommendations you can make to someone to make reading active?

**3. Practical tasks to do**

1. Make up a catalogue of exercises for teaching reading (for all stages).

2. Design a lesson plan which includes all stages in reading.

3. Act out the designed lesson.

**4. Glossary. Lecture 10. Teaching reading.**

**1. Learn the following methodological terms:**

silent reading – читання про себе

"Before questions"- попередні питання

to widen аn eyespan – розширити коло зору

scanning – переглядове читання

skimming (reading for gist) – ознайомче читання, читання з метою одержання основної інформації

gist -суть

reading for detailed comprehension- вивчаюче читання, читання з повним розумінням тексту, з метою одержання повної інформації

a working understanding of the text – умовне, робоче розуміння тексту

graphemic-phonemic exercises - графемо-фонетичні вправи

structural-information exercises- структурно-інформаційні вправи

semantic-communicative exercises – семантико-комунікативні вправи

pre-reading – передтекстовий етап

while-reading – етап читання

postreading – післятекстовий етап

**5. Multiple choice test**

**Circle the correct vatiant**

**1. Scanning is:**

a) technique of reading

b) reading for detailed comprehension

c) reading rapidly to find a specific piece of information

**2. Skimming is:**

a) technique of reading

b)reading for detailed comprehension

c) reading rapidly for the main points

**3. The task « Read aloud the first paragraph of the text » is directed to teaching:**

a) reading to find specific information of the text

b) reading for main points of the text

c) technique of reading

**4. The task « Find the main idea of the text » is directed to teaching:**

a) skimming

b) scanning

c) reading for detailed comprehension

**5. Specify numbers of exercises which belong to the stage of reading the text:**

1. Read the text and find equivalents of the following words in a parallel column.

2. Read the text and say word-combinations given below were used in the text without any changes.

3. Read the title and guess what the text is about.

4. Read the text. Think up the new end of the text.

5. Write a plan of the text.

**6. The task “Stress the words conveying new information in each sentence” belong to:**

a) graphemic-phonemic exercises

b) structural-information exercises

c) semantic-communicative exercises

**7. Define the sequence of the following stages in working on the text:**

1. Pre-reading.

2. Actual reading of the text.

3. The extraction of the information from the text.

4. Checking the understanding of the text.

5. Post-reading.

**Lecture 11. TEACHING WRITING**

**1. Writing as a skill.**

**2. Difficulties pupils have in learning to write English.**

**3. How to teach writing.**

**1. Writing as a skill**

Writing as a skill is very important in teaching and learning a foreign language; it helps pupils to assimilate letters and sounds of the English language, its vocabulary and grammar, and to develop habits and skills in pronunciation, speaking, and reading. Writing is a universal fixer of all skills.

The practical value of writing is great because it can fix patterns of all kinds (graphemes, words, phrases and sentences) in pupils' memory, thus producing a powerful effect on their mind. Writing includes penmanship, spelling, and composition. In methods of teaching we can distinguish technical side of writing or mechanics of writing and productive side, i.e. writing as speech activity. Since writing is a complicated skill it should be developed through 2 phases:

Phase 1 - the formation of graphic habits and spelling habits;

Phase 2 - development of writing skills.

At **Phase 1** we are to form such habits as:

1. the habit of writing letters of the English alphabet;
2. the habit of converting speech sounds into their symbols — letters and letter combinations;
3. the habit of correct spelling of words, phrases, and sentences;
4. the habit of writing various exercises which lead pupils to expressing their thoughts in connection with the task set.

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

1. Auditory perception of a sound, a word, a phrase, or a sentence, i. e., proper hearing of a sound, a word, a phrase, or a sentence.
2. Articulation of a sound and pronunciation of a word, a phrase, and a sentence by the pupil who writes.
3. Visual perception of letters or letter combinations which stand for sounds.
4. The movements of the muscles of the hand in writing.

The ear, the eye, the muscles and nerves of the throat and tongue, the movements of the muscles of the hand participate in writing. And one more factor which determines progress in formation and development of lasting writing habits is pupils' comprehension of some rules which govern writing in the English language.

At **Phase 2** according to the school syllabus the following writing skills should be developed:

to write a letter or greeting card in the foreign language;

to fill in a questionnaire, a form.;

to write compositions within the material learnt;

to make outlines;

to make notes;

to write massages.

The result is a product. The pupils express their thoughts at the level of text.

**2. Difficulties pupils have in learning to write English**

Since pupils should be taught penmanship, spelling, and composition it is necessary to know the difficulties pupils find in learning to write English. The writing of the English letters does not present much trouble because there are a lot of similar letters in both languages. They are a, o, e, n, m, p, c, k, g, x, M, T, H. Only some letters, such as s, r, i, h, 1, f, b, d, t, j, I, G, Q, N, etc., may be strange to Russian or Ukrainian pupils. Training in penmanship may be made easier if our schools **adopt the script writing** suggested by Marion Richardson in which the letters in script have the same form as the printed letters. The small letters such as h, b, d, i, k, f, are made without a loop.

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

The spelling system of a language may be based upon the following principles:

1. Historical or conservative principle when spelling reflects the pronunciation of earlier periods in the history of the language. For example: *busy, brought, daughter.*

2. Morphological principle. In writing a word the morphemic composition of the word (grammar) is taken into account. For example: *answered, asked;* the affixal morpheme is e*d.*

3. Phonetic principle. Spelling reflects the pronunciation. For example: *leg, pot.* The word is written as it is pronounced.

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

Different letters or letter combinations in different words are read in the same way: I — *eye; rode* — *road; write — right; tale* — *tail.* Many letters are pronounced in some words and are mute in other words: *build [bild]; suit [sju:t]; laugh [la:f]; brought [bro:t] ; hour [aua].*

The discrepancy that exists in the English language between pronunciation and spelling may be explained by the fact that there are more sounds in the language than there are letters to stand for these sounds. Thus, there are 20 vowel sounds in English and 6 letters to convey them.

In teaching English spelling special attention should be given to the words which present much trouble in this respect. The spelling of the words, for example, *busy, daughter, language, beautiful, foreign,* and others, must be assimilated through manifold repetition in their writing and spelling. In conclusion it should be said that it is impossible to master accurate spelling without understanding some laws governing it. Pupils should know: (1) how to add:

-*s* to words ending in *y*: *day — days, stay — he stays,* but *city — cities, study - he studies;*

-*ed* to verbs: *play — played; carry — carried;*

*-ing* to verbs: *write — writing; play — playing; stand — standing;*

*-er, -est* to adjectives in the comparative and the superlative degrees: *clean — cleaner — cleanest; large — larger — largest;*

when the consonant should be doubled: *sit — sitting; thin — thinner;*

the main word-building suffixes: e.g. *-ful: use — useful; -less: use — useless.*

**3. How to teach writing**

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

In teaching writing there are 3 groups of exercises: Group 1 – exercises to form mechanics of writing; Group 2 - exercises to form speech habits of writing; Group 3 - exercises to develop writing skills.

To the 1-st group of exercises belong exercises to form graphic (penmanship) and spelling habits. Training in penmanship should proceed by steps.

1. The teacher shows the learners a letter or both a capital and a small letter, for example, *B b*. Special cards may be used for the purpose. On one side of the card the letters are written. On the other side there is a word in which this letter occurs. For example: *B – Bed.*

2. The teacher shows his pupils how to write the letter. He can use the blackboard. For example, *V* and *W* are made with one continuous zigzag movement. *Q* is made without lifting the pen except for the tail. *L* is also made without lifting the pen. The first stroke in *N* is a down-stroke; the pen is not lifted in making the rest of the letter. Care should be taken that *r* is not made to look like *v*; the branching should occur about two-thirds *(r)* from the bottom of the letter. The same applies to the letters *d* and *b; g* and *q* and *p* which are often confused by pupils. Then the teacher writes a word in which the new letter occurs. For example, *B b, bed*.

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

3. The teacher asks pupils to write first the letter, then the word in their exercise-books. Since habits are formed and developed through performing actions, pupils are told to practice in writing the letter and the word (words) at home.

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

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

In forming the spelling habits the teacher should take into consideration the difficulties of English spelling and instruct pupils how to overcome these difficulties. The following exercises may be suggested: **copying and dictations, writing sentences on a given pattern, writing answers to given questions**.

1**. Copying**. The aim of this exercise is to allow the pupils to practice what has been taught in listening and speaking. Writing does this because the movements of the muscles of the hand are now called in to help the ear, the eye, and the muscles and nerves of the throat and tongue. The "look" and the "feel" of the word are used to help the memory (F. French).

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

(a) associations by similarity in spelling:

Within the English language; *room-spoon-moon; night-right-light.*

Between English words and words in native language: *биография- biography; энтузиазм- enthusiasm.*

(b) associations by contrast in spelling: *two — too; see -sea ; one — won*

Pupils should also be asked to spell words by themselves.

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

The teacher shows his pupils how to rely on grammar in spelling the words. The more the pupils get acquainted with grammar, the more they will rely on it in their spelling. For example, the pupils have learned the plural of nouns in the English language. Now they know that the ending *s* is added, though it sounds either (s) as in *maps* or (z) as in *pens;* in both cases they must write s. In the words *famous, continuous* it is necessary to write ous, as it is an adjective-forming suffix. In the words *dislike, disadvantage* it is necessary to write *i* and not *e* as the negative prefix is *dis -.*

Copying applies equally well to the phrase pattern and the sentence pattern with the same purpose to help the memory, for pupils should not be asked to write, at least in the first two years, anything that they do not already know thoroughly through speech and reading. Every new word, phrase or sentence pattern, after it has been thoroughly learnt, should be practiced by copying. Copying may be carried out both in class and at home. In copying at home the pupils must be given some additional task preventing them from performing the work mechanically. The following tasks may be suggested:

1. underline a given letter or letter combination for a certain sound;
2. underline a certain grammar item;
3. underline certain words depicting, for example, the names of school things.

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

2. **Dictation**. This kind of writing exercise is much more difficult than copying. Dictation is a valuable exercise because it trains the ear and the hand as well as the eye; it fixes in the pupil's mind the division of each sentence pattern, because the teacher dictates division by division. For example, *Tom and I / go to school / together.* Dictations can vary in forms and in the way they are conducted:

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

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

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

***d) Dictation –translation*** of some words, word combinations, sentences or texts.

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

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

Practice of this kind can lead pupils to long sentences.

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

The object of every kind of written exercise mentioned above is to develop pupils' spelling in the target language and to fix the linguistic material in their memory and in this way to provide favourable conditions for developing their writing skills.

The **2- nd group of exercises** is to form speech writing skills. These exercises provide further development spelling skills along with vocabulary and grammar skills. The following exercises can be recommended: answer-question, transforming of the speech pattern, completion, substitution, extension or shortening some statements or patterns.

**The 3-d group of exercises** is for developing writing skills. In teaching different types written speech the following exercises may be suggested.

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

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

*Write some sentences about what you usually do after classes.*

3. A descriptive paragraph about a text, or a number of texts on a certain subject. Pupils may be given concrete assignments. For instance:

*- Describe the place where the action takes place.*

* *Write what new and useful information you have found for yourself in this text (these texts).*
* *Write what the author says about ... using the sentences from the text to prove it.*

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

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

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

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

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

The following assignments may be suggested:

*- Write a letter to your parents when you are away from home.*

*- Write a letter to a boy (a girl) you do not know but you want to be your pen-friend.*

Writing a composition or a letter, which is a kind of a composition where the pupil has to write down his own thoughts, is another problem to be solved. The pupil often does not know what to write; he wants good and plentiful ideas which will be within his vocabulary and grammar. Writing compositions will not help much in the learning of a new language without careful preparation. If they try to express something beyond their powers, the writing may be more harmful than helpful.

Progress in writing a foreign language is possible on condition that pupils have adequate preparation for writing. This preparation should nearly always be carried out orally, except at the senior stage when it can be done from books independently. Preparation may include:

1. oral questioning with the aim of giving the pupils practice in presenting facts and ideas;
2. the use of pictures and other visual aids to provide information for written work;
3. auding an extract or a story which can stimulate pupils' thought; after auding there should always be some questions on the content;

d) silent reading which can be used as a source of information for pupils, first, to speak about, and then for writing.

In testing pupils' skills in writing the teacher should use those kinds of work pupils get used to and which they can do because they must be well prepared before they are given a test. Every pupil should feel some pride in completing a test and be satisfied with the work done. Tests which result in mistakes are very dangerous. They do no good at all. They do a very great deal of harm because pupils lose interest in the subject and stop working at their English. Indeed, if the results of the test are poor, for example, 50% of the pupils have received low marks, they testify not only to the poor assimilation of the material by the pupils, but to the poor work of the teacher as well. He has given an untimely test. He has not prepared the pupils for the test yet. This is true of all kinds of tests in teaching a foreign language.

In teaching writing the following tests may be recommended to measure pupils' achievements in penmanship, spelling, and writing skills.

1. The teacher measures his pupils' achievement in making English letters in the right way by .asking individuals to write some letters on the blackboard. Or else he may ask the pupils to write some letters which he names in their exercise-books.

2. The teacher measures his pupils' achievement in penmanship and spelling by administering dictation tests or spelling test. The teacher dictates a word, a phrase, or a sentence standing in front of the class for the pupils to hear him well. If the teacher dictates a sentence, it is not recommended to repeat it more than twice. Constant repetition of the sentence prevents pupils from keeping it in memory. If the dictation is based on a text whose sentences are logically connected it is necessary to read the whole text first and then dictate it sentence by sentence. When the pupils are ready with writing, the teacher reads the text once more for them to check it.

It is important to determine the amount of material that might be included in a dictation. This depends on the form, the stage of teaching, and the character of the material itself. In the 2 - 4th forms a dictation should not be long. It should take from 5 to 10 minutes. In the 5- 12th forms a dictation may be longer, and it may take 15—20 minutes (about 80 - 100 words).

A spelling test may be given either at the beginning of the lesson, or in the second half of it. Thus, if the teacher handles the class well, it makes no difference when he gives it. If he does not handle the class well enough to hold his pupils' attention, it is better to administer a test in the second half of the class-period, the first half of the class-period being devoted to some other work. Otherwise he will not succeed in making his pupils work well. They will be excited because of the test.

3. The teacher measures his pupils1 writing skills:

* by asking them to write a few questions on the text;
* by answering questions (the questions are given);
* by describing a picture illustrating a situation or topic in written form;
* by writing a few sentences on a suggested topic;

- by giving a written annotation on the text read;

* by writing a descriptive paragraph;
* by writing a letter.

In conclusion, it should be said that everything a pupil writes as a test must be easy for him because he is asked to write only those things which he already knows thoroughly.

There is one more problem which deals with writing, that is the correction of mistakes in pupils' exercise-books.

Modern methodologists believe that the essence of correction lies in the fact that a pupil must realize what mistake he had made and how he must correct it. That is why many teachers and methodologists, both in this country and abroad, consider that the teacher should just mark (underline) a wrong letter, or a form, or a word, etc. In this way he will make the pupil find the mistake and correct it. Learners must acquire the habit of noticing mistakes in their own writing. This habit can be acquired if pupils are properly trained, if teachers develop these habits in their pupils. The effect of the teacher's corrections on the pupils is usually very small. Therefore pupils should be trained to correct mistakes that have been made. The better the teacher trains his pupils, the less work he will have to do in the marking.

In carrying out the training the following techniques may be recommended.

Pupils should read through their own written work before handing it in, and correct any mistakes they can find. The habit of revising written work is a useful one, and every pupil has to acquire it.

Pupils can correct the sentences themselves looking at the blackboard where the correct answers to exercises are written.

When written work has to be handed in, the teacher asks his pupils to read through their work and count up the mistakes. They should put down the number at the bottom of the page. Then they correct the mistakes. The teacher might give the class three to five minutes for this work.  
4. The teacher can ask his pupils to change exercise-books with their neighbours. The latter look through the work and try to find the mistakes which have been missed by their friends. They put the new number at the bottom of the page.

With the techniques described above the teacher stimulates his pupils to keep a sharp eye for mistakes and, in this way, develops their ability to notice their mistakes and correct them.

Since writing is a mighty means in learning a foreign language pupils should write both in class and at home. For this they need (1) two exercise-books for class and homework (the teacher collects the exercise-books regularly for correcting mistakes and assigns marks for pupils' work in the exercise-books); (2) a notebook for tests (the teacher keeps the notebooks in class and gives them to the pupils for a test and corrections). The exercise-books must meet the general school requirements established by unified spelling standards.

**Practical class 11. TEACHING WRITING**

**1. Questions for discussion**

**1. Writing as a skill.**

**2. Difficulties pupils have in learning to write English.**

**3. How to teach writing.**

**List of recommended literature**

1. Англо-русский терминологический словарь по методике преподавания иностранных языков/И.Л.Колесникова,О.А.Долгина. – М.:Дрофа, 2008. – 431 с.

2. Гальскова Н.Д. Современная методика обучения иностранным языкам. М.: Аркти, 2000.-

3. Методика викладання іноземних мов ..../ Підручник для студентів.. К.: Ленвіт, 2002. – 328c.

4. Мильруд Р.П. Методика преподавания английского языка. English teaching Methodology: учебное пособие для вузов – М.:Дрофа, 2007. – 253 с.

5. Практикум з методики викладання іноземних мов ..../ Посібник для студентів.. К.: Ленвіт, 2002.-360 c.

6.. Rogova G.V. Methods of Teaching English.1983.-311p..

7. Соловова Е.И. Методика обучения иностранным языкам. М.: Просвещение, 2002. -

8. Brown H. Douglas. Principles of Language Learning and teaching. 2nd edition. – Printice Hall, 1987. -285 p.

9. Celce-Murcia M. Teaching English as a Second or a Foreign language, 2-nd edition, University of California. - Heinle and Heinle Publishers, 1991.- 567p

*10. Littlewood, W. (1981).* *Communicative Language Teaching.* Cambridge University Press.

**2. Questions for control**

1. The importance of writing in teaching a foreign language.

2. What are the aims of teaching writing in school?

3. Teaching English penmanship is not difficult. What is your opinion on the matter?

4. Spelling is one of the most difficult problems in teaching English. Doyou agree? Give some examples to substantiate your opinion.

5. Why is writing an effective means in language learning? Give a few arguments to prove your answer.

6. What is involved in the process of writing?

7. Analyzedifficulties of material in teaching writing.

8. How does the content of the material influence comprehension?

9. Analyze the conditions in which the material should be presented.

10. The role of teacher's handwriting in developing pupils’ writing habits.

11. Analyzeexercises for developing writing habits.

12. Analyzeexercises for developing writing skills.

13 How do you understand a conscious approach to forming and developing writing skill?

14. Describe different types of dictation.

15. Name techniques to test pupils' skills in writing.

**3. Practical tasks to do**

1. Make up a catalogue of exercises for teaching writing.

2. Design a lesson plan which includes teaching writing habits and writing skills.

3. Act out the designed lesson.

4. Examine one of the lessons in Pupil’s Book to deduce upon whattechniques are used to develop writing habits and skills. Make your recommendations.

**4. Glossary. Lecture 10. Teaching writing**

1. Learn the following methodological terms:

penmanship - каліграфія

spelling - орфографія

formation of habits – формування навичок

development of skills – розвиток умінь письмової мови

mechanics of writing - техніка письма

historical or conservative principle - історичний або традиційний принцип

morphological principle - морфологічний принцип

phonetic principle.- фонетичний принцип

the script writing – друковане написання

composition - твір

visual dictation - зоровий диктант

dictation drill -тренувальний диктант

self-dictation - самодиктант

**Lecture 12. FOREIGN LANGUAGE LESSON**

**1. Foreign language lesson framework.**

**2. Lesson evaluation.**

**3. Foreign language teacher.**

**1. Foreign language lesson framework**

In teaching English at schools there are 2 types of lessons.

1 type of the lesson is the lesson to develop ***linguistic competence*** (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, technique of reading and writing). 2 type of the lesson is the lesson to develop ***speech skills*** (speaking (monologue, dialogue), listening, reading and writing skills).

J. Harmer (1998) points out that there is no "correct" format for a lesson plan. The most important thing about is that it should be useful for the teacher.

A lesson should have **a beginning, a middle and an end.** The beginning can consist of a phonetic warm-up, lexical warm-up which brings pupils to the language class. The middle of the lesson depends upon the objectives of the lesson. The main part of the lesson plan is the procedure section. Here the teacher can plan exactly what will be done in the class and how it will be done, in which grouping. Each activity needs to have a reason. Each activity is finished by a brief summary or comprehension check. Timing is another important aspect of lesson planning. The length of each activity must be taken into consideration while planning a lesson.

The typical sequence is "presentation, practice, communication". In this case the class hour is divided into two main parts: a period of 10-15 minutes, during which he takes his pupils through a series of structural drills or other exercises supplied by the textbook, and a period of 20—25 minutes during which the teacher engages the class in creative exercises where they use the target language as a means of communication.

The end can be a summary of the lesson or review of the introduced language material.

**Outline for a Lesson Plan**

Date …Class…..

Objectives:…

Aids/materials.

Procedures:

**1- Greeting.**   
 Always start your English class by saying hello to your students! Encourage them to tell you how they are feeling. Are they hungry? Sleepy? Hot? Cold? Happy? Sad? This is a great way to teach common, useful vocabulary. Every few weeks, feel free to mix it up. Try, “What’s up?” or “How’s it going?” or “How are you doing?”

**2- Warm up/Hook (**phonetic warm-up, lexical warm-up).

It’s important that you have your students’ attention right away. This gets the students' minds thinking in English! One of my favorite activities to do as a warm up is a simple speaking activity. Obtain a soft die or ball and throw it to a random student. Ask a question like "*What's your favorite \_\_\_\_\_?*" or "*Do you like \_\_\_\_?"*  Here are a few other examples that you can employ as your warm up/hook.

**3. Introduce the material/new words.**

It’s necessary that your students have a solid foundation for the rest of the lesson. An effective way of teaching students new words is with a Powerpoint or flash cards. The more visuals you present, the better off your students will be (and the easier it is to teach).

**4. Activity practicing new material,** **communicative activities**.

As it was said before, you need to make English a fun learning environment in order to increase your students' motivation. Game and activities are a great way to have fun in the English classroom and also serve as excellent learning tools. The best kind of exercises are the ones that allow your students to speak English with each other. When you (the teacher) aren’t talking, that means the students are.

**5. Wrap up – evaluate understanding.**  
 After the practicing it's time to wrap up the lesson. You can review the various expressions and vocabulary words with your students with visuals, using your hands, asking questions, giving a quiz or handing out a worksheet. The purpose of a wrap up is to check your students' comprehension of the materials they learned at that lesson. Having a solid idea of what your students picked up will help you with future lessons.

**6. Assign homework** **or hometask setting.**  
 If you are teaching a class with a high level of learning, feel free to give homework that requires them to write or read, among other things. It's okay to make homework fun, as well. Try a crossword puzzle or a wordsearch, for example.

**7. Summary. Evaluation of pupils’ success. Assessment.**

**2. Lesson evaluation**

Lesson evaluation is done according to **observation criteria.** The criteria can be given in the form of propositions: "The class seemed to learn the material well", "The learners were engaging with the tasks throughout the lesson", "The learners were attentive all the time", "The learners were interested and motivated", "The learners were active all the time", "The lesson went according to the plan", "The language was used communicatively throughout the lesson".

Observation can be done on the **teacher, method and learner.** Observing a **teacher,** the observer can concentrate on the following items: "Maintains interest", "Stimulates activity", "Speaks audibly", "Looks at the learners", "Structures the material clearly", "Gives explanations", "Clarifies the goals", "Advises on learning strategy", "Encourages the learners".

In observing the **method** of instructionthe framework of observation will be different. The observers can concentrate on "Communicative activities", "Interactive activities", "Challenging activities", "Comprehensible material", "Motivating material", "Logical sequence of activities", "Developing communicative skills", "Developing language competence", "Reinforcing the knowledge".

In observing the **learner** the observation format changes and can include the following: "Understand the task", "Familiar with the task format" (obviously have experience in performing similar tasks), "Have a good command of previously learned knowledge", "Give a prompt response to the teacher", "Cooperate with the teacher", "Cooperate with each other", "Attentive", "Involved in the lesson procedures". The observer analyses the lesson and describes procedures with comments. During the observation he fills in the table:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Stage** | **Time** | **Procedure** | **Teacher** | **Pupils** | **Comments** |
| The beginning | 8.00-8.07 | Greeting, | Gives instructions. | Are not concentrated Only 2 pupils are working | Pupils were not motivated. The teacher spoke much himself |

**Characteristics of lessons that worked well**

1. Formal lessons with clear boundaries
2. Beginnings and ends marked by formulaic cues.
3. Regularly scheduled events both by time and place.
4. Clear lesson format, instructions and lesson phases.
5. Clear separation of languages L1 and L2.
6. Use of demonstration, enactment to convey meaning.
7. New information is presented in context of known information.
8. Simpler structures used.
9. Repeated use of the same sentence patterns or routines.
10. Repetitiveness, use of paraphrase for variation.
11. Emphasize comprehension.
12. Focus on communication..

**3. Foreign language teacher**

**What should the balance be between teacher talk time and student talk time?**

It's best to consider talk time in the following percentages. Students should speak for 70% of the lesson. Teachers should speak for 30% of the time. Of course, some lessons may require longer explanations on the part of the teacher. Or other lessons may only require a minimal amount of explanation, and 90% or more may be devoted to conversational activities. But this 70/30 figure works well as a goal in most classroom situations. There are the following positive and negative examples of the teacher’s speech:

Positive: **1.** The teacher praises students.**2.** The teacher provides feedback, correction, and possible guidance.**3.** The teacher presents information or gives instructions.**4.** The teacher sets up and/or demonstrates activities, summarizes the results, asks some questions.

Negative: **1.** The teacher offers personal anecdotes that are not connected with the lesson.

**2.** The teacher speaks too quickly (or slowly) for the level of students.**3.** The teacher offers too much correction. **4.** The teacher explains the target language for too much time.

**5.** The teacher excessively uses slang and fillers.

Remember: The less time you lecture your class, the better you and your students will be. Let your students do most of the talking, after all, that’s what the ultimate goal is.

**Verbal characteristics of teacher talk**

1. Fully grammatical.
2. Preserves "natural" stress and intonation.
3. Simplified but not unnatural.
4. At least 80 % comprehensible.
5. Broken into short paragraph segments to encourage or invite students to interrupt, comment and ask questions.
6. When new vocabulary is taught, typical examples of use and usage are given whenever possible.
7. Teacher gets regular feedback through Qs and other devices.
8. Teacher gives students chances to interact with each other as well as with the teacher.
9. Teacher gives models for students to use with each other in pair or group work.
10. Variety of elicitation and explanation techniques.
11. Covert/overt correction techniques.

**Non- verbal characteristics of teacher talk**

1. Teacher maintains eye-contact when talking with as many students as possible.
2. Uses eye contact and body movement to give emphasis/invite participation (prolonged gaze to invite comment and gestures to help explain the language).
3. When a student speaks the teacher looks at the speaker but also around class to judge reactions and to see if other students are indicating that they want to speak.
4. Walking away from the student speaking to make the student speak more loudly and engage in eye-contact with the class.
5. Teacher uses facial expression to indicate interest, doubt, approval and occasionally disapproval ( smile/grim/worried…). Shows interest in what others are saying.

**Rules for teachers:**

1. Don't plan too much in a lesson, (Have an "extra" activity in reserve rather than cramming the lesson with elaborate activities.)
2. Tell pupils at the start of the lesson roughly what you intend to do and how long it's going to take.
3. Warm up the class two or four minutes.
4. Use the last few minutes to check and summarize what the lesson has been all about.
5. Allow pupils time to copy important information from the board.
6. Give "slower" pupils time to answer your questions before asking another pupil.
7. Don't wait too long for a pupil to answer.
8. Keep under control time planned for each activity.
9. Vary the timing of relaxed and intensive activity to build up a sense of rhythm in the lesson, to give it shape.
10. Show interest in what others are saying.

**Most common tips given to student teachers**

1. Start by being firm with pupils.

2. Get silence before you start speaking to the class.

3. Control the students' entry to the classroom.

4. Know and use the students' names.

5. Prepare lessons thoroughly and structure them firmly.

6. Arrive at the classroom before students.

7. Prepare furniture and apparatus before students arrive.

8. Know how to use apparatus.

9. Be mobile: walk around the class.

10. Start the lesson with a "bang" and sustain interest and curiosity.

11. Give clear instructions.

12. Learn voice control.

13. Have additional material for bright and slow students.

14. Look at the class when speaking and learn how to scan.

15. Make written work appropriate (e.g. to age, ability, cultural background of students).

16. Develop an effective question technique.

17. Develop the art of timing your lesson to fit the available period .

18. Vary your teaching techniques.

19. Anticipate discipline problems and act quickly.

20. Be firm and consistent in giving punishments.

21. Avoid confrontations.

22. Clarify and insist on YOUR standards.

23. Show yourself as a helper or facilitator to the students.

24. Don't patronise pupils, treat them as responsible beings.

25. Use humour constructively.

26. Encourage students (i.e. good efforts).

**Lecture 13. PLANNING IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**1. The necessity for planning.**

**2. Planning principles.**

**3. Unit planning.**

**4. Planning a class-period.**

**1. The necessity for planning**

An efficient working level of teaching is ensured by systematic and careful planning. Writing lesson plans is an integral part of teaching. The foreign language teacher plans all the kinds of work he is to do: he plans the essential course, the optional course (if any), and the extra-curricular work.

The teacher begins his planning before school opens and during the first week.

In making up his yearly outline the teacher consults the syllabus, Teacher's Book, Pupil's Book, and other teaching materials and sets what seems to him to be realistic limits to the content to be covered during the course of the year.

The teacher makes a careful study of Teacher's Book, Pupil's Book, teaching aids and teaching materials available for this particular form. Taking into consideration the achievements of his class, he compiles the following types of plans: calendar plan (for the year or some units), unit plan (for a topic), lesson plan (for separate lesson). **Calendar plan** includes all topics and subtopics covered during the year, time period for a topic, means of testing learners’ achievements (current and final). Calendar plan is worked out on the base of the syllabus and teacher’s book for a given form.

Before teachers can start planning their classes they need to remember three main areas: **the job of teaching, the institution and the student.**

**1) The job of teaching**

**a) The language and the skills for the level**

Teachers must be able to use language themselves and the level of skills they are going to ask their students to perform.

**b) The learning aids available for the level**

Teachers need to know what aids are available and appropriate for the level they are teaching. These may include wall pictures, flashcards, flipcharts, cards, charts, tapes, tape recorders, video playback machines, overhead projectors, computer hardware and software, sets of books and materials, and, of course, the board.

**c)**  **Stages and techniques in teaching**

Teachers need to know and recognize different teaching techniques and stages. They need to know the difference between accurate reproduction and communicative activities so that not to act as a controller in both cases. They also need to be able to recognize the stage in the textbook they are using so that they realize when an activity is controlled rather than free and vice versa.

**d) A repertoire of activities**

Well-prepared teachers have a large repertoire of activities for their classes. They can organize presentation and controlled output practice: they can direct students in acquiring receptive skills and organize communicative activities. This repertoire of activities enables them to have varied plans and achieve the balance.

**e) Classroom management skills**

Well-prepared teachers will have to have good classroom management skills. They will be able to adopt a number of different roles, will be able to use different student groupings, and will be able to maintain discipline.

**2) The institution**

Teachers need to know a lot about the institution so far as it is involved with their teaching. The following five areas of knowledge are crucial.

**a) Time length, frequency**

It means teachers should keep in mind the time of lessons, how often classes take place etc.

**b) Physical conditions**

Teachers need to know what physical conditions exist in the place(s) they are going to teach. What is the use of planning video lesson if there is no TV and video recorder?!

**c) Syllabus**

It is clearly important to be familiar with the syllabus the institution has for the levels that are being taught. We will have to be sure in general terms that we can cover the majority of the syllabus where possible.

**d) Exams**

It is also extremely important to know what type of exams (if any) students will have to take and when, since clearly a major responsibility of the teacher will be to try and ensure that students are successful in tests and exams.

**e) Restrictions**

Teachers should be aware of any restrictions imposed by the institution: apart from the obvious restrictions of physical size and shape of the classroom, there are also the limitations of class size, availability of aids and physical conditions.

Clear knowledge of all these things is vital if the teacher is to make realistic plans.

**2. Planning principles**

The two overriding principles behind good lesson planning are **variety** and **flexibility.**

**Variety** means involving students in *a number of different types of activity* and where possible introducing them to a wide selection of materials; it means such planning so that learning becomes interesting and never monotonous for students.

The second aspect of variety is *grouping*. It means pupils' organizing for group and pair activities. Teacher-centered activities are followed by learner-centered activities. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. In a general language course there will be work on the four skills (although teacher will probably come to a decision about the relative merits of each skill work) and communicative activities.

The instructor must decide whether class assignments are whole-class, small groups, workshops, independent work, peer learning, or contractual:

* Whole-class—the teacher lectures to the class as a whole and has the class collectively participate in classroom discussions.
* Small groups—students work on assignments in groups of three or four.
* Workshops—students perform various tasks simultaneously.
* Independent work—students complete assignments individually.
* Peer learning—students work together, face to face, so they can learn from one another.

The third aspect of variety refers to *the skill*. Skillscan be alternated within series of lessons and within a lesson as well. Usually we move from a receptive listening skill to a productive speaking skill from reading to speaking exercises, from presenting new material to its practicing, from testing to fun activities. Children must be interested in what they are doing. Interest is maintained in many ways and depends on the nature of the pupils. Variety means taking into consideration psychological condition of students. A quiet group of students may be stirred up with brain-storming activities, such as riddles, "silly questions", puzzles, individual work.

If teachers have a large variety of techniques and activities that they can use with students, then they can apply themselves to the central question of lesson planning: "What is it that my students will feel, know or be able to do at the end of the class (or classes) that they did not feel or know or were not able to do at the beginning of the class (or classes)?" We can say, for example, that they will feel more positive about learning English at the end of the class than they did at the beginning as a result of activities that were enjoyable; we can say that they will know some new language that they did not know before; we can say that they will be able to write a type of letter that they were not able to write before.

The second planning principle — **flexibility** — comes into play when dealing with the plan in the classroom; for a number of reasons what a teacher has planned may not be appropriate for his/her class on that particular day. The teacher should be able to change the plan in the course of the lesson if it is necessary. A flexible teacher will be able to change the plan in such a situation. Flexibility is the characteristic which would be expected from an adaptable teacher.

**3. Unit planning**

The **unit plan** is the plan of a series of class-periods covering one topic.

The first thing a teacher needs to know to make a successful lesson plan is *who* the pupils are: how many of them are there in the class? What age? What sex? What are they like? Cooperative? Quiet? Difficult to control?

The next thing the plan has to contain is *what* teachers/pupils want to do: study a piece of grammar, write a narrative, listen to an interview, read a passage etc. Having the syllabus, pre-plan (overall plan), textbooks teachers know what to plan.

The third aspect of the plan will deal with the problem *how* the teacher/ pupils is/are going to do it. Will they work in pairs? Will the teacher just put on a tape or will the class start by discussing something? For each activity the teacher will usually indicate how long he/she expects it to take and what classroom materials or aids she is going to use.

In planning the lessons of the textbook, the teacher determines the difficulties of the lessons, namely, phonetic difficulties (sounds, stress, intonation); grammar difficulties (grammar items, their character and amount), and vocabulary difficulties (the amount of new words, their character). He then distributes these difficulties evenly over the number of class-periods allotted to the lesson in the calendar plan.

The teacher starts by stating the objective or objectives of each class-period, that is, what can be achieved in a classroom lesson. Of course the long-term aims of the course help the teacher to ensure that every particular lesson is pulling in the right direction and is another step towards gaining the ultimate goals of the course. "To help the class to speak English better", "To teach pupils to aud" or "To develop pupils' proficiency in reading" cannot be the objectives of the lesson because they are too abstract to be clear to, the learners. The lesson objectives should be stated as precisely as possible.

Pupils coming to the lesson should know what they are to do during the lesson, what performance level is required of them, and how it can be achieved. Here are a few examples:

* Teach pupils to understand the following words ... when hearing and to use them in sentences orally.
* Teach pupils to form new words with the help of the following suffixes ... and to use them in the situations given.
* Teach pupils to ask and answer questions in the Present Perfect and to make up dialogues following the models.
* Teach pupils to speak about the following objects on utterance level (in a few sentences).
* Teach pupils to use the words and grammar covered in speaking about the places of interest in our town.
* Check pupils' ability in using the words covered in the following situations ....

The teacher can state no more than three concrete practical objectives for a particular class-period.

The teacher distributes the linguistic material (sounds, words, grammar, etc.) throughout the class-periods according to the objectives of each period, ***trying to teach new vocabulary on the grammatical material familiar to pupils, and to teach a new grammar item within the vocabulary assimilated by pupils;*** or he first teaches pupils hearing and speaking on the new material presented, and then pupils use this in reading and writing.

The teacher selects and distributes exercises for class and homework using various teaching aids and teaching materials depending on the objectives of each class-period. For example, for developing his pupils' skill in dialogic speech within the material covered the teacher needs a record with a pattern dialogue, word cards for changing the semantic meaning of the pattern dialogue to make the structure of the dialogue fit new situations.

In distributing exercises throughout the class-periods the teacher should involve his pupils in oral practice and speech, in oral and silent reading, and in writing. Exercises which are difficult for pupils should be done under the teacher's supervision, i, e., in class. Those exercises which pupils can easily perform independently are left for homework. In other words, new techniques, exercises, and skills should be practiced in class before the pupil attempts them at home. The homework done, the pupils return to class for perfecting, polishing, expanding, and varying what they have practiced at home, they learn to use the new words, the new structures in varied situations.

When the teacher determines the pupil's homework he should take into account that the subject he is teaching though important and difficult is not the only one the pupil learns at school. The realities of schools militate against more than 20—30 minutes of everyday homework in a foreign language. This requires the teacher to teach in class rather than test. Practice proves that pupils do their homework provided they know exactly what to do, how it should be done, and that their work will be evaluated. Besides, pupils should know that twenty-minutes' work at their English on consecutive days is more effective than two hours at a stretch.

The unit plan, therefore, involves everything the teacher needs for the detailed planning of a lesson (class-period), namely: the objective (objectives) of each lesson, the material to work at, and the exercises which should be done both during the class-period and at home to develop pupils' habits and skills in the target language. The teacher tables the material of the unit plan. The unit plan includes nine columns:

**1.The number of class-periods:** usually 8-12.

2. **The objectives** of each period.

3. **Language material**. By language material we mean words, word combinations, phrases, and sentence patterns. For example, there are six new words *(April, May, June, speak, learn, chess),* four word combinations *(in the evening, that's right, that's not right, go swimming),*and the following sentence patterns: *Where do you go ...?Where does he (she) go ...? When do you go?...*

4 - 7. **Language skills**. In developing each language skill the authors observe the main didactic principles. For instance, they develop pupils' speaking (monologue) gradually, starting with the sentence level (1st period), then passing to the utterance level (2nd period), and finally, to the speech level both prepared (3rd period) and unprepared (4th period) within the material covered. Pupils develop writing habits and skills independently at home. They write only once in class; it is a dictation drill.

1. **Accessories**: audio-, video-records, flash cards, tables, visual aids, pictures or objects etc.  
    9. **Homework.** The authors plan pupils’ independent work at home after every class-period.

If the teacher has a group of slow pupils, he needs at least one more period to cover the material (e.g. special questions with *do*, *does* are difficult for his pupils), he may use writing during the lesson and make pupils write down the questions in their exercise-books. Writing may help them in keeping the words and sentence patterns in memory. He may also increase the number of oral drill exercises and give pupils special cards to work on individually and in pairs. Thus the teacher includes word and sentence cards in column "Accessories".

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  | - | Language skills | | | | | |  |  |
|  | Objectives | Language material | Listening | V  Speaking | | Reading | | Writ- | Accessories | Homework |
|  |  |  | comprehension | Dialogue | Monologue | Oral | Silent | ing |  |  |
| 1 | (1) Develop pupils' speaking on the topic *At the the* | / *can read English.* | Listening to the rhyme | Dialogue  P1- P2 | Ex. 12 (speech ]evel). |  | Ex. 10 (text) |  | Record 1 | Ex. 4  (copying), Ex. 10 |
|  | *English Lesson.* |  | "Where |  | Pupils |  |  |  |  | Speak on the situation |
|  | (2) Introduce *can* |  | do you |  | state- |  |  |  |  | situatio |
|  | and teach pupils |  | live, |  | ments |  |  |  |  | n |
|  | attirmative |  | little |  | with *can* |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | statements. |  | Mouse?" |  | (sentence |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | level) |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | (1) Teach pupils negative statements | *I can't/don't skate either.* | Conversation "At the English Lesson" | | | Ex. 10 (text) |  | Dictation |  | Ex. 5  (writing) |
|  | *(can't/don't).* |  |  | | |  |  |  |  | substitu |
|  | (2) Develop their |  |  | | |  |  |  |  | tion, trasfor |
|  | speaking, reading |  |  | | |  |  |  |  | mation |
|  | and writing within |  |  | | |  |  |  |  | ex. |
|  | the material covered |  |  | | |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | | |  |  |  |  |  |

The importance of unit plans cannot be overestimated since unit planning permits the teacher to direct the development of all language skills on the basis of the new linguistic material the lesson involves. He can lead his pupils from reception through pattern practice to creative exercises, and in this way perfect their proficiency in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. He can vary teaching aids and teaching materials within the class-periods allotted to the lesson. Unit planning allows the teacher to concentrate pupils' attention on one or two language skills during the lesson.

The unit plan completed the teacher may move into planning a class-period or a daily plan which, in addition to what has been determined by the unit plan, indicates the ways the teacher will follow to organize his class to work during the lesson. Therefore the daily plan includes (1) what should be achieved during this particular lesson, (2) what material is used for achieving the objectives, and (3) how the objectives should be achieved. Unit plans follow much the same format as a lesson plan, but cover an entire unit of work, which may span several days or weeks. The lesson plans can be more fluid as they adapt to student needs and learning styles.

**4. Planning a class-period**

A **lesson plan** is a [teacher](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Teacher)'s detailed description of the course of instruction for an individual [lesson](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lesson). Since almost every teacher has several classes of one level he usually makes preparations for each level although, ideally, a separate plan is needed for each class because classes proceed at different speed, thus he must make adaptations in his plans to compensate for varying speeds of progress in the classes of the same level.

The teacher should write his daily plans, however some teachers, including novice teachers, do not prepare written plans. They claim that they can teach "off the top of their heads", and they really can, but their teaching usually results in poor pupils' language skills because in this case we have "teacher-dominated" classes when the teacher works hard during the lesson while his pupils remain mere "observers" of the procedure. Indeed, when the teacher is standing in front of pupils he does not have much time to think how to organize his pupils' activity. This should be done before the lesson for the teacher to be able to stimulate and direct pupils' learning the language. We may state that the effectiveness of pupils' desire for learning is fully dependent on the teacher's preparation for the lessons. If the teacher is talking, reading, and writing a great deal himself during the lesson, he is not ready for it. And vice versa, if the teacher gets his pupils to talk or read with communicative assignments while he listens, or to write while he moves about the class, giving a helping hand to everyone who needs it, he has thoroughly thought over the plan of the lesson beforehand.

One lesson may require a detailed plan; for another lesson a brief outline will suffice. In any case, a workable form for a daily plan should state the objectives, specify the activities (oral practice, reading, writing, etc.), include evaluation techniques, indicate the assignment, and determine teaching aids and teaching materials. The plan itself should:

(1) be brief, but with sufficient detail to be precise;

1. assign a definite number of minutes to each activity;
2. indicate exactly what words, phrases, facts, items are to be learnt and how;
3. make use of a variety of classroom activity for every pupil.

In the organization and conduct of a foreign language lesson there is always a wide range of possibilities. No two teachers will treat the same topic in the same way. There are, however, certain basic **principles of teaching and learning which should be observed:**

1. Every lesson should begin with a greeting in the foreign language and a brief talk between the teacher and the pupils. Through this conversation the lesson maybe motivated. The conversation may take place between:

Teacher - Class; Teacher - Pupil on duty – Class - Two Pupils on duty.

1. There should be a variety of activities at every lesson, including pronunciation drill, oral activities, reading, and writing. The success of activity is measured by attention, enthusiasm, and involvement on the part of the pupils.
2. The lesson should be conducted at a high speed when oral drill exercises are performed. Pupils should not stand up to say a word, a phrase, or a sentence.
3. The lesson should provide a certain sequence in pupils' assimilating language material and developing habits and skills from perception, comprehension, and memorizing, through the usage in a similar situation following a model, to the usage of the material received in new situations that require thinking on the part of the learner.

5. The lesson should provide time for the activity of every pupil in the class. They must be active participants of the procedure and not the teacher as is often the case when the teacher talks more than all the pupils.

6. The lesson should provide conditions for pupils **to learn.** "Language is a skill so it must be learnt, it cannot be taught" (M. West). A certain amount of time should be devoted to seatwork as opposed to activities involving the class as a whole. During seatwork and other forms of solitary study pupils learn to learn for themselves.

7. The work done during the lesson should prepare pupils for their independent work at home. It is generally accepted as good practice not to assign exercises that have not been covered in class; this especially refers to early stages of language learning.

8. The lesson should be well equipped with teaching aids and teaching materials which allow the teacher to create natural situations for developing pupils' hearing and speaking skills in a foreign language.

**9. There are** 4 objectives **of the lesson:**

**Practical objective** that deals with development of linguistic or speech competence.

**Cultural objective** that deals with the knowledge about culture of the country, development of learner’s philological competence.

**Educational objective** that provides the forming and development of the learner’s personality, his morals, traits of character.

**Developing objective** that deals with the development of learner’s psychological processes, his feelings, intellect, will.

All these objectives should be set at each lesson.

**Practical class 13. PLANNING IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**1. Questions to be discussed**

**1. The necessity for planning.**

**2. Planning principles.**

**3. Unit planning.**

**4. Planning a class-period.**

**5. The shape of the lesson.**

**6. Evaluation of the lesson.**

**List of recommended literature**

1. Англо-русский терминологический словарь по методике преподавания иностранных языков/И.Л.Колесникова,О.А.Долгина. – М.:Дрофа, 2008. – 431 с.

2. Гальскова Н.Д. Современная методика обучения иностранным языкам. М.: Аркти, 2000.- С.117–125.

3. Методика викладання іноземних мов ..../ Підручник для студентів.. К.: Ленвіт, 2002. – 328c.

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8. Brown H. Douglas. Principles of Language Learning and teaching. 2nd edition. – Printice Hall, 1987. -285 p.

9. Celce-Murcia M. Teaching English as a Second or a Foreign language, 2-nd edition, University of California. - Heinle and Heinle Publishers, 1991.

10. Skowron, Janice. Powerful Lesson Planning: Every Teachers Guide to Effective Instruction. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, 2006.

**2. Questions for control**

1. Planning is necessary for effective teaching. Say why.

2. Unit planning not only saves the teacher's time for compiling daily planning but also makes allowance for developing various skills within the time allotted to a certain unit. Do you agree? Confirm your statement.

3. Since classes are different, daily plans should be adapted to each particular class. What is your opinion on the subject?

4. What are planning principles?

5. What should teachers know before starting to plan their lessons?

6. What columns does the unit plan include?

7. Explain what practical, cultural, educational, developing objectives of the lesson mean?

8. What are basic principles of teaching and learning which should be observed in planning?

9. What are the stages of the lesson?

10. What rules should the teacher follow in planning?

11. What are the criteria for evaluation of the lesson?

12. What are some examples of both good and bad beginnings and endings to lessons?

**3. Practical tasks to do**

1. Examine current foreign language textbooks and say how the authors plan the teacher’s work at a lesson (unit).

2. Analyze one of the lessons in the Pupil's Book and determine the difficulties of the lesson.

3. Analyze the structures of 1 and 2 type of lessons.

4. Design a unit plan which includes all required columns (Topic “My native town”).

**4. Glossary. Lecture 13. PLANNING IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**1. Learn the following methodological terms:**

the shape of the lesson - модель уроку

seatwork – самостійна робота

unit plan - тематичний план

planning a class-period – планування уроку

extra-curricular work – позакласна робота

teacher's book - книга для вчителя

pupil's book - книга для учня

calendar plan - календарний план

techniques in teaching – прийоми в навчанні

repertoire of activities - асортимент вправ (завдань)

management skills – навички керування

time length, frequency – тривалість у часі, частота

restrictions - обмеження

variety and flexibility – варіативність і гнучкість

grouping - робота в групах

pair activities – завдання для роботи в парах

teacher-centered activities – вправи, де суб'єктом виступає вчитель

learner-centered activities – вправи, де суб'єктом виступає учень

at a stretch - без перерви, за одним разом. E.g., *2-3 hours at a stretch*.

the objectives of each period – цілі кожного уроку

practical objective – практична ціль

cultural ~ освітня

educational ~ виховна

developing ~ розвиваюча

accessories - оснащення уроку

assessment - виставлення оцінок

**Lecture 14. ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATING PUPILS’ ACHIEVEMENTS**

**1. The importance of evaluating pupils' achievement.**

**2. Assessment functions.**

**3. Varieties of assessment.**

**4. Testing in teaching language.**

**5. Types of tests.**

**6. Testing techniques.**

7. **Testing communicative skills.**

**8. Preparing tests.**

**1. The importance of evaluating pupils' achievement**

The informal assessment (or evaluation) is going on all the time. Every time a student answers a question, or asks one, or starts looking out of the window, or cracks a joke, he is providing you with feedback about whether learning is taking place.

Properly organized evaluating of pupils' achievements gives the teacher an opportunity to get a clear idea of his pupils' progress in foreign language learning. Analyzing the results of assessment the teacher will see his shortcomings both in methods and techniques applied and in the progress of each pupil. It allows him to improve his own work. In this connection assessment measures not only the student's performance but also the effectiveness of the teacher's instruction.

Evaluation is an integral part of teaching. Mere presentation without assessment of what the learners have made of what you have offered them is not teaching. So assessment is not a discrete process, but integral to every stage of teaching, from minute to minute as much as module to module. One role of the teacher is to help. The second role of the teacher is to judge. Pupils get used to working systematically at the target language. The latter ensures favourable conditions for the mastering of the foreign language.

**What should we assess?** Student work at all stages of development, but particularly at the end. We assess: student process, acquisition of knowledge and skills, development of sophistication and complexity in student work.

Evaluation pupils' achievements in language learning is used for measuring the achievement of the objectives in language learning, and it fulfils educational functions as well, namely, each test makes pupils concentrate their attention on certain language material and language skill and thereby mastering it successfully.

**Why is it important to assess? Assessment is necessary:**

- to find out what the students know (knowledge);

- to find out what the students can do, and how well they can do it (skills; habits);

-to find out how students feel about their work (motivation, effort).

**What should we do with the information from our assessment?**

Teachers find out the information for themselves to change something in lesson planning and techniques. We use t**he information from the assessment;**

- to improve the focus of our teaching;

- to focus student attention on strengths and weaknesses (motivation);

- to improve program planning (program assessment);

- for reporting to parents.

As an integral part of teaching system assessment has its functions, varieties, types, objects and techniques.

**2. Assessment functions**

There are the following functions of assessment**:**

**1. *Feedback function or* *diagnostic.*** It is directed to the teacher and to the pupil. For the teacher it is information which should lead him to modify his instructions and strategies. The teacher evaluates the situation and changes his methods, techniques, material, modes of working, duration of the performance of the tasks. For the pupils it is self-assessment of their achievements. It tells them what the student needs to learn, shows where students have difficulties.

**2. *Control (evaluative) function*** tells us how well the student is doing as work progresses. Assessment is accompanied by the evaluation of the achievement by grading or marking of every pupil. A grade or a mark shows the results of learning and stimulates pupils' desire to learn.

**3. *Educative (teaching) function*** makes pupils concentrate their attention on certain language material and language skill and thereby mastering it successfully. Integrated within learning activities themselves, educative function builds student insight and understanding of their own learning. Assessment (sometimes termed active assessment) is an episode in the learning process. In short, assessment IS a form of learning. It is a part of reflection and understanding of student progress. While performing some testing tasks the process of teaching and learning is going on.

**4. *Development function*** deals with the development of pupils’ psychological characteristics involved into performing of tasks: span of memory, thinking, articulation, ability to concentrate. It is connected with the development of motivation and interest to learn a foreign language.

***3. Varieties of assessment***

It's been said that in life, timing is everything. As in life, assessments performed at crucial times in the learning process can spell the difference between gathering data to evaluate students and using assessments to enhance learning. Based on timing and purpose, there are four varieties of assessment.

***Formative assessment*** provides diagnostic feedback to students and instructors at short-term intervals (e.g., during a class, an activity or on a weekly basis). Formative assessment evaluates the process of learning in its process, and is a part of the teaching process. Formative assessment takes place during a learning activity to provide the instructor with information regarding how well the learning objectives of a given learning activity are being met, recognizes student needs in the course of learning. It helps to understand how much learning has taken place after the learning activity is completed. Teachers discover holes and modify their teaching and learning activities to improve learning results. It lets educators adjust learning standards right away. By knowing each student's current needs, including those with lower abilities, a teacher can address them immediately.

***Periodical******assessment*** provides a description of students' level of attainment upon completion of theme, module, or unit.

***Summative assessment***provides a description of students' level of attainment upon completion course or stage in teaching. Summative assessment evaluates learning needs. It usually consists of tests, semester exams, end of unit or end of chapter tests that evaluate student progress, performance, and knowledge. The teacher calculates final grades based upon performance in these exams. These assessments may help teachers adjust future curriculum, based upon how well the students retain information.

According to the criterion who is involved in assessment (the teacher, the student or the student's peers) we distinguish the following types of assessment**: Teacher's assessment, Self/ Peer-assessment.**

***Teacher's assessment*.** The teacher gives an assessment of the learner for work done throughout the course including classroom contributions.

***Self/Peer assessment*.** The students evaluate themselves. The criteria must be carefully decided upon beforehand. It is important to allow students to make judgments about their own performance and that of fellow students. This activity should be part of the assessment process because it helps students take greater responsibility for their own learning and fosters habits of successful life-long learning.

**The differences between assessment and evaluation.**1**.** Assessment is the gathering of information about something, such as student performance. Evaluation is the act of setting a value on the assessment information.

2. Assessment is information. Evaluation is a judgment.

3. Assessment is qualitative. Evaluation is quantitative.

4. Assessment pinpoints specific strengths and weaknesses. Evaluation ranks and sorts individuals within groups.

5. Assessment is diagnostic and formative, as well as summative. Evaluation is only summative.

6. Assessment is most useful to teachers and students. Evaluation is most useful to administrators and parents.

7. Assessment is an educational measure. Evaluation is an administrative measure.

8. Assessment is referenced by criterion. Evaluation is referenced by norm.

[IQ test is a norm-referenced measure](http://translate.googleusercontent.com/translate_c?hl=ru&sl=ru&tl=en&u=http://www.learningandteaching.info/learning/intelligence.htm&rurl=translate.google.com.ua&usg=ALkJrhgcygRMmPIoq4bDp02k5Q_HETh_OQ#(IQ)) . Criterion-referencing is the term used for assessment against fixed criteria. Theoretically, it can mean that everyone who undertakes a given assessment may pass it, or no-one might. As the criteria are determined in advance, they are valid and reliable.

**How should we assess?**

Day-to-day observation.

Tests and quizzes.

Rating scales.

Project work.

Exams.

The teacher must decide how to evaluate each student's performance. Special attention should be paid to testing as the most common tool for assessing.

**4. Testing in teaching language**

Testing means presenting a person with a set of questions or tasks in order to obtain a measure of performance often presented by a score. The teacher tests the pupil's command of the target language, that is, his ability to use it in its two forms, oral and written. Therefore, the items of testing should fully correspond to the aims and objectives. They are: (1) aural comprehension, (2) speaking (monologue and dialogue), (3) reading (oral and silent), (4) writing (words, sentences, dictations, written reproductions, etc.).

We distinguish regular testing when the teacher administers frequent, short tests to measure his pupils' achievement and assigns marks for their work at a given lesson (unit) or a topic; and final testing or examination at the end of the course. The teacher administers tests in two forms: oral and written. At present the following tests are available**: teacher-made tests, ready-made tests (for example, in the *Teacher's Book),* and standardized tests (made by the Department of Education).** Naturally, teacher-made tests are the best because he knows the material his pupils have covered better than anyone else, that is why he can administer a test which will correspond to his pupils' capacities.

Testing is a process of determining the extent to which objectives have been achieved. However, to obtain true information a test should be **valid, reliable, discriminative, practical, objective and economical.** These are quality characteristics of a test.

***Validity***

A valid form of assessment is one which measures what it is supposed to measure. It does not assess memory, when it is supposed to be assessing problem-solving (and vice versa). It does not grade someone on the quality of their writing, when writing skills are not relevant to the topic being assessed, but it does when they are. A test might be valid for one purpose but inappropriate for other purposes. If the test is valid, we can generalize that the student will likely do as well on similar items not included on the test. Unfortunately, [no assessment is completely valid](http://translate.googleusercontent.com/translate_c?hl=ru&sl=ru&tl=en&u=http://www.learningandteaching.info/teaching/assessment.htm&rurl=translate.google.com.ua&usg=ALkJrhi1rI2tI0-46i5WDI7NPDV8A4mPjQ) .

***Reliability o***r ***"replicability***".

Teachers have different grading and evaluating standards.The results for the person should be similar if they are scored by different raters or assessors. The independent rates give the same scores to a given students’ response. A reliable assessment will produce the same results on re-test, and will produce similar results with the similar students, so it is consistent in its methods and criteria.

**Discrimination (**discriminatory capacity). A good test must be able to make a distinction between good and poor learners They should not be easy or difficult.

**Practicality .** Assigning quantitative value to a test result should not be difficult, easy to construct, administer, check and evaluate. It should give simple, clear and precise instructions.

**Economy.** It should not take much time, efforts and cost within each stage of testing, from preparation to performance.

**Objectivity.** The test is considered objective if the scoring of the test is not affected in anyway by the examiner’s personal judgment. Objectivity ensures that everyone has an equal chance of getting a good assessment. This may include (where appropriate) anonymity of submitted material.

**5. Types of tests**

There are some types of tests: proficiency tests, achievement tests, diagnostic test and placement tests. **Proficiency tests** measure learners' language ability regardless of the training they may have had or the vocabulary and topic they may have studied. Proficiency tests are not based on the contents of the language course but rather on the general knowledge of the target language and culture. **Achievement tests** are directly related to the language courses taught to the examinees. The purpose of achievement tests is to judge the success of individual learners or groups in achieving objectives of the language course. Achievement tests are always " course related” and refer to course contents and objectives. **Diagnostic tests** identify students’ strengths and weaknesses. They provide the teacher with the information on what further teaching is necessary and what problems he students might have in coping with the instruction demands. **Placement** tests provide information that helps to place the student at the most suitable stage of the teaching curriculum, bearing in mind their level of language achievement so far.

**6. Testing techniques**

**Multiple-choice tests.** Multiple-choice tests can be used to measure both simple knowledge and complex concepts. It has a “stem” (the basic and unaltered part of the sentence) and a number of “options”, only one of which is correct. The other options are wrong and called “distractors”. Since multiple-choice questions can be answered quickly, you can assess students' mastery of many topics on an hour exam. In addition, the items can be easily and reliably scored.

**The advantages of multiple-choice tests.** Theyare reliable and economical scoring.

**The disadvantages of multiple-choice tests** that it checks only linguistic competence not speech skills. *Example: Choose the correct answer. She said she \_\_\_ leave the baby. (A. can’t. b. won’t. c. couldn’t.)*

**True-false statements (tests).** It is a variant of multiple-choice tests.Because random guessing will produce the correct answer half the time, true-false tests are less reliable than other types of exams. However, these items are appropriate for occasional use. Usually it is used to check the understanding of a text read or heard.

**Matching tests.** The matching format is an effective way to test students' recognition of the relationships between words and definitions, events and dates, categories and examples, paragraphs and visual images and so on. The disadvantage of such tests is that once the pupil has made a number of matches, the remaining pairs can be guessed more easily.

**Gap filling** refers to tasks where the pupils are given separate sentences with some words or phrases deleted. The task is to restore the missing words. Some missing words can have lexical meaning, can be prepositions or conjunctions. Sometimes a list of words is given to be used in filling in the gaps.

**Cloze tests** involve deleting a number of words in the whole text to restore the original words. Approximately every seventh word is deleted. Disadvantages of the test are that some words prove more difficult to restore than others. There should be more than one answer for one gap. It is not always easy to say what language area (grammar, lexis, prepositions, etc. or skills (receptive or productive) are actually measured by this test.

**Information transfer** means that the pupils have to transfer material from the text to a chart, table or map.

**Ordering tasks (sequencing)** are typically used to test the ability of arranging a discourse into a logically organized chain. The students are presented with a mutilated text (dialogue, description, etc.), in which the order of elements is jumbled. The task is to restore the logical sequence.

**Editing tests** consist of sentences or text passages, in which errors have been introduced. The pupils are to identify the errors and to write out the missing or wrong elements at the end of each line.

**Remodeling tests** mean that the pupils have to rewrite original sentences starting with the given words or using the given words so that the meaning of the original sentence does not change. ***e****.g. He clicked the car door leaving the key inside. He locked* ***\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.***

**Oral exams.** Though common at the graduate level, oral exams are rarely used for undergraduates except in foreign language classes, and difficult to score unless the instructor tape-records the answers.

7. **Testing communicative skills**

***Testing listening***

A text is presented, preferably on tape (or read by the teacher) twice. The class or each pupil is given a definite task before being invited to listen to the text. All the tasks for listening should be done “while-listening”. Pupils listen to the text and then they are asked to react to the material according to the given assignments. These may be answering yes-no-questions, choosing answers from multiple-choice items on cards distributed beforehand, sequencing, information transferring, commenting, drawing conclusions, etc.

***Testing reading*** deals with comprehension and speed. The former is more important than the latter. Testing reading may be administered aloud or silently. Each pupil gets a passage, accompanied by a set of questions on cards. Techniques for reading include true-false statements, multiple-choice, sequencing, cloze, information transfer, comments, drawing conclusions. In case of reading aloud the test may be administered in the language laboratory with each pupil reading on tape. If pupils read silently the teacher collects cards and evaluates comprehension by every pupil from the answers.

***Testing writing*** pursues the goal of testing the ability to write. It can be done in different formats: describing, explaining, comparing and contrasting, reasoning (essay tests). **Short-answer tests.** Depending on your objectives, short-answer questions can call for one or two sentences or a long paragraph. Short-answer tests are easier to write, they also give you some opportunity to see how well students can express their thoughts, though they are not as useful as longer essay responses for this purpose. **Dictations** are used to test mechanical ability (spelling, capitalization, etc.)

***Testing speaking***

The testing of speaking is the most difficult as the teacher will want to test pronunciation, intonation, stress, sustained speaking, use of vocabulary and grammatical structures. The best way to measure achievement in speaking is by testing each pupil individually. But this is very time-consuming and, although the teacher does his best to question as many pupils as he possibly can, he fails to cover all the individuals on a given topic, and as a result this leading language skill is often not controlled in any way whatsoever. Instead the teacher tests knowledge of words, structures; ability to ask and answer questions in written form; ability to write about a situation or topic suggested. There are some formats for testing oral abilities: **interview, interaction with peers and response to an image, written or heard text.** Each pupil gives his response on tape. The teacher plays back the tape as he has time and evaluates each pupil's performance.

It has been calculated that it takes a pupil 1—1,5 minutes to make a response containing 3—4 sentences. The test must be constructed in such a way that the pupil need not give a lengthy answer but his response must show his ability to pronounce and intone, use of certain vocabulary and grammatical structures, and whether his speech is sustained or not.

***The testing of vocabulary******and grammar*** is carried out indirectly or directly. All the above-mentioned tests imply the testing of vocabulary and grammar since the pupil cannot give a satisfactory answer to any test if he does not know the words and grammar items required. This is indirect testing. However the teacher may administer direct testing when he proposes a vocabulary test or a grammar test.

**Vocabulary test**: gap filling, cloze procedure, eliciting words from definition, matching, multiple-choice.

**Grammar test**: multiple-choice, cloze procedure, error correction, paraphrase, sentence completion.

There are positive as well as negative sides in testing as a form of assessment.

**Positive reasons for testing**

Tests will help a teacher to decide if her teaching has been effective and help to highlight what needs to be reviewed, highlight areas for students to work on.

Tests can give students a sense of accomplishment as well as information about what they know and what they need to review.

Testing helps students to give them a sense of satisfaction that they were accomplishing things.

Tests can be extremely motivating and give students a sense of progress. They can tell them what has and hasn't been effective in their learning.

Tests encourage students to review material covered on the course.

We always learn the most before an exam. Tests can encourage students to consolidate and extend their knowledge.

Tests are also a learning opportunity after they have been taken. The feedback after a test can be invaluable in helping a student to understand something she couldn't do during the test. Thus the test is a review in itself.

**Negative sides of testing**

Tests are obstacles for many of the students who suffer from test anxiety. Some students become so nervous that they can't perform and don't give a true account of their knowledge or ability.

Other students can do well with last-minute cramming despite not having worked throughout the course.

Once the test has finished, students can just forget all that they had learned.

Students become focused on passing tests rather than learning to improve their language skills.

Students can guess the right variant (25% of guessing).

**How to make testing more productive** Despite all of some strong arguments for testing, it is very important to bear in mind the negative aspects we looked at first and to try and minimize the effects.

- Try to explain to the students the purpose for the test and stress the positive effects it will have.

- Give the students plenty of notice and teach some revision classes beforehand.

- Tell the students that you will take into account their work on the course as well as the test result.

- Be sensitive when you hand out the results. Highlight any specific areas of difficulty and give the students their results on slips of paper.

- Another way to alleviate the stress is to make sure kids are prepared for the test we give. This can be done by giving them a practice test, which resembles the real test, and then checking it with them. We must teach our pupils the type of questions they will encounter on our tests. Working in class in one way and then testing them in another is both bad practice and a way to ensure failure of our students. By showing them a practice test beforehand they learn to understand what is expected . This builds confidence, reviews the material and lessens the stress of the unknown. Perhaps this is why many students who retake different modules do better the second time around: they know what they need to do whereas the first time, even with lots of practice in class they haven't yet seen the "Real McCoy".   
 Finally, it is very important to remember that tests also give teachers valuable information on how to improve the process of evaluation. Questions such as:

*"Were the instructions clear?*", "Are the test results consistent with the work that the students have done on the course. *Why/why not?",* "Did I manage to create a non-threatening atmosphere?" will help the teacher to improve the evaluative process for next time.

**8. Preparing tests** How can we make up a good test? Making up fair tests is a real skill which I fear many teachers don't have. A pure grammar test of 50 fill-in exercises does not show what our students know and certainly does not teach our students how to use the language.

**The structure of a test**  
 A test consists of an instruction (what to do), the example to demonstrate the procedure (tick, underline, circle and etc.), the material for testing and the key (final results). "The test of a good teacher is not how many questions he can ask his pupils that they will answer readily, but how many questions he inspires them to ask him which he finds it hard to answer".

For students, assessment means nothing if it is not part of their grades. These views challenge teachers to be clear about the difference between testing and assessment, terms that for many teachers are synonymous in meaning. Testing is supposed to be for final results, while assessment refers to an ongoing collection of data that directs teaching and learning. Assessment is not supposed to be about the grade: it is supposed to be about 1) students demonstrating what they have learned and what they still need to learn, and 2) about teachers determining what steps to take to accommodate the needs of students in order to advance student learning.

One of the responsibilities of the teacher is judgment. The teacher must make judgments of student progress and convey that information to the parents, and to the public concerning group performance.

**Practical class 14. ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATING PUPILS’ ACHIEVEMENTS**

**1. Questions to be discussed**

**1. The importance of evaluating pupils' achievement.**

**2. Assessment functions.**

**3. Varieties of assessment.**

**4. Testing in teaching language.**

**5. Types of tests.**

**6. Testing techniques.**

7. **Testing communicative skills.**

**8. Preparing tests.**

**List of recommended literature**

1. Англо-русский терминологический словарь по методике преподавания иностранных языков/И.Л.Колесникова,О.А.Долгина. – М.:Дрофа, 2008. – 431 с.

2. Гальскова Н.Д. Современная методика обучения иностранным языкам. М.: Аркти, 2000.- С.117–125.

3. Методика викладання іноземних мов ..../ Підручник для студентів.. К.: Ленвіт, 2002. – 328c.

4. Мильруд Р.П. Методика преподавания английского языка. English teaching Methodology: учебное пособие для вузов – М.:Дрофа, 2007. – 253 с.

5. Практикум з методики викладання іноземних мов ..../ Посібник для студентів.. К.: Ленвіт, 2002.-360 c.

6.. Rogova G.V. Methods of Teaching English.1983.-311p..

7. Соловова Е.И. Методика обучения иностранным языкам. М.: Просвещение, 2002. - С. 141–148, 149–153,156–163.

8. Brown H. Douglas. Principles of Language Learning and teaching. 2nd edition. – Printice Hall, 1987. -285 p.

9. Celce-Murcia M. Teaching English as a Second or a Foreign language, 2-nd edition, University of California. - Heinle and Heinle Publishers, 1991.

10. Littlewood, W. (1981). Communicative Language Teaching. Cambridge University Press.

11.Oliva P. The Teaching of Foreign Languages. N. Jersey, 1969, p. 204.

12. Ebel R, Measuring Educational Achievement, N. Jersey, 1965

13. Hughes, A. (1996). Testing for Language Teachers. (8th edition). Cambridge: C.U.P.

**2. Questions for control**

1. The importance of evaluating pupils' achievement. Reasons for testing.

2. Name functions of the assessment. Which function is the main one?

3. Name the requirements to the assessment.

4. What are the objectives of the formative and summative assessment**?**

5. Name the varieties of the assessment.

6. Name the types of tests.

7. Name negative and positives features of testing. How to make testing more productive.

8. How do you understand teacher-made tests, ready-made tests*,* and standardized tests? Name the structure of a test.

9. What testing techniques are used in teaching a foreign language?

10. Name techniques for testing communicative skills.

11. Explain the terms “assessment” and “evaluation”.

12. Foreign language proficiency is difficult to test. Why?

13.Can the teacher test one skill by means of another? Give your arguments for and against.

14. What should be done to enforce the validity of marks? State your reasons.

15. What does testing give to the teacher?

**3. Practical tasks to do**

1. Fill in the table “Assessment in teaching a foreign language”.

2. Prepare a test on listening skills, vocabulary skills, grammar skills, pronunciation, monologue and dialogue. Perform the testing procedure.

**4. Glossary. Lecture 14. Assessment and evaluating pupils’ achievements.**

**1. Learn the following methodological terms:**

varieties of assessment - види контроля

evaluation - контроль **(загальне поняття)**; оцінка **(процес)** див**. тж.**;

evaluation - оцінка

assessment - контроль

formative ~ поточний контроль,

periodical assessment - рубіжний контроль

summative ~ підсумковіи контроль

peer assessment- взаємоконтроль

self- ~ самооцінка

testing - тестування, контроль тестовий

test - тест; контрольна робота

achievement ~ тест успішності  
diagnostic ~ діагностичний тест

placement ~ тест для розподілення учнів на групи  
proficiency ~ тест на виявлення загального рівня володіння іноземною мовою

progress achievement ~ проміжний тест успішності

cloze ~ ~ клоуз-тест **(відновлення чи доповнення тексту) пор.** cloze activity – заповнення пропусків **тж.** gap filling **пор.** cloze test

gap-filling **див**. cloze activity – заповнення пропусків

multiple-choice tests – тести множинного вибору

***true-false statements - «вірні-невірні твердження»***

***information transfer*** *– перекодування інформації* (з однієї форми її презентації в іншу)

jumbled text ***(dialogue, sentence) -*** «переплутаний текст» ***(діалог, речення)- вправа, в якій навмисно порушена послідовність речень у тексті або слів у реченні***

matching – вправа на поєднання; вправа на знаходження відповідностей   
functions of assessment - функції контроля

feedback function - функція зворотного зв'язку

teaching function - навчальна функція

development function – розвиваюча функція

control function – оцінювальна функція

grading or marking – виставлення оцінок

discriminative - диференційований

practical - практичний

economicаl - економний

discrimination - здатність дифеернціювати

practicality - практичність

economy - економічність

objects of assessment - об'єкти контроля

test administration - організація тестування

testing techniques - прийоми контроля

forms of assessment - форми контроля

test item - тестове завдання

“distractоrs” – невірні відповіді в тесті (для вибору)

validity - валідність

teacher-made tests - тести, підготовлені вчителем

ready-made tests - готові тести

standardized tests - стандартизовані тести

test-taker – той, хто виконує тест

**elicit (v)** – дійти до самостійного висновку; здогадатися; згадати

**Lecture 15. GAMES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING**

1. **Game as a form of lesson.**
2. **Classification of games in language teaching.**
3. **Rules to arrange games.**

Language learning is hard work . Effort is required at every moment and must be maintained over a long period of time. Games help and encourage many learners to sustain their interest and work. Sustaining interest can mean sustaining effort. Games also help the teacher to create contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful. 'The need for meaningfulness in language learning has been accepted for some years. A useful interpretation of 'meaningfulness' is that the learners respond to the content in a definite way. If they are amused, angered, intrigued or surprised the content is clearly meaningful to them. Thus the meaning of the language they listen to, read, speak and write will be more vividly experienced and, therefore, better remembered.

There are many advantages of using games in the classroom:

1. Games provide a context for meaningful communication. Even if the game involves discrete language items, such as a spelling game, meaningful communication takes place as students seek to understand how to play the game and as they communicate about the game: before, during, and after the game (Wright, Betteridge, & Buckby, 2005).
2. The emotions aroused when playing games add variety to the sometimes dry, serious process of language instruction (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Ersoz, 2000; Lee, 1995).
3. The variety and intensity that games offer may lower anxiety (Richard-Amato, 1988 ) and encourage shyer learners to take part (Uberman, 1998), especially when games are played in small groups.
4. Games can involve all the basic language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and a number of skills are often involved in the same game (Lee, 1995).
5. Games are student-centered in that students are active in playing the game, and games can often be organized such that students have the leading roles, with teachers as facilitators.
6. Many games can be played in small groups, thereby providing a venue for students to develop their skills in working with others, such as the skill of disagreeing politely and the skill of asking for help (Jacobs & Kline Liu, 1996). Other advantages of games played in groups include:
   1. The team aspect of many games can encourage cooperation and build team spirit (Ersoz, 2000).
   2. Although many games involve competition, this is not necessarily the case (Orlick, 2006).
   3. In most games, everyone has a turn, encouraging everyone to take a turn, rather than letting others do all the talking and other actions, and discouraging one or two people from shutting out others.
7. As many games can be played outside of class, they provide a means for students to use the language outside of class time (Ellis, 2005).
8. Games can connect to a variety of intelligences (Gardner, 1999), e.g.,
   1. Games played with others involve interpersonal intelligence.
   2. Games involving drawing connect with visual/spatial intelligence.
   3. Games often have a hands-on element, such as cards, spinners, or pieces, which connect with bodily/kinesthetic intelligence.

9. Games enable learners to acquire new experiences within a foreign language which are not always possible during a typical lesson.

10. Games add diversion to the regular classroom activities," break the ice, "[but also] they are used to introduce new ideas".

11. In the easy, relaxed atmosphere which is created by using games, students remember things faster and better.

12. Games encourage, entertain, teach, and promote fluency. If not for any of these reasons, they should be used just because they help students see beauty in a foreign language and not just problems that at times seem overwhelming.

13. Games can lower anxiety, thus making the acquisition of input more likely.

14. Games are highly motivating and entertaining, and they can give shy students more opportunity to express their opinions and feelings.

If it is accepted that games can provide intense and meaningful practice of language, then they must be regarded as *central* to a teacher's repertoire. They are thus not for use solely on wet days and at the end of term. Games can play a range of roles in the language curriculum. Traditionally, games have been used in the language class as

* + 1. warm-ups at the beginning of class,
    2. fill-ins when there is extra time near the end of class,
    3. as an occasional bit of spice stirred into the curriculum to add variety,
    4. games can be either for practicing specific language items or skills or for more communicative language production,
    5. games can also be used as a way to revise and recycle previously taught language.

**2. Classification of games in language teaching**

Classifying games into categories can be difficult, because categories often overlap. Hadfield (1999) explains two ways of classifying language games. First, she divides language games into two types: linguistic games and communicative games.

***Linguistic games*** focus on accuracy, such as supplying the correct antonym. On the other hand, ***communicative games*** focus on successful exchange of information and ideas, such as two people identifying the differences between their two pictures which are similar to one another but not exactly alike. Correct language usage, though still important, is secondary to achieving the communicative goal.

The second taxonomy that Hadfield uses to classify language games has many more categories. As with the classification of games as linguistic games or communicative games, some games will contain elements of more than one type.

1. ***Sorting, ordering, or arranging games***. For example, students have a set of cards with different products on them, and they sort the cards into products found at a grocery store and products found at a department store.
2. ***Information gap games***. In such games, one or more people have information that other people need to complete a task. For instance, one person might have a drawing and their partner needs to create a similar drawing by listening to the information given by the person with the drawing. Information gap games can involve a one-way information gap, such as the drawing game just described, or a two-way information gap, in which each person has unique information, such as in a Spot-the-Difference task, where each person has a slightly different picture, and the task is to identify the differences.
3. ***Guessing games***. These are a variation on information gap games. One of the best known examples of a guessing game is 20 Questions, in which one person thinks of a famous person, place, or thing. The other participants can ask 20 Yes/No questions to find clues in order to guess who or what the person is thinking of.
4. ***Search games***. These games are yet another variant of two-way information gap games, with everyone giving and seeking information. Find Someone Who is a well known example. Students are given a grid. The task is to fill in all the cells in the grid with the name of a classmate who fits that cell, e.g., someone who is a vegetarian. Students circulate, asking and answering questions to complete their own grid and help classmates complete theirs.
5. ***Matching games***. As the name implies, participants need to find a match for a word, picture, or card. For example, students place 30 word cards, composed of 15 pairs, face down in random order. Each person turns over two cards at a time, with the goal of turning over a matching pair, by using their memory.
6. ***Labeling games***. These are a form of matching, in which participants match labels and pictures.
7. ***Exchanging games***. In these games, students barter cards, other objects, or ideas. Similar are exchanging and collecting games. Many card games fall into this category, such as the children’s card game Go Fish: http://www.pagat.com/quartet/gofish.html.
8. ***Board games***. Scrabble is one of the most popular board games that specifically highlights language.
9. ***Role play games***. The terms *role play*, *drama*, and *simulation* are sometimes used interchangeably but can be differentiated (Kodotchigova, 2002). Role play can involve students playing roles that they do not play in real life, such as dentist, while simulations can involve students performing roles that they already play in real life or might be likely to play, such as customer at a restaurant. Dramas are normally scripted performances, whereas in role plays and simulations, students come up with their own words, although preparation is often useful.

Well-chosen games are invaluable as they give students a break and at the same time allow students to practice language skills. Games are highly motivating since they are amusing and at the same time challenging. Furthermore, they employ meaningful and useful language in real contexts. They also encourage and increase cooperation.

**3. Rules to arrange games**

Children often are very enthusiastic about games, but precisely for that reason, some older students may worry that games are too childish for them. Teachers need to explain the purpose of the game in order to reassure such students that there is such a phenomenon as “serious fun.” Also, older students can be involved in modifying and even creating games.

As with other learning activities, teachers need to pay careful attention to the difficulty level of games. Part of the appeal of games lies in the challenge, but if the challenge is too great, some students may become discouraged. The challenge can be of two kinds: understanding how to play the game and understanding the language content. Some suggestions for promoting both types of understanding are:

1. Demonstrations of how the game is played. The teacher can demonstrate with a group of students or a group can demonstrate for the class.
2. A kind of script of what people said as they played or a list of useful phrases. Similarly, key vocabulary and concepts may need to be explained.
3. Clear directions. Demonstrations can accompany directions, and directions can be given when needed, rather than explaining all the steps and rules in one go. Also, some student-initiated modifications can be accepted.
4. Games already known to students.
5. Games used to revise and recycle previously studied content, rather than involving new content.
6. Groups are heterogeneous in terms of current language proficiency, so that the more proficient members can help others.
7. Resources, online or print, such as dictionaries and textbooks.

h. A game must be more than just fun.  
i. A game should involve "friendly" competition.

j. A game should keep all of the students involved and interested.  
k. A game should encourage students to focus on the use of language rather than on the language itself.  
l. A game should give students a chance to learn, practice, or review specific language material.

**General Benefits of Games**  
  
**Affective:**  
- lowers affective filter  
- encourages creative and spontaneous use of language  
- promotes communicative competence  
- motivates  
- fun  
  
**Cognitive:**  
- reinforces  
- reviews and extends  
- focuses on grammar communicatively  
  
**Class Dynamics:**  
- student centered  
- teacher acts only as facilitator  
- builds class cohesion  
- fosters whole class participation  
- promotes healthy competition  
  
**Adaptability:**  
- easily adjusted for age, level, and interests  
- utilizes all four skills  
- requires minimum preparation after development

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Lecture 16. INTERACTION IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

**1. Interaction in the second language acquisition.**

**2. The forms of interactive activities.**

**3. Suggestions for teachers in arranging interactive activities.**

Speaking is a crucial part of second language learning and teaching. Despite its importance, for many years, teaching speaking has been undervalued and English language teachers have continued to teach speaking just as a repetition of drills or memorization of dialogues. However, today's world requires that the goal of teaching speaking should improve students' communicative skills, because, only in that way, students can express themselves and learn how to follow the social and cultural rules appropriate in each communicative circumstance.

What is meant by "teaching speaking" is to teach ESL learners to:

* Produce the English speech sounds and sound patterns.
* Use word and sentence stress, intonation patterns and the rhythm of the second language.
* Select appropriate words and sentences according to the proper social setting, audience, situation and subject matter.
* Organize their thoughts in a meaningful and logical sequence.
* Use language as a means of expressing values and judgments.
* Use the language quickly and confidently with few unnatural pauses, which is called as fluency (Nunan, 2003).

Now many linguistics and ESL teachers agree on that students learn to speak in the second language by "interacting". Communicative language teaching and collaborative learning serve best for this aim.  Communicative language teaching is based on real-life situations that require communication. By using this method in ESL classes, students will have the opportunity of communicating with each other in the target language.  In brief, ESL teachers should create a classroom environment where students have real-life communication, authentic activities, and meaningful tasks that promote oral language. This can occur when students collaborate in groups to achieve a goal or to complete a task.

In the natural setting, for the learner to communicate, he must learn the language

and in order to learn it he must communicate. The learner has access to the target language in the course of everyday communication or interaction with the environment. The sounds of

the language are embedded in a relevant situational context and the learner’s job is to extract from this material the rules for the use of the language. This interaction allows him to start learning and learning in turn allows him to make progress in communication.

Three aspects of verbal interaction can be distinguished: input, production and feedback. Input is the language offered to the learner by teachers, production (output) is the language spoken by the language learners themselves and feedback is the response given by the conversational partners to the production of the learner.

The learner should be guided by explanations, demonstrations, rephrasing and work with other learners and provided with opportunity for cooperative learning. In addition, they should be encouraged to organize their thinking and to talk about what they are trying to accomplish. All these involve interactions with the teacher and peers in the classroom.

Second language learners need comprehensible input, need to be in situations that provide maximum personal involvement in the communication and need opportunities to use the target language in interactions. The learning of a language centres around the use of the language for communicative purposes.

There are different types of classroom interaction.

**2. The forms of interactive activities**

**Discussions**

After a content-based lesson, a discussion can be held for various reasons. The students may aim to arrive at a conclusion, share ideas about an event, or find solutions in their discussion groups. Before the discussion, it is essential that the purpose of the discussion activity should be set by the teacher. In this way, the discussion points are relevant to this purpose, so that students do not spend their time chatting with each other about irrelevant things. For example, students can become involved in agree/disagree discussions. In this type of discussions, the teacher can form groups of students, preferably 4 or 5 in each group, and provide controversial sentences like “people learn best when they read vs. people learn best when they travel”. Then each group works on their topic for a given time period, and presents their opinions to the class. It is essential that the speaking should be equally divided among group members. At the end, the class decides on the winning group who defended the idea in the best way. This activity fosters critical thinking and quick decision making, and students learn how to express and justify themselves in polite ways while disagreeing with the others. For efficient group discussions, it is always better not to form large groups, because quiet students may avoid contributing in large groups. The group members can be either assigned by the teacher or the students may determine it by themselves, but groups should be rearranged in every discussion activity so that students can work with various people and learn to be open to different ideas. Lastly, in class or group discussions, whatever the aim is, the students should always be encouraged to ask questions, paraphrase ideas, express support, check for clarification, and so on.

**Role Play**

Another way of getting students to speak is role-playing. Students pretend they are in various social contexts and have a variety of social roles. In role-play activities, the teacher gives information to the learners such as who they are and what they think or feel.

**Simulations**

Simulations are very similar to role-plays but what makes simulations different from role plays is that they are more elaborate. In simulations, students can bring items to the class to create a realistic environment. For instance, if a student is acting as a singer, she brings a microphone to sing and so on. Role plays and simulations have many advantages. First, since they are entertaining, they motivate the students. Second, they increase the self-confidence of hesitant students, because in role play and simulation activities, they will have a different role and do not have to speak for themselves, which means they do not have to take the same responsibility.

**Information Gap**

In this activity, students are supposed to be working in pairs. One student will have the information that other partner does not have and the partners will share their information. Information gap activities serve many purposes such as solving a problem or collecting information.  Also, each partner plays an important role because the task cannot be completed if the partners do not provide the information the others need. These activities are effective because everybody has the opportunity to talk extensively in the target language.

**Brainstorming**

On a given topic, students can produce ideas in a limited time. Depending on the context, either individual or group brainstorming is effective and learners generate ideas quickly and freely. The good characteristic of brainstorming is that the students are not criticized for their ideas so students will be open to sharing new ideas.

**Storytelling**

Students can briefly summarize a tale or story they heard from somebody beforehand, or they may create their own stories to tell their classmates. Storytelling fosters creative thinking. It also helps students express ideas in the format of beginning, development, and ending, including the characters and setting a story has to have. Students also can tell riddles or jokes. For instance, at the very beginning of each class session, the teacher may call a few students to tell short riddles or jokes as an opening. In this way, not only will the teacher address students’ speaking ability, but also get the attention of the class.

**Interviews**

Students can conduct interviews on selected topics with various people. It is a good idea that the teacher provides a rubric to students so that they know what type of questions they can ask or what path to follow, but students should prepare their own interview questions. Conducting interviews with people gives students a chance to practice their speaking ability not only in class but also outside and helps them becoming socialized. After interviews, each student can present his or her study to the class. Moreover, students can interview each other and "introduce" his or her partner to the class.

**Story Completion**

This is a very enjoyable, whole-class, free-speaking activity for which students sit in a circle. For this activity, a teacher starts to tell a story, but after a few sentences he or she stops narrating. Then, each student starts to narrate from the point where the previous one stopped. Each student is supposed to add from four to ten sentences. Students can add new characters, events, descriptions and so on.

**Reporting**

Before coming to class, students are asked to read a newspaper or magazine and, in class, they report to their friends what they find as the most interesting news. Students can also talk about whether they have experienced anything worth telling their friends in their daily lives before class.

**Playing Cards**

In this game, students should form groups of four. Each suit will represent a topic. For instance:

**Diamonds**: Earning money

**Hearts**: Love and relationships

**Spades:** An unforgettable memory

**Clubs:** Best teacher

Each student in a group will choose a card. Then, each student will write 4-5 questions about that topic to ask the other people in the group. For example:  
If the topic "Diamonds: Earning Money" is selected, here are some possible questions:

Is money important in your life? Why?

What is the easiest way of earning money?

What do you think about lottery? Etc.

However, the teacher should state at the very beginning of the activity that students are not allowed to prepare yes-no questions, because by saying yes or no students get little practice in spoken language production.  Rather, students ask open-ended questions to each other so that they reply in complete sentences.

**Picture Narrating**

This activity is based on several sequential pictures. Students are asked to tell the story taking place in the sequential pictures by paying attention to the criteria provided by the teacher as a rubric. Rubrics can include the vocabulary or structures they need to use while narrating.

**Picture Describing**

Another way to make use of pictures in a speaking activity is to give students just one picture and having them describe what it is in the picture. For this activity students can form groups and each group is given a different picture. Students discuss the picture with their groups, then a spokesperson for each group describes the picture to the whole class. This activity fosters the creativity and imagination of the learners as well as their public speaking skills.

**Find the Difference**

For this activity students can work in pairs and each couple is given two different pictures, for example, picture of boys playing football and another picture of girls playing tennis. Students in pairs discuss the similarities and/or differences in the pictures.

**3. Suggestions for teachers in arranging interactive activities**

Here are some suggestions for English language teachers while teaching oral language:

* Provide maximum opportunity to students to speak the target language by providing a rich environment that contains collaborative work, authentic materials and tasks, and shared knowledge.
* Try to involve each student in every speaking activity; for this aim, practice different ways of student participation.
* Reduce teacher speaking time in class while increasing student speaking time. Step back and observe students.
* Indicate positive signs when commenting on a student's response.
* Ask eliciting questions such as "What do you mean? How did you reach that conclusion?" in order to prompt students to speak more.
* Provide written feedback like "Your presentation was really great. It was a good job. I really appreciated your efforts in preparing the materials and efficient use of your voice…"
* Do not correct students' pronunciation mistakes very often while they are speaking. Correction should not distract student from his or her speech.
* Involve speaking activities not only in class but also out of class; contact parents and other people who can help.
* Circulate around classroom to ensure that students are on the right track and see whether they need your help while they work in groups or pairs.
* Provide the vocabulary beforehand that students need in speaking activities.
* Diagnose problems faced by students who have difficulty in expressing themselves in the target language and provide more opportunities to practice the spoken language.
* Before deciding on what type of classroom interaction you want to use for a particular lesson activity, think about whether the goal of the activity is fluency or accuracy. In fluency-oriented activities, you will want the students to be able to speak without much interruption. The point of fluency activities is to encourage the students to use as much language as they know in order to communicate fluidly without halting. The point of accuracy-oriented activities is the opposite. You want students to focus on a particular point, usually grammar or vocabulary, and focus on getting it right. In accuracy [exercises](http://www.ehow.com/sports/), the flow is not as important as pronouncing or saying the target vocabulary or grammar correctly.
* Another key part of classroom interaction is teacher feedback. In order to improve, students must get feedback and correction. During accuracy exercises, you may choose to correct students right away, while during fluency exercises you may want to simply listen and jot down any glaring mistakes. You can give feedback orally or in writing. Sometimes you may want to correct an individual student in front of other students, while at other times it is better to offer general suggestions and corrections for the entire group. When giving feedback, always bear in mind the cultural context, as some students may not be comfortable receiving individual correction in front of their peers.

Therefore, it is essential that language teachers pay great attention to teaching speaking. Rather than leading students to pure memorization, providing a rich environment where meaningful communication takes place is desired. With this aim, various speaking activities such as those listed above can contribute a great deal to students in developing basic interactive skills necessary for life. These activities make students more active in the learning process and at the same time make their learning more meaningful and fun for them.

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