

**THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIAL
EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN**

**ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
METHODOLOGY
(theory and practice)**

Coursebook

for students of specialized departments of the universities and institutes

TASHKENT-2014

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ
ВАЗИРЛИГИ**

ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ ЎҚИТИШ МЕТОДИКАСИ (назария ва амалиёт)

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МИНИСТЕРСТВО ВЬСШЕГО И СРЕДНЕ- СПЕЦИАЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ
РЕСПУБЛИКИ УЗБЕКИСТАН**

МЕТОДИКА ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА (теория и практика)

Учебник для студентов языковых факультетов высших
учебных заведений

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practice). – Tashkent: Uzbekistan, 2014.

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

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Дарслик инглиз тили факультетлари талабаларининг касбий компетенциясини шакллантиришга мўлжалланган. У уч қисмдан иборат: (1) чет тилларни ўқитиш қисқача тарихи ва назарияси, (2) нутқ малакаларини ўргатиш ва (3) ўқув жараёнини ташкил этиш

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Учебник предназначен для студентов факультетов английского языка по овладению профессиональной компетенцией. Он состоит из трех разделов: (1) Краткий обзор истории и теории преподавания иностранному языку, (2) обучение коммуникативным умениями (3) организация процесса обучения.

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PREFACE

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

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

The book offers comprehensive and practical overview of current theoretical and practical approaches to foreign language teaching in-training English teachers.

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

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

The authors are personally indebted to Gavhar Tojiev, Zamira

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Because of the first step in writing such kind of textbooks in the English language the authors will be thankful for any critical notes by the side of English teachers.

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ЧТЕНИЯ.....

Part I. THEORETICAL AND HISTORICAL ISSUES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

CHAPTER I. Linguo- didactic requirements to learning, teaching, and assessment of English as a general education target subject at school, academic lyceum and college

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

Questions to be discussed

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

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

1.1. Document of “Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning. Teaching. Assessment”

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

The CEFR document is the result of a need for a common international framework for language learning facilitated co- operation among educational institutions in different countries. It was demanded to create a single and integrated educational space in Modern languages² teaching/ learning and

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

²Note: By the Modern languages they understand the foreign languages which are widely used for

international standards of language assessment in European countries. The main function of this document was to provide a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum, guidelines, examination, and textbooks across Europe. It also provided a method of assessing and teaching which was applied to all Modern languages in Europe.

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

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

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

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

C2	Mastery	Proficient user
C1	Effective Operational Proficiency	

international communication.

B2	Vantage	Independent user
B1	Threshold	
A1	Waystage	Basic user
A2	Breakthrough	

In the CEFR the cultural context is observed in the language setting. Cultural context proposes taking into consideration the specifics of national condition of teaching and learning Modern languages, and the national-cultural features of the adjoined languages (learned and native languages). Acquiring each stage successively learners have real opportunity to communicate with people of other language contexts.

1.2. Descriptors in the CEFR

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

Table 1: Common Reference Levels (global)

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

⁴ Ibid. - P.8.

	very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning. Can express him/ her fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex texts on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/ her field of specialization. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected texts on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/ her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/ herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/ she lives, people he/ she knows and things he/ she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

The scales given in the table are global and they are not exhaustive,

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

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

Teaching and learning FL under the CEFR is based on the competence-based teaching. This approach is an educational movement that refers to the outcomes of learning in the development of language programs and language skills of students. The essence of this approach is a new content-based on forming and developing a set of learners' competences. The process of acquiring this content brings action-oriented character. Language use, embracing language learning, comprises the actions performed by learners who as individuals and as social agents develop a range of competences, both general and particular all components of the communicative competence. The core of this approach is interpreted as students draw on the competences at their disposal in various contexts under various conditions and under various constraints to engage in language activities involving language processes to produce and/or receive texts in relation to themes in specific domains, activating those strategies which seem most appropriate for carrying out the tasks to be accomplished⁵. The monitoring of these actions by the participants leads to the reinforcement or modification of their competences.

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

⁵ Using the CEFR: Principles of Good Practice. - CUP, 2011. - P.14.

worked out⁶.

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

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

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

The domestic multistage model of continuous and successive FLT includes the following levels of FL⁷ given in the Table 2.

Table 2. The stages and levels of FL

Educational stage	Classes	Levels according to CEFR
Primary and secondary education	1- 4 forms at school	A1
	5- 9 forms at school	A2
	Language- oriented schools	A2+
Special secondary education	Academic lyceum 1- 3 courses	B1
	Vocational colleges	
	Language- oriented academic lyceums	B1+
Higher education	Bachelor degree non- linguistic institutes and universities	B2
	Master degree non- linguistic institutes and universities	
	The second language in Bachelor and Master degree institutions and universities	
	Bachelor degree linguistic institutes and universities	C1

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

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

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

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

The domestic model of education has the following advantages:

1) Introducing the primary and post-graduate education, that contributes to work out the successive structure and content of FLT. Succession provides systematic and continuous content in FLT, an absence in doubling transitive components of FLT content from one stage to another one.

Multistage and gradual character of the process of cognition is reflected in the FL progress. But at the same time the post-graduate education is not stopped, this model is intended to the life-long independent-learning (self-study) of FL.

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

3) Localization of EL teaching and learning materials. English teaching materials come from different places, where English is a native or an official language, or a foreign language. Material from these countries does not reflect the learning style, cultural values and local conditions of Uzbekistan, as a result, students' motivation suffers and they become reluctant to interact in class and share opinions or ideas. Localization of the EL teaching and learning methodology and teaching materials is based on the idea that relevant contexts and balance between local and foreign cultural concepts and images naturally can improve ELT. The new model of education has required creation of new curriculums, syllabuses and textbooks accordingly local and foreign contexts to provide rich opportunity for teachers to explain non-native cultural items, in addition of using localized content. It is very important for teachers to identify ways to best represent local culture and explain non-native elements. Besides it is necessary to use humanizing material as "activities which help to make the language learning process a more affective experience" and finding ways of helping the learners to connect what is in the book to what is in their minds"⁸. Thus, it is necessary to

⁸ Tomplison B. Humanizing the Coursebook. / In: Methodology and Material Design in Language Teaching:

humanize the teaching and materials.

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

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

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

Within this scope, the efforts of teachers and learners at all levels of education are encouraged and supported by developing appropriate methods and teaching materials, appropriate forms and instruments for the evaluating of learning programs. "Research and development programs leading to the introduction, at all educational levels, of methods and materials best suited to enabling different classes and types of student are promoted to acquire a communicative proficiency appropriate to their specific needs"⁹ So in

Language Centre, 2003. - P.13

⁹ Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning. Teaching. The Council of Europe. - Strasbourg, 1996. The final draft was published in 2001. - P.3.

obtaining a communicative proficiency the importance of methods and teaching materials play an important role.

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

In methodology the term “competence” is used as characteristics of the achieved level of the language proficiency. This term was introduced by N. Chomsky¹⁰ to define an ability to fulfill some activity. D. Hymes introduced the concept of communicative competence as the ability to use the language they are learning appropriately in a given social encounter¹¹. This idea was taken by M. Canale and M. Swain, who developed and elaborated a model of communicative competence¹². Then Van Ek applied it to FL acquisition and turned it into a fundamental concept in the development of communicative language teaching. In other words, with regard to FLT the term “competence” was developed in the frame of the researches done by the Council of Europe to ascertain the level of language proficiency. It was defined as ability for fulfillment of some activity with the help of acquired knowledge, skills and experience. In the CEFR we can see models and domains of general and communicative competences the learner must acquire.

The aim of communicative methodology is to acquire the necessary sub-skills and skills to communicate in socially and culturally appropriate ways, that demands to focus on functions, role playing and real situations and other aspects in the learning process. That's why a communicative competence breaks down into major components of knowledge: 1) knowledge of the language and 2) knowledge of how to use the language. To be able to

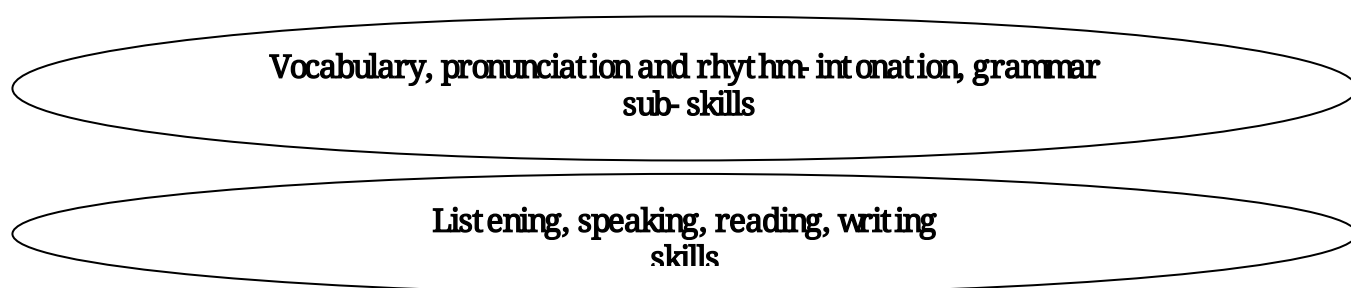
¹⁰ Chomsky N. Syntactic Structures. - Mouton: The Hague, 1957; Chomsky N. Aspects of Theory of Syntax - Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 1965.

¹¹ Hymes D. Models of the Interaction of Language and Social Setting.// Journal of Social Issues. 1967, 23 (2). - Pp.8- 38; Hymes D. On Communicative Competence./ In Pride J.B., Holmes J. (eds.). Sociolinguistics: Selected Readings. - Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1972. - Pp.269- 293.

¹² Canale M, Swain M Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing// Applied Linguistics. 1980, 1 (1). - Pp. 1- 48.

communicate, people need communicative skills. But for this purpose a learner must acquire language sub- skills (vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar) which can be appropriately used during representation of language (communicative) skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing (see Figure 1). H.G. Widdowson states that “Someone knowing a language knows more than how to understand, speak, read and write sentences. He also knows how sentences are used to communicative effect” and “the learning of a language involves acquiring the ability to compose correct sentences”¹³.

Figure 1. Language/ communicative sub- skills and skills



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

H.G. Widdowson distinguished two aspects of performance: 1) *usage* is one aspect which makes evident the context rules, 2) *use* is another aspect which makes evident the context of which the language user demonstrate his/ her ability to use knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication¹⁴. Both these aspects of performance are required as “linguistic performance involves the simultaneous manifestation of the

¹³ Widdowson H.G. Teaching Language and Communication. - OUP, 2011.

¹⁴ Widdowson. Ibid.

language system as usage and its realization as use”¹⁵.

In the scientific literature on methodology various models of communicative competence¹⁶ have been presented. But in the current interpretation the communicative competence includes linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, strategic, socio-cultural, and social competences¹⁷.

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

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

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

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

¹⁵ Widdowson. Ibid.

¹⁶ Celce-Murcia M Rethinking the role of Communicative Competence in language Teaching/ Soler E.A., Safond Jorda M.P. (eds.). Intercultural language Use and Language Learning. - Springer, 2007. - Pp.41- 58.

¹⁷ Van Ek J. Objectives for Foreign languages learning. Council of Europe. - Strasbourg, 1986. - Pp.33- 65.

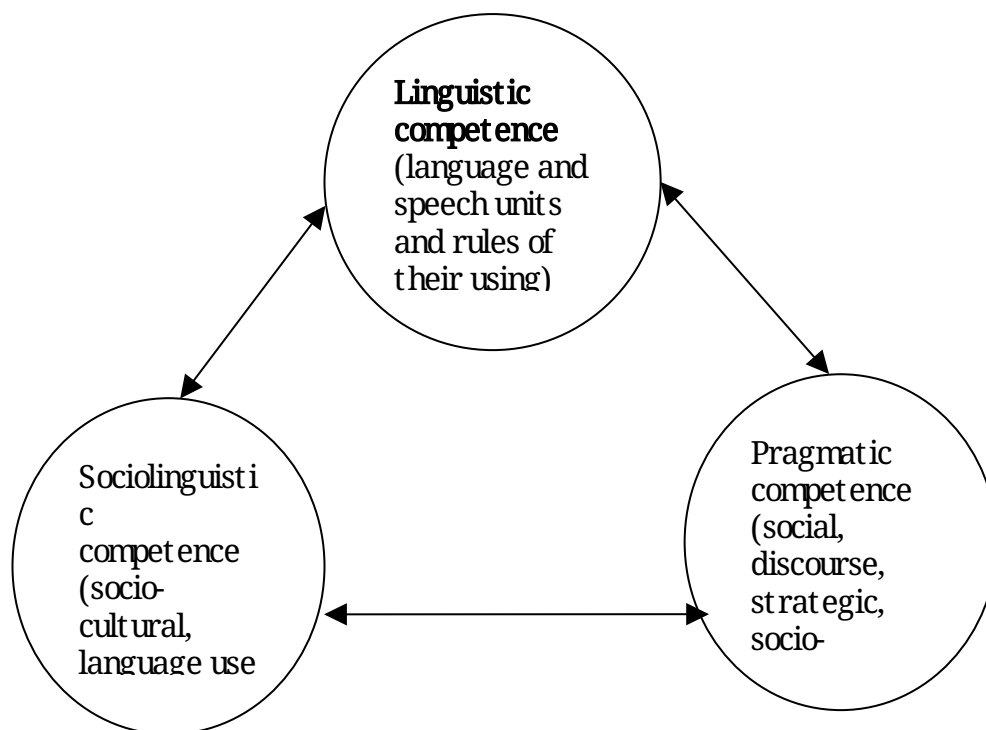
5) *Socio-cultural competence*. every language is situated in a socio-cultural context and implies the use of a particular reference frame which is partly different from that of the FL learner; socio-cultural competence presupposes a certain degree of familiarity with that context. Socio-cultural competence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

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

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

In our model the linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences are given (See Figure 2). Sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences envelop the other ones (discourse, socio-cultural, strategic, social competences) interrelated between each other. Pragmatic competence concerns the knowledge of the functions or illocutionary forces imply in the utterance/ discourse that are intended to be understood and produced, as well as the socio-contextual factors, strategies of communication that effect its appropriateness. It involves knowledge of cultural factors such as the rules of behavior that exist in the target language community as well as cross-cultural awareness, including differences and similarities in intercultural communication.

Figure 2. The domestic model of the Communicative competence



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

Questions and tasks:

1. What is the goal of the CEFR?
2. What do we mean by descriptors in the CEFR?
3. Why do we adapt the CEFR to the national context of Uzbekistan?
4. What terms are used for descriptors?
5. Can we say that we enter the international education space implementing the CEFR?

6. How can competence-based approach in the ELT be realized in the teaching documents?

7. What components does communicative competence include?

8. What are differences in terms “usage” and “use” as aspects of language performance?

Tasks:

1. Think about effectiveness of implementation of the CEFR in Uzbekistan. Make a brief report.

2. Speak about stages of the domestic model of education.

3. Discuss in the group the principles of the domestic multistage model of EL teaching and learning.

4. Analyse the content and requirements of the State Educational Standard on ELT¹⁸ in the term of knowledge, skills and teaching material. Summarize and find out the progress in the results of education at schools, academic lyceums and colleges.

Independent work:

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

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

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

3. www.coe.int;

4. www.cambridgeesol.org;

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

¹⁸ Ўзбекистон Республикаси ўзлуксиз таълим тизимининг Давлат стандарти / Халқ таълим 4/ 2013. - Б. 8-32.

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

6. English Profile: www.englishprofile.org

7. IELTS: www.ielts.org

2. Study the given below information about interactive competence (taken from the work by Celce-Murcia¹⁹). What components of communicative competence are related to the interactive competence?

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

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

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

**Non-verbal/paralinguistic competence* includes: 1) *kinesics* (body language),

¹⁹ Celce-Murcia M Rethinking the role of Communicative Competence in language Teaching/ Soler E.A., Safond Jorda MP. (eds). Intercultural language Use and Language Learning. - Springer, 2007. - Pp.48- 49.

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

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

2. Aims of teaching English at school, lyceum and college

The questions to be discussed

- 2.1. The category “aims of teaching and learning English”
- 2.2. Practical and cultural up aims of EL teaching and learning
- 2.3. Educational and developmental aims of EL teaching and learning

Key terms: aim; objective, means, practical; educational; cultural; developmental; skill; language units; motivation, performance

2.1. The category “aims of teaching and learning English”

Any kind of aim comes out according to the need. Aim is the plod of the planned result and consequence of imagination. If one asked why English is taught at school it may be answered that it is taught according to practical, educational, cultural and developmental aims. Educational aims are the social order-task and it is oriented to formation and bringing up comprehensive intelligent person. Aims of teaching English have always been under discussion in different methodological works. In the second half of the last century the terms practical, educational and cultural aim of teaching and learning English have been explained according to requirements of society²⁰. In the 80s another term developmental aim of teaching appeared²¹. Detailed analyses of this term was given by the great methodist G.V.Rogova²².

According to requirements of State educational standards the main aim of teaching a foreign language is to form communicative competence of learners in all levels in the aim of making them possible to express their ideas in daily, scientific and professional activities. Competences are divided into several groups linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic, accordingly we'll look through aims of teaching a foreign language. All these competences are directed to the usage of mastered knowledge, ability and skills in practical aim. Aims of teaching English are determined by the requirements of school, lyceum and college syllabus to the final level of knowledge, skills and habits of the students are to acquire as a result of learning the English language.

Aims of the English language teaching are influenced by the tasks of all-round development of a personality and up-bringing of students as well as by requirements of the syllabus of a certain type of educational stage.

There are four aims of English language teaching. They are:

²⁰ Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. // Под ред. Рахманова И.В., Миролюбова А.А., Цетлин В.С. – М: Просвещение, 1967. - С. 19- 37.

²¹ Программы средней школы Иностранные языки – М: Просвещение, 1983. - С. 2.

²² Рогова Г.В., Верещагина И.Н. Методика обучения английскому языку на начальном этапе в средней школе. – М: Просвещение, 1988. - С. 34- 37.

- Practical;
- Cultural (bringing up);
- Educational;
- Developmental.

2.2. Practical and cultural aims of EL teaching and learning

The idea of the **practical aim** is to provide a sufficient level of knowledge and speech habits and skills (in reading, writing, speaking, listening) as well as some experience of independent work so that to enable school leavers to go on with their studies on their own.

According to the syllabus, practical command of a foreign language is specified in two aspects:

- 1) to teach a foreign language as a means of communication within the limits of the situations determined by the syllabus;
- 2) to read texts without a dictionary and more difficult ones – with the help of a dictionary.

There are several ideas about meaning of methodical term “practical” among teachers. There are also some false opinions that practice is “oral speech” or “speaking”. Besides that we can meet such explanations as to get language in practice is to grasp the meaning of other’s speech and get across an idea. On the secondary educational EL course the main objective of practical teaching of language is to obtain a reading skill, i.e. to get information by reading. School leavers should be available to have reading skills in the foreign language. This is the main objective. The intermediate aim can be different. In teaching process or tutorials speaking can be taught as intermediate aim. For instance, at the primary stage oral speech is taught as an objective. At the same time reading and writing are also taught but they are considered as a means.

Now the need of clarifying the opposition of the terms “objective” and “means” emerges. If speech is the means of communication, it should be studied in general practical objective of learning. Any type of speech activity identifies the private practical objective in final or medium level of ambition. For instance communication in the first period of teaching English language is learnt as primary practical objective whereas in upper forms reading usurps the role of communication. In all forms listening is learnt as secondary private practical objective. Another type of speech activity- writing is considered to be the means of teaching language in all forms. The meaning of the term “means” is “assistance in mastering other types of speech activity”. For example, language materials which are learnt will be fixed, revised in writing.

The term objective can be identified as the following. In order to get the title of speech activity type, first of all, there should be educational content (speech topic, speech skills and language materials) second of all, the language materials initially should be learnt in this type of speech activity and thirdly, great force and time should be spent on this, and fourth one, the majority of exercises should be done in this type of speech activity. For example, at the beginning stage speaking is taught by a special theme and language material, in higher stage reading is the same position as speaking. Speaking topics of the beginning stage and lexical grammar materials are revised and fixed by reading and writing. Recommended methodical criteria are enough for interpretation of practical aim. If it is not conformed four methodical criteria in teaching speech activities it will be deprived from its aim's position, and can be considered as the means of teaching. The English language grammar phenomenon “article” can be taken as an example. Article can be taught in the following activities of speech: listening, speaking, writing and reading. The first and the second of activities of speech are the special aim of teaching and the rest of them are the means of teaching. There arises

a logical question, why are the language materials mastered in all types of speech activities. The issue is that the more analyzers in mastering English language units are used the more dynamic stereotype will be fixed.

To understand the aims of education helps us to find out the general strategy of teaching process. Aim is carried out while doing lessons and self-study tasks by solving many exact tasks. Solving tasks comprise educational tactics. Educational tasks consist of practical work which is done by pupils (to understand, to express one's idea, to learn language items etc.).

To master English (obtaining practical aim) plays the role of the base and condition during solving educational aims. In brief, practical aim of learning English means to get necessary information and share it with others. The received information is used to develop learners' knowledge and to educate them

As we know education and bringing up have always been in common. **Cultural aim** (bringing up) makes a substantial contribution:

- to the developing pupils' linguistic outlook, as they get acquainted with some phenomena which are not typical of their mother-tongue (e.g. tenses, articles, EL word order);
- to developing the pupils' communicative abilities;
- to widening the pupils' communicative vision of the world, as it makes them acquainted with the life, customs and traditions of the people whose language they study;
- to imply developing the pupils' intellect, his voluntary and involuntary memory, his imaginative abilities, logical thinking, etc.

The cultural aim is realized within:

- critical, patient and creative attitudes to yourself and others, to a new culture, event, knowledge;
- the development of different character traits, outlooks, beliefs, moral-

esthetic and emotional experience, different kinds of motivation and the abilities to use them to contribute successfully into the process of real and pedagogical communication;

- the development of the awareness of the new activities, new people civilizations;
- the development of the desire to cooperate and socialize;
- the keeping cultural traditions of your own country and understanding and respect others'; to compare different cultures, to express a personal point of view on other cultures, problems as well as to use the knowledge, got from learning other subjects.

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

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

In the science of methodic cultural aim of teaching the English language is described as giving pupils ideological-political culture, formation of skills to brainwork, developing their knowledge activity. Bringing up aim can be performed by these two ways. The first one is observation pupils' training in teaching process.

The second methodic way of finding a means of cultural aim is regarded using language materials. For example, being respective to the conversation partner during talk, using polite words and phrases (thank you, you are welcome and etc) reciting poems, dialogues together to interpret his or his

friends activity in English language. These activities lead the pupils to culture.

The news taken from English audio or graphical text is one of the unequal means of methodic. The idea of texts should coincide with the content of programme and be demanded to satisfy bringing up needs of pupils.

At the primary years of teaching new information is delivered on basing micro texts, at the high levels the extract of manuals related to artistic, political, bringing up and sport events are given to read and the information which described in these books is useful to pupils and improve their background knowledge. There are lots of extracts of textbooks and manuals which educate pupils with high- principled- political ideas. The content of the texts about great thinkers (intellectuals) culture specialists, scientists, spacemen, heroes of labor gives positive results on training pupils. The graphics and audio text regarding the dates which are shown separately in the calendar have great educative influence too.

Cultural aim can be carried out in the process out- of - class activities, group circles organized in the class of foreign language.

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

English language is the main factor in providing different deals related to the types of bringing up. Textbook are considered the primary means of pedagogic.

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

The cultural aim of learning a foreign language intends to form students' world outlook, ideological conviction, patriotism, morality, self-responsibility and occurring around and aesthetic and spiritual development of the individual. To achieve this goal it is necessary to use all means: contents (the presence of various problems), organizations (discussion of these issues

and their interpretation). The potential here is unlimited, it is important not only to limit to good intentions but to identify concrete ways to implement them both during lessons and in extra-curricular work.

2.3. Educational and developmental aims of EL teaching and learning

Educational aim promotes formation of such features of character as diligence and abilities for independent work, persistence, concentration, inquisitiveness. Educational aims are also realized within the process of achieving practical aims and presuppose to contribute to:

- all-round development of a personality;
- widening the pupils; world outlook;
- moral education.

Educational aims can be achieved by means of:

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

After the Decree of our President the English language has begun to be taught in the first form at schools. As one of the compulsory subjects the English language contributes to the general education. The result and process of teaching the English language has educational importance. Apart from getting information with the help of English, language units develops intellect, new phenomena are considered interesting for pupils further more it enriches language experience.

Students come across with the events which are not in their native language. For instance, complex form of verb tenses, polysyny of words,

phonetic segments of pronunciation in native or second language. Many linguistic features are similar in different languages. Learning the difference and similarities helps to develop the knowledge of pupils. Students get knowledge about the culture, history, literature, and traditional customs of learned language. A cumulative duty of language is blessed as a treasure culture of people.

While acquiring communicative purpose of English language learners can see a “performance” of their own language (mother tongue and foreign language) in the mirror of this language. In the initial stage of the learning more attention is given to acquire phonetic, lexical and grammatical units of language in the process of oral speech. While in the upper stage to collect graphic and audio text in English language helps learners to acquire news of life. Thus a pupil, while learning English language in educational aim, he reaches to obtain educational information two kind of maintenance. The first kind of information consist of rules which emphasize materials learning English language, concept and database about particularity of language occurrence ordinary knowledge which acquired from language learning completely differ from deep theoretical system. The simple knowledge acquired about the language greatly differs from the deep theoretical system and it shouldn't be too theoretical. It is considered as a methodic rule that simple theory is enough for raising speech skills. It is necessary not to forget the motto “we teach speaking in foreign language (not the collection of knowledge)” which is acknowledged by teachers and emphasized in scientific literatures. General educational materials on mother tongue and second language are widely learned than English language. But nowadays we should take into consideration that teaching English begins from the early stage.

Educational aim of learning English language helps learners to develop

their logical thinking, to improve memory and to raise the level of knowledge and general culture. Due to the study of English language learners master the language events as real facts in speech. While learning English language in the mode of conversation learners get the content plan by language means. We may conclude that general educational object is divided into three parts: language occurrence, concept and rules and content of speech. They have certain scope and measures. The only aim of English language teaching is to manage speech activity according to appears to exchange information. But the material used in speech becomes practical knowledge, deriving knowledge in the shape of abstract system of simple rules.

Thus knowledge of rules, language units and the content of the texts is considered as gaining general education.

General education is fulfilled by practical cognition of the English language. Practical cognition is related as the main way of cultural aim of teaching.

As the above mentioned **developmental aim** of teaching English language is recently admitted as a scientific category in methodology of teaching foreign languages. However, it is very difficult to find, relevant methodic materials related to this objective. There is brief information about the developmental aim in the book written by G.V. Rogova and I.N. Vereshagina.

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

- to develop his creativity, intellectual and cognitive abilities;
- to develop different types of memory (visual/ audio, short/ long-termed, voluntary/ involuntary), attention, skills, necessary for creative activities;
- to develop mechanisms of anticipation, predicting, guessing, etc.;
- to develop the learners' initiative, logical thinking. These are abilities concerning to start, to go on and to finish their communication are.

Developmental aims develop creativity, intellectual and cognitive abilities of a person. They are achieved by means of different problem-solving tasks, guessing games, etc.

Appearance the fourth aim of education, the methodic term “developmental” unanimous with modern life. The name of this aim came into being through an imitative way to the conception developing method. There is no such kind of method in teaching languages but this term has been appeared in the scientific method as the name of the developing aim of teaching a foreign language. The conception “developmental aim” began to express student’s mental, emotional and motivated aspects. It means that to raise student's intellectual level from lower stage to upper one, to make progress in mental aspect, to develop by implication, to provide growing up mentally in positive meaning are the first task implementing of this aim. Secondly while learning English language the developmental aim considers to develop learners’ feelings of senses and analyzers. Thirdly, we can submit to foster internal hit and to activate it to the line of function of the aim. So, developing is accepted as the meaning to raise mind, emotion and motivation to the higher degree.

There are sacred and complicated pedagogical actions to educate learners to bring them up and help a pupil to be perfect person while possessing English language practically. According to the acknowledgments of psychologists and educators, if only learners are thought to settle difficulties due to process of studying, it will be possible to develop their mentality quickly. Person's maturity depends on not only progress of thoughts, but development of person's emotion too.

In the science of FL methodology it is substantiated that to perform students’ emotions and motivation is very important. As a result motivation of learning English language rises and studying process gets meaningful and

significant. All these cause developmental aim to take considerable place in the English language programme.

In the introductory explanation of national curriculum it is emphasized that educational training and developmental object of teaching English language appears harmoniously.

Person's social activity is defined according to the degree of appearing qualifications and skills in the pupil's study activity.

Four types of qualifications and skills are classified in the educational sphere. They can be called organizational, mental, informational and communicative study skills and qualifications. In the study of English language, organizational skills and qualifications are made with the help of educational methodic means. This process demands the following ways confirmed in school experience: it is recommended that teacher and student, teacher and class, student and class, student and student should work together while learning the English language. It will be more significant to provide independent work of pupils in the language laboratories, to record and listen to their recordings, to read at home and to do homework (especially in written form) helps to form qualifications and skills, correct their mistakes and observe their speech by listening. In this case, the expected result will come into being with the help of using tests as an experienced way of control. Nowadays inculcation of computer and new technologies are giving much effect in the self assessment. All of these are supposed to form organizational skills and qualifications during the educational process.

To develop intellectual skills and qualifications the following can be recommended. During the possessing of speech activity, abstract sides of language unities (rules) are learned as thought's production. For example, simple theoretical concept and description are formed with the help of speech samples in learning. Language occurrence makes movement and turn into

ideological point from materiality. Mental activities like differentiating language occurrences from each other, generalizing, separating, uniting and systematizing are done. Learners take steps forward intellectual perfection in vocabulary by formation of nouns, adjectives, adverbs and other language units, learning antonym, synonym and polysemy. Learning grammatical occurrence (e.g. formation of plural nouns, forms of the verb, the usage of modal verbs) and abstractions effect fruitfully on the personality of the pupil.

In the process of speech activity e.g. to get information by reading or listening text, i.e. to answer the questions which leads to understand the meaning, to show the attitude towards received information and etc. compose intellectual skills and qualifications.

Mostly developing informational skills and qualification occurs when the information is taken through reading. Reading textbooks and in advanced levels additional periodical publication materials is regarded the source of information. Besides getting information, pupils will be busy with many activities as looking for answers before reading texts, looking up dictionaries, learning margined explanation connected with language, using grammatical reference. These educational activities are in help of possession educational-informational skills and qualifications.

The next class of educational skills and qualifications is related with communication. Being engaged in the types of speech activity (speaking, listening, reading and writing) is to say communication, as it is expressed according to psycholinguistics. Speaking in English language a pupil uses amazing methods of explaining ideas orally. Giving proof in foreign language, convincing, accepting or not accepting, supporting or opposing can be good instances for educational skills and qualifications.

Through developing above mentioned classes as organizational,

educational, informational and communicational skills and qualifications pupils can be more active. The developmental aim comes about due to speech activity. The great difference of developmental aim from educational objective is that achieving information and education are interconnected in thought; the meaning of information and the process getting it are included in the cycle of developmental aim. Education is considered as the part of development.

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

Table 3. Aims of EL teaching and learning

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

Questions:

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

Tasks:

1. Identify practical, educational, cultural and developmental aims of any lesson's topic, for instance "My favorite writer".
2. Here are some questions to be discussed. Read them and give your own opinions.

What do you think...

- *The main focus in a language class should be on meaning or on grammar.
- *Language learners need immediate or long-term rewards.
- *The language classroom should have plenty of meaningful or rote learning.
- *A teacher's feedback to the student should be given frequently or infrequently, so students will develop independence.
- *A communicative class should give special attention to accuracy or fluency.
- *Language learners learn best by using plenty of analyses or intuition.

Independent work:

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

1. <http://mousavia.CurrentTrends> in the Teaching
2. <http://www.cuc.edu>. Principles_of_Language_Learning_and_Teaching
3. www.cuhk.edu.hk/ajelt; <http://www.chineseupress.com/>

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

The questions to be discussed

- 3.1. Theoretical problems content of teaching English
- 3.2. Content components of teaching English
- 3.3. Content of teaching language material

3.4. The content of ELT at school, lyceum, college

Key terms: content; language material; language minimum, cultural; developmental; skill; subskill; language units; motivation; performance

3.1. Theoretical problems content of teaching English

Content of the ELT or what to teach is one of the main problems the methodology deals with. Content of the ELT has its scientific category, theoretical and practical features, historical sources which always have been in the centre of attention of researchers. Studying the content of education shows that while being researched actively theoretical points content of English language teaching have been explained differently by scholars²³. In the teaching process there are different ideas of Methodists on the problem what to teach and mostly they are opposite to each other. There are two problems on this issue, the first one – what should be taught is answered content of teaching, right but common answer. What is the content of teaching itself?

The issue of the content components of teaching the English language is considered one of the significant investigations. Content components are connected with the aim of teaching the English language. Aim determines the content that is if it is convinced that the content is gained during the lessons as well the result of these lessons take to the aim. The practical aim teaching English clarify how to use some particular language materials as well as gaining the experience, but there are some exact limits so as to solve

²³ Рогова Г.В. Содержание обучения иностранному языку // Иностранные языки в школе, 1974, № 3; Шатиришвили Ш.А. Основы содержания обучения иностранным языкам в национальной школе. –Тбилиси: Изд-во Тбилисского ун-та, 1981; Лапидус Б.А. Проблемы содержания обучения языку в языковом вузе. –М.: ВШЭ, 1986; Джалалов Д.Д. Проблемы содержания обучения иностранному языку. –Ташкент: - Фан 1987.

methodological problems. So, the area (topic) of speech is defined. There are three phenomena such as, themes of speech (subjective side of the speech), language skills and subskills and language materials, which play a major role for improving the content of teaching English.

The complicated term “content teaching of a foreign language” sometimes is called by researchers differently and they try to explain with other terms instead. Also the researchers add some other new concepts, besides aforementioned terms (terms of parts) to the area “content of teaching”. For instance, texts, and exercises. We come across with foreign unfamiliar notions in the works of researchers²⁴.

Some Methodists recommend language and speech materials separately²⁵. Most Methodists think that educational categories such as knowledge, experience, skills should be added to the content of teaching English too. Thus, there should be a clear demand, which helps to find the opposite sides and unworthy scientific terms, which confuse the methodology, spontaneously. This problem is analyzed as follows: it can be easily proved that text cannot be added to the content of teaching. When you hear about themes of speech, remember that, the content of it should be taken into account. The theme is general determination for getting information. It can be seen that the news can be expressed or received in the text. This means, information is the content of the text, while the text describes the theme. Theme is the cause and text is the result, in its turn text is the cause and information is the result. Theme is considered one of the inseparable parts the content of teaching.

Practical aim is gained by doing exercises in teaching process. The term of “exercise” is used in two meanings. First one is methodological practices in

²⁴ Общая методика преподавания иностранных языков в средних специальных учебных заведениях: Учебное пособие/ Под ред. Миролюбова А.А. и Парахиной А.В. – М: ВПЦ 1978. - 264 с.

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

mastering types of speech. Second one is the description methodologically organized teaching unit in the manuals. Exercises taken as whole are systematized. Exercise is shaped with language material and task performing the practical aim. Materials of exercise are taken from the content of teaching. The content of teaching is the foundation, source and object of exercises.

There are some concepts, which you can not translate them from English into native. Language units are not independent; however they are abstracts the expression in knowledge of lexical, grammatical units. For example, the word “speaks” can be seen, listened to, and told as well written. If we inform that it is third person and used in present indefinite, it will be abstract. The only way is remembering. In short, “speaks” is a natural and the rule about it is abstract item. In conclusion, concepts in the English language are not added to the content of the teaching independently. Language items and rules consist of language concept in a whole.

The next problem is on the terms “language and speech items/ units”. Both of them mean language concept in speech. They are not learnt as a separate language material. Linguists, without acquiring a foreign language, deal with the units of this language. Doer of the speech activity learns a foreign language not as theoretical knowledge but as a skill and experience in mixed way.

Another debatable concept of methodic is the explanation of terms “knowledge, experience and skill”. These terms came into content teaching of a foreign language by accident which are considered stable and substantiated terms in educational system. A foreign language is activity teaching subject that’s why to consider knowledge as the part content of teaching may be wrong. Knowledge is absorbed in speech skills. That is why knowledge is not expressed in the English language, teacher does not conduct a lecture about it

and exercises are not conducted. Maybe socio-cultural knowledge - traditions and customs is given but as information source not as knowledge. The assimilation and checking of it happens in experience. Including of skills and experience in content of teaching is recognized by all Methodists. The skill is a step for experience and thus experience is considered the final.

After analyzing the scientific – methodic ideas, it should be mentioned that the content of teaching the English language includes “themes of speech”, “language skills”, and “language materials”. So content of teaching consists of three methodic concepts, which find their realization in the FL coursebooks and teaching process. The students acquire the language and speech material through a certain algorithms of operations and actions.

The content of teaching is a methodic concept intended to formation of language experience using FL units in the sphere of certain themes.

The content of teaching can be general and special. As it is determined in the State Education Standard (SES) content teaching of a foreign language consists of themes included into curriculum of schools and secondary special schools.

In all types of education the learning material should provide continuity and regularity. In the SES there is instruction what a language user can do in languages at a certain proficiency level.

3.2. Content components of teaching English

We have clarified theoretical features teaching content of a language. All above mentioned three components should be learnt. Usually the selected teaching language material is distributed and presented accounting the assimilation of learners. The steps of this process are performed with the help of certain methodic criteria. Language material is experienced through preparation and assimilation. Mother language and second language

experiences of students' are not considered in selecting period. Classification, distribution and presentation base on the students' language experience.

As it is mentioned in the SES the main aim of teaching a FL is the formation and development of communicative competence of a learner as a result of the education (see Chapter 1, 1.4). Communicative competence of the learner is proved by using learnt material in real life communication process.

In many courses on EL methodology the content OF ELT includes linguistic, psychological and methodical components²⁶.

Linguistic component the terms language and speech are distinguished. Language as a system of language means necessary fro communication and rules of their using.

Speech is the process of realization language system in the concrete speech acts, and also the products of this process - utterances, texts. This linguistic component presupposes selection of 1) language (lexical, grammatical, phonetic) material; 2) speech material (topics, situations and different types of texts) 3) sociocultural material.

Psychological component the language relates to the forming and developing language skills.

Methodological component includes the forms and strategies of organization of active acquiring knowledge and skills by students with the accounting language difficulties..

Linguistic and psychological components can be described in another way which was suggested by J.Jalalov²⁷. There are three components of content teaching of the English language: speech themes and situations²⁸;

²⁶ Рогова Г.В., Рабинович Ф.М., Сахарова Т.Е. Методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. - М: Просвещение, 1991. - С.36- 37; Фокина К.В., Тернова Л.Н., Костьнева Н.В. Методика преподавания иностранного языка. Конспект лекций - М: ЮРАЙТ Всплне образование, 2009. - С.54- 55.

²⁷ Jalalov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign language teaching methodology. - Т. Ўқитувчи, 2012.

²⁸ The subjective of the content of FLT in the book: Гальскова Н.Д., Гез Н.И. Методика обучения иностранным

language skills and language material. Determination of themes depends on the type of educational establishment. The second component proposes forming and developing language skills according to the curriculum requirements to a certain level of the language proficiency of students in listening, speaking, reading and writing.

It is necessary to deal with these components in detail.

Content of a FLT is based on definite principles: repetition of functions and notions; step-by-step complication of difficulties, it means that content of studying should correspond to different levels of teaching; motivation, which implies the choice of domains, situations and problems for communication, which are typical for pupils' life and close to them; potential of learning a FL gives knowledge for further improvement and using it in the communication.

Domains – spheres of communication (actions), areas of concern in which the social life is organized. There are four domains, taught at school, college and lyceum:

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

The speech themes (topics) are chosen according to the aims of teaching the English language. The themes are considered as extra linguistic socio-psychological phenomena and they have not been researched completely yet. The main reason of it there is no total combination of themes. It is a usual thing because according to the epistemology studies there is no absolute truth.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Seventhly, during the choosing process of speech themes and speech situations receiving information should be taken into account. It means that theme is connected with general speech situation but demanded information

is appointed by subthemes. Criteria: topic and situation should be considered as support of information.

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

Ninthly, there are two reasons for given speech themes firstly that most taken information in the English language depends on themes, from another side, choosing the language material is also based on themes. Criteria: the information in the English language forms the internal feature of themes so information and theme are two sides of the teaching material²⁹.

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

The information should be suitably for pupils' interest, in the educational bringing up approach and based on the materials of language directed to raise students' general level.

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

There is also a general criterion for selecting of the content of teaching the English language. Three of them are widely used in practice³⁰. The first criterion is sufficiency of fulfilling the aims. It means that chosen content services for carrying out speech skills. Theme and language material serve as a providing factor in forming experiences.

²⁹ Jalolov J.. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. –T.: O'qituvchi, 2012. - 59- 60 b.

³⁰ Теоретические основы методики обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе // Под ред. Климентенко А.Д., Миролюбов А.А. –М: Педагогика, 1981. - С 89- 90.

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

To show the methodical component we take forming listening skills for illustration. The term “auding” means hearing and comprehension. To aud means to recognize and to comprehend the content of speech. Auding is a receptive kind of language activity. It is both an aim and a means of teaching. Language comprehension (LC) as a means of teaching is used as:

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

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

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

4) a major means of teaching speaking. Psychologists and methodologists (beginning with H. Palmer) have admitted the necessity of auding coming before outstripping speaking;

5) and skills in an effective means of developing habits foreign language;

6) a means of mastering the (teaching) technique of reading aloud, as the mechanisms of reading aloud comprises also acoustic images. The year controls correctness of reading a text aloud. LC as the means of teaching

permits multiple listening of one and the same speech material; while LC as a language activity constitutes a skill of comprehending speech by ear at single (presented but once) perception (presentation).

The psychological mechanisms of auditory perception of the living speech:

Mechanism I - physical perception of speech. Mechanism II – auditory memory, i.e. ability of keeping the accepted images in memory. Short-term memory provides preservation of the coming information during the perception phase. Long-term memory preserves the articulator images of words, word-combinations, constructions, rules, which ensure comprehension. Mechanism III – mechanism of inner speech. It is of broken (interrupted) character. The more familiar the coming information is, the more broken inner speech will be. Mechanism IV – recognition on the basis of language experience, the limits of the active and passive vocabulary, intonation. Mechanism V – anticipation. It sets the listener to logical understanding, comprehension. Mechanism VI – Logical comprehension. It requires some interest to what is being said (to the subject), a definite tempo of mental activity, attention and concentration.

Difficulties of listening and comprehension of the living speech and factors influencing the success of LC. According to some scholars auding is influenced by following factors:

- Inner factors: (interest, level of attention and concentration, conviction of significance of the information, degree of development of phonemic memory, individual peculiarities of pupils' quick-wittedness, reaction and quick transfer from one intellectual operation to another, etc) which are strictly personal;
- Outer factors (the linguistic structure of an audio-text, its content, some situational factors).

Some methodologists specify some other difficulties of auding – psychological extralinguistic and extralinguistic ones.

I. To the extra aural (linguistic) difficulties we refer:

- The volume of the auditory memory;
- Kind of speech to be listened to;
- Tempo of speech. From the very beginning tempo of speech must be normal (within the limits of 200- 250 syllables/ min);
- The number of presentation and the volume of an utterance. The volume and character of a text for LC in junior forms – descriptive texts consisting of 3- 6 sentences (1- 2 min.), at the intermediate stage – 10- 15 sentences (2- 3 min.), in senior forms – 20- 25 sentences (3 min.);
- Peculiarities of the speaker's timbre;
- Props and reference – points of perception:
 - a) semantic (intonation, rhythm, pauses, logical stress, parenthetical phrases);
 - b) formal props (pictures, title);
 - c) visual verbal props (voc. notes).

II. The linguistic difficulties are:

- a) phonetic (phonemic oppositions, or contrast sounds: short-long, voiced-voiceless, different intonation patterns and their meaning), tempo, indistinct (defective) pronunciation;
- b) lexical (antonyms, lexical constructions, interruptions etc are difficult to comprehend); homonyms, paronyms;
- c) grammatical (tense forms, elliptical words and sentences, analytical forms);
- d) compositional structure of a text (description or narration or reflection, the beginning or the end of the story);
- e) structural peculiarities of a text;
- f) the presence of proper names, geographical names, terms;
- g) a major linguistic difficulty is the extension of sentences in a text for LC. The more complicated the syntax of a sentence is, the more difficult it is to

comprehend it, because it requires a retentive short en memory. (7+- 2 lexical units deep);

h) peculiar stylistic devices, implication, dialectical words (dialectisms), slang words, jargonisms, euphemisms.

Modern methodological literature contains directions as to usage and influence of a context in comprehension of a text. It may be of 3 kinds:

- favourable;
- neutral;
- unfavourable.

Favourable influence is produced by a text, which:

- * Is interesting to the pupils of a particular age- group from the point of view of emotional colouring;
- * Has a simple plot;
- * Is logically characterized by the development of events;
- * Is free from too many details;
- * Doesn't contain too many proper and geographical names, terminology;
- * Has but several evidently unfamiliar words distributed, preferably presented not at the beginning of the text or a context (Context is a sentence or a group of sentences united by a sense – common idea).

3.3. Content of teaching language material

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

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

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

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

Potential vocabulary belongs to the first one and can be divided into the following subtypes: 1. Form and meaning are common in the English language and in mother tongue (club- klub, tennis- tennis); 2. Form and meaning are similar to second foreign language and in mother tongue (literature- литература, history- история); 3. Conversions in a foreign language (work- ishlar, ish; far- uzoq, uzoqda); 4. Parts of the word taught before (bookshop, schoolboy, homework); 5. Stem and affixes are familiar compound words (work+er, difficult+y); 6. Full form familiar abbreviations (UK- United Kingdom, RUz- Republic of Uzbekistan).

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

The most difficult type of lexicon causes semantic, functional and formal difficulties. They are classified as followings: polysemantic words; compound words with the unfamiliar stems; "false" similar words (magazine-

journal); champion (champions of peace-tinchlik tarafdorlari); functional words- prepositions; article; auxiliary verbs, etc).

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

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

The content of teaching grammar. Content of teaching materials of language claimed as part of teaching grammar. Content of teaching grammar contains teaching part of grammar phenomena with the help of special rules (*not exact rules but models or algorithms*) and particular exercises. We can say that each side of grammar phenomenon, or two or three of them (function, semantics, and form) can be placed in content of teaching grammar.

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

It is clear from schooling experiences that some occurrences are taught easily with respect to positive sides of experiment of language. For example, the usage of the nouns in plural, function of possessive, meaning of prepositions etc.

There exist other grammar occurrences in which mistakes are quickly resolved

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

Teachers know well that to teach the article to the pupils is very complicated since comparing to the Uzbek language the article is "alien". Indefinite article has three meanings in the pupils' reproductive speech: 1) to express unknown thing (person); 2) to express any item (event) in certain area; 3) to describe person or item who/ what that is. In learning by form the article makes following difficulties: form "a" combines units of meaning and form and being mastered without dividing. Second form "an" is learnt hardly no matter in which function you use it. Article in the English language is taken under consideration as four units (one formal and three functional) and they are part of the content of teaching grammar. Therefore in order to teach "the article" the teacher must make his pupils do at least four lessons. Teaching the most difficult grammar occurrences requires doing rational exercises and learning the rules indeed (exercises are done without the rules while learning easier grammar units concerning forth group).

The content of teaching grammar of the English language should be chosen according to the three following methodic measures: taking into consideration student's grammar experiences on the native language, basing on earned experiences of the English language and reckoning with order of grammar occurrences. These scientific measures belong to Methodist T.Q. Sattorov who researched perfectly grammar teaching matters of the English language at Uzbek schools. But anyway we shouldn't forget about grammar approximation. It means that we couldn't demand the students' perfect type of speech.

The content of teaching pronunciation. The main aim of Teaching

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

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

In its syntactical function intonation serves:

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

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

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

The general regularities of the English pronunciation:

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

By *pronunciation skills* we mean habits of phonetically correct pronunciation and recognition of all the sounds studied while listening to the speech of others.

By *rhythmical-intonation skills* we mean habits of producing intonationally and rhythmically correct speech and comprehension of the speech of others.

In order to comprehend a spoken message, four main types of knowledge may be drawn on: *phonological* – the sound system; *syntactic* – how words are put together; *semantic* – word and propositional knowledge; and *pragmatic* – the meaning of utterances in particular situations. We review these types of meaning in turn, suggesting what role they might play in the overall listening process. In addition, we consider an additional type of meaning, *kinesic* knowledge, which is conveyed by the facial and bodily movement of the speaker. This type of meaning, of course, is present only in those types of listening where the speaker is visible³¹.

Questions:

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

³¹ Second Language Listening: Theory and Practice. / John Flowerdew, Lindsay Miller (ed.). - Cambridge University Press, 2005. - 45 p.

3. What types of approximation are there in the content of teaching English?
4. What kind of criteria are there for choosing language material in the content of teaching?
5. What kind of approaches to listening do you know?
6. For specific levels of learners – elementary, intermediate, advanced – which approach to teaching listening do you consider the most suitable? Why?
7. When would an integrated approach to teaching listening be most appropriate?

Tasks:

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

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

What do you think...

- * Is vocabulary more important in communication or grammar?
- * Do the language learners need immediate or long-term rewards?
- * What is the role of motivation in teaching language material?
- * Should a communicative class give special attention to accuracy or fluency?
- * Do the language learners learn best by using plenty of analyses or intuition?

3. Explain main components the content of teaching on the basis of SES.

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

Independent work:

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

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

2. www.Content-English.org

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

2. Study the information (taken from the work by Milrud³² and Celce-Murcia³³). Give your arguments why these strategies are important for communication. Do we need mastering the strategic competence for communication? Prove your statements.

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

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

Strategic competence in the communicative aspect includes:

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

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

³² Milrud R.P. English Teaching Methodology. – M: Drofa, 2007.

³³ Celce-Murcia M Rethinking the Role of Communicative Competence in Language Teaching/ Soler E.A., Safond Jorda MP. (eds). Intercultural language Use and Language Learning. - Springer, 2007.

that?”

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

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

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

Questions to be discussed

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

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

4.1. Distinction between the main categories of methodology

In determination of methods, the distinction between “philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles and a set of derived

procedures for teaching a language, is central”³⁴.

E. Antony³⁵ identified three levels of conceptualization and organization, which he named *approach, method and technique*. According to his model: *approach* is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; *method* is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; *technique* is a level at which classroom procedures are described.

Approach is considered to be the theory about the feature of language and language learning that stands as the source of practices and principles in language teaching. J.C. Richards and Th. S. Rodgers present linguistic and psycholinguistic aspects of *approach*, as follows: a) theory of language which has three different theoretical views of language and nature of language proficiency: the structural, functional and interactional view; b) theory of language learning which associates with a method at the level of approach emphasizing either one or both of these dimensions: process oriented and condition oriented theories³⁶. The second level at which approaches and methods are treated is a design and it is a dimension specially developed for an instructional system which leads an approach to a method. At this level of method analysis objectives, language content, learning tasks and teaching activities, role of students, role of teachers and role of instructional materials are designated. And the third level of approach and methods analysis-procedure is concerned with how the tasks and activities are integrated into lessons and used as a basis for teaching and learning.

³⁴ Richards J.C., Rodgers Th. S. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Second ed. - Cambridge: CUP, 2002. - P.19.

³⁵ Antony (1963:63- 67), cited in the book: Richards J.C., Rodgers Th. S. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Second ed. - Cambridge: CUP, 2002.

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

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

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

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

In methodology the following technologies are distinguished:

- illustrative;
- dialogic;
- playing;
- problem-solving;
- project;

- case study;
- information- communication.

4.2. Communicative language teaching and learning

Communicative language teaching/ learning (CLT/ CLL) can be interpreted in many different ways and used to describe a wide variety of classroom procedures, because it refers to a diverse set of rather general and uncontroversial principles. We sum principles pointed by J.C. Richards³⁷ and basic characteristics of this approach in the Table 4. It is worth to compare their correspondence between two columns.

Table 4. Principles and basic characteristics of CLT/ CLL

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

³⁷ Richards J.C. (n.d.) 30 years of TEFL/ TESL: A Personal reflection. - Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

	goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context ³⁸ .
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Communicative approach is dominant one in teaching L2 and FL instruction and it emphasizes that language is best learned by using the communicative meaning, rather than focusing on explicit learning grammar and vocabulary, especially at schools.

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

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

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

2. Learner-centered Learning: This kind of instruction involves the giving over of some "power" in the language learning process to the learners themselves. It also strives to allow for personal creativity and input from the learners, as well as taking into account their learning needs and objectives. Learner-centered curricula are designed by considering the needs and

³⁸English4room/ info/ .

interests of students, and process-oriented syllabuses which center on procedures, tasks and content.

3. Cooperative/ Collaborative Learning essentially involves students learning from each other in groups. It has been comprised as a way of encouraging communicative instruction in the classroom and is seen as a stretch of the procedures of CLT. It is viewed as a learner-centered approach offering the advantages over teacher-fronted classroom methods, fostered competition rather than cooperation and favored majority of students. The concept of this type of learning stresses the "team" like nature of the classroom and emphasizes *cooperation* as opposed to *competition*. Learners share information and help, and achieve their learning goals as a group. Within this approach teachers teach students collaborative or social skills so that they can work together more effectively.

4. Content-based Learning as an instruction in which teaching is arranged around the content of information that students will acquire. It joins language learning to content/ subject matter and engages them both concurrently. Special information provides natural content for language instruction. Language is seen as a tool or medium for acquiring knowledge about other things, instantly proving its usefulness. An important factor in this kind of learning is that the content itself determines what language items need to be mastered, not the other way around. When learners study math or science using English as the medium, they are more intrinsically motivated to learn more of the language.

5. Task-based Learning: This type of learning proposes tasks as useful vehicles and instruction in LT. This concept equates the idea of a "learning task" to a language learning technique in itself. This could be a problem solving activity or a project, but the task should have a clear objective, appropriate content, a working/ application procedure, and a set range of

outcomes. As learners work to complete a task, they have abundant opportunity to interact. During interaction they facilitate language acquisition, they get to listen to the language which may be beyond their present ability, but which may be assimilated into their knowledge of the target language for use at a later time.

As with content-based instruction, a task-based approach aims to provide learners with a natural context for language use. One way of attaining the focus on meaning is through content- or theme-based instruction, and contemporary teaching approaches such as content-based and task-based ones which are all applications of the communicative approach at vocational colleges.

Content and language integrated learning presupposes to enhance learners' linguistic competence thanks to a higher amount of a target language exposure. Among most favorably influenced by this kind of learning is the learner's lexicon. Through receiving FL input in different content subjects learners acquire more profound knowledge and specialized terminology for their future profession. But we should take into consideration that at vocational colleges we teach 1) general English and 2) specialized English. At the same time content-based instruction is aimed to use of socially oriented themes, represents an effort to link students with the world in which students live. That's why this instruction can also be used in teaching/ learning English at academic lyceums too.

4.3. Linguo-cultural teaching and learning

For the effective intercultural communication learners should know both the language and culture. Lack of knowledge of cultural specifics has a negative impact on understanding between the representatives of different cultures. That's why, in ELT the co-teaching and co-learning the language and

culture is implemented.

Co-teaching/ co-learning language and culture focus on values and beliefs, on one hand, and attitudes and behaviors, on the other. In fact a social or cultural blunder can be far more serious than a linguistic error when one is engaged in oral communication. Even when good cultural descriptions are available, it is hard to get learners to change their native verbal behavior based on a new set of assumptions.

There are social contextual factors, stylistic appropriateness and cultural factors³⁹ which influence the norms and conventions of intercultural communication: 1) *social contextual factors*: the participants' age, gender, status, social distance and their relations to each other (e.g. Distance of power and affect); 2) *stylistic appropriateness*: politeness strategies, a sense of genres and registers; 3) *cultural factors*: background knowledge of the target language group, major dialects/ regional differences, and cross cultural awareness

Nowadays, the most accepted instructional framework in the co-teaching and learning programmes is communicative approach, whose main goal is to increase learners' communicative competence. This theoretical term means being able to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately in the target language and culture. However, it also demands integrating culture-oriented instruction. One of the variants of culture-oriented approaches is linguo-cultural teaching and learning.

A language is a means of communication and a form of culture. That's why linguo-cultural approach matches many of the goals of Communicative Language Teaching by seeking: 1) an integration of linguistic and cultural learning to facilitate communication and interaction; 2) the potential co-teaching/ co-learning language and culture to prepare learners to

³⁹ Celce-Murcia M Rethinking the role of Communicative Competence in language Teaching/ Soler E.A., Safond Jorda MP. (eds). Intercultural language Use and Language Learning. - Springer, 2007. - P.46.

communicate with the representatives of the native speakers and non-native speakers in English in an appropriate way. English has become an international language or *a lingua franca* (language-mediator), that's why the bounds of usage the EL have been extended.

From the position of linguists the linguo-cultural approach is directed to study the current condition and functioning of a language and culture in the close interrelation in the different types of discourse⁴⁰. This approach to FLT gives an opportunity to interpret the language meaning as a result of cultural experience or as units of cultural memory of people⁴¹.

Linguo-cultural teaching and learning is based on the formula "from language facts to culture facts; from culture facts to language facts" and directed at forming the "second language personality" and the certain communicative skills which are necessary for undertaking the intercultural interaction. This approach presupposes to study the national-cultural features and differences between the target and native languages and aims for forming an intercultural/ cross-cultural competence where the *thesaurus of lexicon* and *thesaurus of conceptual world picture* of the native speakers are to develop. So, teaching EL is integral to teaching culture as a set of beliefs, values and norms shared by community members, serving their self-identity with this social group. This competence related to cultural awareness influences the productivity of intercultural communication. The result of forming/ developing the "second language personality" is a set of knowledge, abilities and skills for productive undertaking of intercultural communication.

Under the linguo-cultural approach the culture becomes the means of cognitive activity and language itself is a means of receiving new information about world picture of the English language speakers. Linguo-cultural

⁴⁰ Воробьев В.В. Лингвокультурология. – М: РУДН, 2008; Маслова В.А. Лингвокультурология. - М: Академия, 2007.

⁴¹ Красных В.В. Этнопсихоллингвистика и лингвокультурология. - М: Гносис, 2002. - С. 36.

teaching and learning is implemented through content-based and context-based language instruction. Content-based teaching of culture focuses on culture-related information, while context-based instruction emphasizes real-world situations where people need to behave in culturally appropriate way. Content-based teaching is knowledge-oriented and context-based instruction is skill-oriented.

The linguo-cultural aspect runs through all components of communicative competence, which includes: 1) cultural knowledge and its representations in language units' meaning and texts; 2) skills for comprehension of linguo-cultural information within the language units and texts; 3) skills to produce texts taking into consideration the linguo-cultural features.

Within integrating communicative and linguo-cultural teaching and learning (taking the linguo-cultural component as a point of departure) a variety of activities in the four language skills are presented for teaching intercultural communication.

No doubt, that an extended living experience among members of the target language group is probably the best experience for language acquisition if the learner has adequate basic preparation in both linguistic and socio-cultural competence coupled with good power of observation⁴². In this case the native speaker may become as a model that is implicit in both the linguistic and sociolinguistic competences.

4.4. Methods of FL teaching

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

1. According to the sources of information (sources transmission and

⁴² Celce-Murcia M Rethinking the role of Communicative Competence in language Teaching/ Soler E.A., Safond Jorda MP. (eds). Intercultural language Use and Language Learning. - Springer, 2007. - P.46.

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

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

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

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

These methods demonstrate the interaction between a teacher and learners: a teacher (or textbook) organizes the algorithm of operation and actions, and learners implement them. These methods related to the general didactic methods reflect the specifics of EL as a subject and levels of FL acquisition. But at the same time they bring the dominant idea, for instance, method of observation or explanative- illustrative method. They are tools which can be used consecutively while working on the new material. If we use visual aids, motivational strategies, various situational contexts, during the

presentation of new material, then learners will better percept, comprehend and remember the newmaterial.

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

4.5. Age groups for choice of methods in teaching process

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

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

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

Table 5. Age group of learners

Age groups of learners	Stage of education

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

Each approach and method put into practice will be shaped at least by the teacher, the students, the conditions of instruction, and the broader socio-cultural context. A particular method cannot be participation for success for everyone. First of all, choosing the method depends on the goal, characteristic, age, and contents of the lesson. The English teacher may choose from a wide range of methods such as conversation, presentation, re-telling, translation, etc. An EL teacher might also consider selecting from this range of methods.

For the 1-2 class learners at school the EL is presented, practiced and learned through speaking and listening. For these learners effective

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

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

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

The audio/video means can be used in teenager groups at schools, academic lyceums and colleges. Diligently used, they help teachers assure themselves that their students perceive intonation and pronunciation easier, and understand English leisurely by hearing it. Students' reading may be corrected handier. Explanations may be offered to learners while they are watching a certain video material on the topic. While watching a film or a documentary they have the chance to hear native speakers talking. Students

can also write a dictation (recorded on tape). Literary passages may be recorded and after the learners have heard them, they comment or analyze them, etc. When it comes strictly to video materials, we can distinguish between before- watching activities, while- watching activities, and after- watching activities. Including all these in a lesson, working with the video images becomes really productive and offers learners the possibility to broaden both their cultural horizon and their knowledge.

Questions:

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

Tasks:

1. Think of types of EL learning. What difference between them have you found out?
2. Tell about factors connected with communicate adequately norms and convention of intercultural communication?
3. Discussion on the topic: "Communication is a process". Explain the notion "to negotiate meaning".
4. Work in the small groups on the topic: "Instructions are suitable to ELT at school/ lyceum/ college".

Independent work:

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

Communicative teaching language is widely used all over the world. A brief description of CLT is value-laden and direct transposition of this method and its principles carry the ideological value about choice, freedom, and equality that are not universal. According to P.N. Sullivan, Western values are reflected not only in principles of CLT but also in common CLT classroom activities and practices⁴³, such as pair and group work, and information gap activities. For mentality of learners from Eastern and Asian countries freedom of choice and equality and others in the EL classrooms are not appropriate. Effective classroom activities are not necessarily pair and group work in information gap activities, but activities that fit the students' discourse styles. Depending on the cultural, or even the physical setting, a teacher can use tasks, pair and small group learning or the whole class format. Often a combination of the three or two is appropriate.

“Communicative language teaching methods designed to enhance the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning continue to be explored and adapted”⁴⁴. That's why, the CLT needs to be adapted to fit local context, local teachers in many EL settings may also need reexamine some of their traditional beliefs and assumptions about language teaching and learning. Embedded in communicative approach to teaching is a belief in humanistic and communicative nature of language, which is not always in accordance with traditional views.

⁴³ Sullivan P.N. Playfulness as mediation in communicative language teaching in a Vietnamese classroom/ In: Socio-cultural theory and second language learning. Eds. J.R. Lantolf . - Oxford: OUP, 2000. - P.115- 132.

⁴⁴ Savignon S.J. Communicative Curriculum Design for the 21- st Century// J. English Teaching Forum 2002, 40 (1). - P 2.

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

Cognitive- action approach

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

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

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

5. Learner's language experience and system of exercises

Questions to be discussed

5.1. Language acquisition and language experience

5.2. Proficiency levels and stages in FLT/ FLL

5.3. Language learning principles

5.4. System of exercises

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

5.1. Language acquisition and language experience

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

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

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

For instance, in the English speaking countries migrants learn English as a SL, for Uzbekistan the EL is the foreign language.

Between L1, L2 or FL acquisition we can point out the following common theoretical features: 1) the foundation for L2/ FL is built largely from a transfer of the rules of L1; 2) only L2/ FL is constructed from prior conceptual knowledge within the learner. The learners of L2/ FL use similar strategies to those learning their first language. Although L2/ FL learners go through essentially the same process as L1 learners, they do it much faster because they are usually more advanced cognitively. The EL as a subject at school, lyceum and college is studied by students on the basis of the language and social-cultural experience. By the language experience we understand a language practice of students in operating with language units during communication. The language experience contents: educational informativeness, language store (lexical, pronunciation, grammar, etc.), and ability transmission and getting the information in correspondence to the syllabus requirements.⁴⁵ Language experience in the L1 is replaced into the learning FL, which has positive and negative character. In FL methodology positive side is called **transposition** and negative one is **interference** (fossilization). Teaching/ learning FL presupposes acquiring “inter-language” because the language experience combines two languages that follow to forming the mixed code. The term “inter-language” refers to the development stages involved in moving from L1 to L2/ FL; various kinds of errors and strategies have been identified with stages along the way. For example, learners at some levels in early stage of their development have difficulty with sentence inversion when asking a question (e.g. They do incorrect word order of questions - You are in the garden?), and with the negative formation (They do incorrect form of negative sentence- You no in

⁴⁵ Джалалов Д.Д. Проблемы содержания обучения иностранному языку. - Т.: ФАН, 1987. - С.59.

the garden). Learners tend to vary their inter- language.

In the methodology FLT and FLL are also distinguished. The **FLT** is a specially organized process, during which as a result of interaction of a teacher with students, the reproduction and acquiring a certain experience are accomplished in correspondence with the given goal. The **FLL** is the conscious and goal-oriented activity directed at acquiring structural characteristics of the language (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar). The **ELL** is a natural, cognitive process with learners ultimately responsible for their own learning.

Language acquisition (L1, L2, FL) poses the unconscious intuitive uncontrolled activity. It is effective to learn or acquire the language in a real language environment. Being outside of environment of the native speakers is the main reason of the appearance of the language barrier and fossilization. Thus, one of the objectives of a teacher is maximal approximation of teaching situation to the real language environment involving the native speakers.

As J.L. Clark stressed, “Acquisition is not a linear cumulative process but a gradual developmental one, in which many knowledge elements are all growing at once, at different rates, and at different levels of perfection. Most knowledge is not immediately accommodated on first presentation. A gestation period, in which further exposure to the same knowledge elements occurs in different contexts, is normally necessary before data can be fully incorporated into the implicit knowledge store.”⁴⁶

Having already acquired an L1 non-native students are aware of the intentionality of language use and of the functions that language serves. They are thus primed to seek out propositional meaning and illocutionary value with all the faculties and experience that they can bring to bear on the matter. That’s why, when interpreting real talk or text, FL beginners devote

⁴⁶ Clark J.L. Curriculum Renewal in school. Foreign languages Learning. - OUP,1987. - P.55- 56.

most of their attention to processing the essential semantic units. The more or less redundant language features can simply not be attended to.

In the information-processing theory “bottom-up” data-driven processing and “top-down” conceptually-driven processing are defined (described in detail by J.L. Clark⁴⁷). “Bottom-up” data-driven processing permits us to attend to perceptions, organize them, and then extract meaning from them. “Top-down” conceptually-driven processing enables us to obtain a rapid expectation of what is likely to occur on the basis of previous experience, and to match this against the incoming sensory data. We don’t have to process all the bottom-up information available to us through our senses, since we use the top-down contextual clues and expectations based on past experiences and general knowledge to avoid having to process the whole input. New information is thus derived as a result of expectations produced by top-down processing eventually merging with the data derived from bottom-up processes where tasks encountered present novel problems with little relationship to existing schemata and with few contextual clues, effective bottom-up processing becomes very important where tasks present familiar problems, top-down processing may provide rapid solution.

Two different kinds of information-processing are distinguished⁴⁸. Controlled-processing is involved when conscious attention is required to perform a task; this places demands on short-term memory. Automatic-processing is involved when the learner carries out a task without awareness or attention, making greater use of information in long-term memory. Learning involves the performance of behavior with automatic-processing. The information-processing model explains as to why learner’s language use sometimes shifts from fluent (automatic-processing) to less fluent (controlled-processing) and why learners in the initial stages of language

⁴⁷ Clark J.L. Curriculum Renewal in school. Foreign languages Learning. - OUP, 1987. - P.59- 60.

⁴⁸ Richards J.C. Growing Up with TESOL// J. English Teaching Forum V.46, No1, 2008. - P.9.

learning need to put so much effort into understanding and producing language⁴⁹.

Learners are not simple input-output mechanisms, not all acquired knowledge and information (input) can be reproduced and produced in a novel context (output) by them. Effective output depends on methods, techniques and exercises which we use in classrooms. Learner can acquire language from communication, gradually the learners' communicative resource improves and expands, and approximates to the native speakers. Very few learners can achieve a communicative resource equal to that of a native speaker, but given appropriate data and tasks, learners can learn to communicate successfully in FL. While linguistic competence is necessary to all communication, much can be done with minimal grammar and adequate vocabulary.

In methodology the term "language awareness" as "development in learners of an enhanced consciousness of and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language"⁵⁰ is used. Other definitions that reflect the core of language awareness is consciousness-raising; form-focus instruction, form interpretation tasks. Language awareness includes itself awareness about grammar, lexical, phonological, and discourse features, i.e. language data. The goal of language awareness is to develop in the learners' awareness of and sensitivity to form, meaning and function of the language units. Learners have to explore structured input and develop an awareness of particular linguistic features by performing certain operations. It is not the same thing as practice, because it involves input processing, noticing certain patterns or relationships, discovering rules, and noticing the difference between native and learned languages and current inter-language⁵¹. Language awareness is

⁴⁹ Spada N., Lightbown. Second language Acquisition/ In An introduction to applied linguistics. Ed. N.Schmit. - London: Arnold. 2002. - P.115- 132.

⁵⁰ Carter R. Key concepts in FLT: Language Awareness.// J. ELT 57 (1), 2003. - P.64.

⁵¹ Bourke J.M. A Rough Guide to language Awareness.// J. English Teaching Forum V.46, No1, 2008. - P.14- 15.

data-driven. Learners are not told the rule, but are given a set of data from which they infer the rule or generalization in their own way for using in communication. It is **process-oriented approach**, which includes steps of discovery, investigation, and understanding, which contrasts markedly with the traditional **product-oriented approach** in which learners are told the rules and have to drill and memorize them.

Language awareness builds inter-language which has to grow and develop; otherwise, fossilization sets (inter-language interference) in and learners may exhibit the all-too-familiar symptoms of language gaps. Many learners seem to experience this gap and need remedial work in order to eradicate fossilized errors.

Learners need **communicative data**, because these provide the essential input upon which their mental language learning process can operate. It is important to provide them with appropriate level of contextual support to assist them, and to encourage them to transfer to the language learning situation the same strategies that they use to predict and guess meaning through context and word-building elements. Communicative data in English classroom contents: teacher's talk; other classroom talk; recordings of talk (audio and video); pedagogically-inspired written information; other classroom information; realia and written texts from outside the classroom⁵².

A receptive capacity is developed earlier than productive capacity. It means that much of the communicative data understood by the learners will reappear in their talk in the early stage. They can produce speech at the minimal-communicative level. Learners move gradually through stages of inter-language development which contain errors, toward native speaker norms. The learner's mental processes concentrate first and foremost on finding meaning. It is therefore the semantic content of the words and basic

⁵² Clark J.L. Curriculum Renewal in school. Foreign languages Learning. - OUP, 1987. - P.204-205.

word order that will be internalized first and it is these features that will appear in production first. The more redundant grammatical features will be attended to and internalized only when sufficient mental capacity is available to permit this.

5.2. Proficiency levels and stages in FLT

The EL acquisition is graduated into beginning, intermediate and advanced levels in the terms of language proficiency. To understand the proficiency levels of FLT/ FLL we present the scheme (Figure) below⁵³.

Figure 3. Classification of Proficiency Levels in EL

Comprehension		
Early Speech Production		
Speech Emergence		
Toward Full Production		
	Beginning	Intermediate Advanced

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

⁵³ See: Richards- Amato P.A. Making it Happen. Interaction in the Second Language Classroom From Theory to Practice. - N.Y., London: Longman, 1988. - P.4.

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

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

It was mentioned, that the acquiring EL is a cognitive process. Most language teaching (whether L1 or L2/ FL) attempted to develop functional or communicative proficiency by focusing on the surface forms despite the fact that the direction of the language acquisition was from deeper communicative functions of the language to the surface form. The cognitive aspect can be elaborated in terms of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives⁵⁴. The conceptualization of language proficiency in the frame Bloom taxonomy was described in the book by P.A. Richards - Amato⁵⁵ what we reflect to in the Table 6.

Table 6. Surface and Deeper Levels of Language Proficiency

Types of Levels of Language	Cognitive Process	Conversation Proficiency	Language Process
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⁵⁴ Bloom B., Krathwohl D. Taxonomy of educational objectives. Handbook 1. Cognitive Domain. - New York: Longman, 1977.

⁵⁵ Richards- Amato P.A. Making it Happen. Interaction in the Second Language Classroom. From Theory to Practice. - N.Y., London: Longman, 1988. - P.383.

Proficiency			
Surface	Knowledge – remembering something previously encountered or learned. Comprehension – grasp of basic meaning, without necessarily relating it to other material. Application – use of abstractions in particular and concrete situations.		Pronunciation Vocabulary Grammar
Deeper	Analysis - breaking down the whole into its parts so that the organization of elements is clear. Synthesis - putting elements into a coherent whole. Evaluation – judging the adequacy of ideas or material for given purposes.	Cognitive/ Academic Proficiency	Semantic meaning. Functional meaning

On the basis of the table content we can state that language acquisition at schools presupposes surface level of language proficiency (Beginning level). But the learners at Academic Lyceum and Professional Colleges can achieve the deeper level (Intermediate level). For the learners of Academic Lyceum and Vocational Colleges and Higher Educational Establishments is more relevant cognitive and academic progress than a surface manifestation of proficiency. For pupils of the Primary and Secondary education (1-9 forms) it is normal to organize productive speech embedded within context of fairly immediate goals, intentions, and familiar patterns of events. Their conversation proficiency touches only surface cognitive process. The deeper level concerns a high order of critical thinking which is impossible for young children (1-6 forms) and it is difficult for teenagers (7-9 forms), but it is possible sometimes because elements of critical thinking are attracted. The 1-4 forms pupils' language acquisition has no conscious character. During this

period pupils are allowed to go through a silent period. They receive comprehension input usually from the teacher. As W Scott and L.H Ytreberg describe young learners under 7- 8 years old, ‘Their own understanding comes through hands, and eyes, and ears. The physical world is dominant at all times’⁵⁶. So, simple responses to the comprehensible input may be made by gestures, nodding, using L1, answering “yes” or “no”. The teacher’s speech is a little slower as usual. The intonation is reasonably normal except that key words receive extra emphasis.

There is a school of thought that suggests children learn best by hearing language being effectively modeled by skilled teachers, and having natural opportunities to use language in productive activities, before embarking on robust learning of literacy. However, the relative success of this type of approach may lie in the oral competency of the teacher and easy access to appropriate resources. In some contexts it may make more sense to expose children early to reading, learning phonics and the explicit teaching of grammar. Clearly, it makes little sense to be teaching reading and writing in EL beyond what has been achieved in L1, although it may be possible for the two languages to develop at similar rates. However, older learners may have knowledge of literacy to transfer over from a stronger first language. In many contexts, schools are measured by how many children pass academic exams, which may necessitate and encourage a ‘teaching to the test’ mentality amongst teachers. However, this could mean that the more important aspects of learning are neglected.

In the classroom a teacher should aim to provide a wide range of learning experiences, some designed to promote spontaneous learning, or to bring about communicative use, or to focus on underlying knowledge, skills, strategies, or to promote awareness of pattern and function, or to assist the learner to

⁵⁶ Scott W, Ytreberg L.H. Teaching English to children. - London: Longman, 1990. - P. 2.

develop control in the use of the language. They all are effective strategies but for different purposes, in different context, with different learners, at different stages of development. The balance to be struck between these various strategies at particular points in time with particular learners remains a matter for a teacher to decide. The methodology adopted by the teacher at any particular moment should be designed to respond to the particular needs of the learner.

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

Besides, the learners need socio-cultural data and direct experience of another culture. We mean cultural awareness, which means the foundation of communication and it involves the ability to understand adequately value orientation, mentality, beliefs and perceptions. It becomes central when we have to interact with people from other cultures. People see, interpret and evaluate things in different ways. What is considered an appropriate behavior in one culture is frequently inappropriate in another one. Misunderstandings arise when we use our meanings to make sense of a reality. Misinterpretations occur primarily when we lack awareness of our own behavioral rules and project them on others. In absence of better knowledge we tend to assume, instead of finding out what a behavior means to the person involved, e.g. a straight look into your face is regarded as disrespectful in Uzbekistan.

Through EL the pupils and students learn culture of the native speakers, and through cultural information and guided reflection upon this in the classroom, the learners can be helped to build up a cultural awareness and sensitivity that may lead to greater understanding and tolerance of diversity.

One of the aims of intercultural teaching and learning language and culture is acculturation as a result of that the bridge between their own communicative and cultural systems and the target language speech community will be built. This means a considerable difference in the emphasis placed on cultural aspects and on appropriacy between L1 developers and L2/ FL learners.

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

5.3. Language learning principles

Language learning principles are generally sorted into three sub-groupings: *Cognitive Principles*, *Affective Principles* and *Linguistic Principles*. Principles are seen as theory to which teachers need to match classroom practices. Here are brief summaries of the principles that fall into three groups⁵⁷ (see Table 7).

Table 7. Cognitive, affective and linguistic skills

Subgroups of principles	Principles	Interpretation of principles
Cognitive	Automaticity	Subconscious processing of language with peripheral attention to language forms.
	Meaningful Learning	This can be contrasted to <i>Rote Learning</i> , and is thought to lead to better long term retention.
	Anticipation of Rewards	Learners are driven to act by the anticipation of rewards, tangible or intangible.
	Intrinsic Motivation:	The most potent learning "rewards" are intrinsically motivated within the learner.
	Strategic Investment	The time and learning strategies learners invest into the language learning process.

⁵⁷ English4room/ info/

Affective	Language Ego	Learning a new language involves developing a new mode of thinking - a new language "ego".
	Self-confidence	Success in learning something can be equated to the belief in learners that they <i>can</i> learn it;
	Risk-Taking	Taking risks and experimenting "beyond" what is certain creates better long-term retention.
	Language-Culture Connection	Learning a language also involves learning of cultural values and thinking.
Linguistic	Native Language Effect	A learner's native language creates both facilitating and interfering effects on learning.
	Inter-language	At least some of the learner's development in a new language can be seen as systematic.
	Communicative Competence	Fluency and <i>use</i> are just as important as accuracy and <i>usage</i> - instruction needs.
	Orientation for pragmatic aims.	To be aimed at organizational, pragmatic and strategic competence as well as psychomotor skills.

It is important to realize that we should get our pupils and students to develop communicative fluency, not just language accuracy; we should equip our students with tools for generating unrehearsed language performance in the English classroom.

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

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

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

Proposals as to how accuracy and fluency can be realized within the framework of the current communicative methodology include: 1)

incorporating a more explicit treatment of grammar within a text-based curriculum; 2) building a focus on structure (form) into a task-based teaching through activities centered on consciousness raising or noticing grammatical features of input or output; 3) using activities that require “stretched output”, activities that expand or “restructure” the learner’s grammatical system through increased communicative demands and attention to linguistic forms.

5.4. System of exercises

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

Exercises must be created as a system. By the system of exercises we understand organization of teaching actions in algorithm (logical consecutive) in accordance with increasing of language and operational difficulties. It was mentioned, that the system of exercises includes itself tasks and activities. Van de Branden defines a task as “... activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective and which necessitates the use of language”⁵⁸. That is, by understanding language input and by producing language output; better still, by interacting with other people in real-life situations through the use of EL, the goal that the learner had in mind could be better achieved.

The appointed requirements to the system of exercises are:

- 1) Actions must correspond to the given goal and nature of phenomenon.
- 2) Consecution of exercises must correspond to stages of skills formation (from imitative exercises to production in accordance with one stimulus).

⁵⁸ Van de Branden K. Task-based language education: From theory to practice. - Cambridge: CUP, 2007.

In methodology different classifications of exercises have been worked out. In our opinion, the more effective system of exercises was suggested by V.A. Buhbinder⁵⁹. They are 1) informative exercises; 2) operational exercises and 3) motivational exercises. They provide acquiring language, speech acts or operations and speech activity in FL. The core and kinds of this system of exercises you find in the Table 8.

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

Type of exercises	Aim of exercises	Kinds of exercises	Interpretation
Information	Understanding and fixing knowledge about language units	Comparing; pronunciation of sounds, words, phrases; grouping, matching, transformation, etc.	Language learning
Operational	Forming/ developing language units' usage and speech automatisms. This type of exercises is used to train operational mechanisms of speech organization on the basis of language units.	Practicing lexical and grammar combinations; filling the gaps, transformation, reorganization, conversion.	Skills getting (obtaining)
Motivational	Forming/ developing or improving communicative skills in text production and reception in the real condition and situation of oral and written speech. The stimulus is presented in all kinds of these exercises	Question- answering, situations, drama, role - play, retelling the text, extending the idea, text compression, control, etc.	Language and skills using

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

Language exercises (skills getting/ obtaining) are used as training and preparatory operations. The material for this type of exercises is language units. During doing this type of exercises the following operations are sprung

⁵⁹ Бухбиндер В.А. О системе упражнений/ Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам Хрестоматия. Под ред. Леоньева А.А.. - М: Русский язык, 1991. - С.93- 95.

into action: 1) observation; 2) analysis; 3) comparison; 4) choosing; 5) transformation; 6) substitution and omitting; 7) generalization or finding analogues.

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

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

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

The following requirements are put to communicative exercises:

Tasks to exercises must have communicative character as possible.

Exercises must deal with a situation and stimulus.

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

The mentioned a task-based language teaching considers exercises as

giving learners direct and immediate experience of language use in communication. Focused tasks, pre-tasks and feedback on tasks enable learners to notice language forms, to use them under real operating conditions and to receive feedback on their language use. Priority is given to getting something done through language rather than practicing predetermined language items. The language of the task therefore is not being predictable. Attention is paid to the task outcome or product and not to whether the learners used a particular language form to complete the task.

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

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

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

exemplify ways of inviting and linguistically simplified version of a novel are not authentic texts.

Questions:

1. What do we mean by the “language acquisition”?
2. What are the differences between language acquisition L1 and FL?
3. What have you found out about language experience?
4. Give your explanation of the term “inter-language”.
5. What can you say about “bottom-up” data-driven processing and “top-down” conceptually-driven processing? Is it necessary for a future teacher to know about these types of processing?
6. What proficiency levels in FLT can you name?
7. What is the role of these principles in the FLT process?
8. What classification of exercises do you know?

Tasks:

1. Analyze surface and deeper Levels of Language Proficiency.
2. Think about criteria of distinguishing principles into cognitive, affective and linguistic? Tell about their realization in the ELT process.
3. Explain the goal of exercises from the view-point of language experience.
4. Study the content of the table below and add other criteria and kinds of exercises.

Criteria for classification of communicative exercises	Kinds of exercises
1. Types of speech activity	Speaking: situational, descriptive, problem-solving, story-telling, game-playing, etc., Listening: listening with wandering gaps; ticking lexical items; listening and labeling; guessing from the text; listening and matching; completing gaps in the text; ticking true or false statements; transferring information to a table; commenting on the text. Reading: scanning, skimming, jig-saw reading, reading two or more texts

	and find one problem, retelling the text, etc. Writing: paragraph writing, dictation, essay, report, annotation, etc.
2. Character of speech activity:	Productive and receptive. Prepared and spontaneous (unprepared). Oral and written.

5. In your log write about a situation when you used only communicative types of exercises.

Independent work:

1. Study “Typical Techniques”, which were described by Diane Larsen-Freeman⁶⁰. Expanded descriptions of some common/ typical techniques closely associated with the Direct Method. The listing here is in summary form only.

Think and add suitable to the direct method techniques.

1. Reading Aloud (*Reading sections of passages, plays or dialogues out loud*).
2. Question and Answer Exercise (*Asking questions in the target language and having students answer in full sentences.*)
3. Student Self-Correction (*Teacher facilitates opportunities for students to self-correct using follow-up questions, tone, etc.*)
4. Conversational practice (*Teacher asks question for involving student into the conversation*).
5. Fill-in-the-blank Exercise (*Items use target language only and inductive rather than explicit grammar rules.*)
6. Dictation (*Teacher reads a passage aloud various amount of times at various tempos, students write down what they hear*).
7. Map drawing (*Teacher reads a passage three times: 1) in normal speed, 2) phrase by phrase, 3) again in normal speed*).
8. Paragraph Writing (*Students write a paragraph in their own words using the target language and various models.*)

⁶⁰ Larsen-Freeman D. Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching. 2-nd ed. - OUP, 2003. - Pp. 30-31.

2. Study the phases of working on the speech activities (taken from R.P. Milrud⁶¹). Work out different exercises and distribute them in accordance with the given phases.

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

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

CHAPTER 2. Historical survey of teaching foreign languages methodology

1. Foreign language as an educational subject

⁶¹ Milrud R.P. English Teaching Methodology. – M: Drofa, 2007. - P.

Questions to be discussed

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

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

1.1. Features of a foreign language as a curricular subject

The Decree of President Islam Karimov "On measures for further improvement of foreign languages learning" as of December 10, 2012 is a key factor for modernization of teaching foreign languages at all stages, in which the importance of teaching and learning English across the country were pointed out.⁶² So, a foreign language becomes one of the important educational subjects, at all educational institutions.

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

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

⁶² http://www.uzbekembassy.in/news/april_2013.htm

The difference between learning a FL and the native language (Uzbek or Russian as a subject) is manifested in the direction of the FL to forming and developing communicative skills on the basis of another new language code, where the place of the language is the means of communication. This idea permeates the whole EL teaching process.⁶³ The level of communicative competence in the native language as the result of education is more fluent than in FL. There are some limitations in FL communicative skills, because the social function of the native and FL are not the same. The Uzbek (native) language has an official status and it is the language of everyday communication, FL is the means of education and familiarization with other cultures; means of communication in the classroom and outside it.

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

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

⁶³ Гез Н.И., Ляховицкий М.В., Миролубов А.А. Методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. - М.: Высшая школа, 1982. - С.38.

learning.

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

FL teaching at college can be defined at the micro level (in terms, for example, of vocabulary and vocation-oriented information) and at macro level – the professional communicative tasks, the genre of formats of those communicative tasks, and the modalities through which they are enacted⁶⁴. For example, the EL teaching curriculum for a Medical College is based on the main language tasks and language skills that the future health care providers would need to be successful in this field. The acquired language skills as a result of education at a Medical college include areas of informational use of English in interaction with patients and their families (such as offering reassurance) and in interaction with colleagues (completing routine forms, charts, and instructions). The skills also touch upon documented interpersonal usage of English that the medical nurses would need (such as expressing empathy).

1.2. The importance of FL learning in Uzbekistan

The FL education has social and personal-oriented values. Dynamic processes in all spheres in Uzbekistan need acquiring one or two FL. The

⁶⁴ Salas S. Mercado L.A. & et.all. English for Specific Purposes: Negotiating Needs, possibilities, and Promises// English Teaching Forum No 4, 2013. - P.13- 14.

richness of the country under the conditions of market economy and information technologies development can be achieved with the help of human resources – the important factor of economic and social progress. The FL education contributes to solve this important objective. According to the view of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan we should create the necessary conditions for the youth to acquire deep knowledge and modern professions and train a highly qualified workforce, young specialists capable of taking on responsibility for the future and further development of the country.⁶⁵ President I. Karimov also states that in the system of education we attach a great importance to teaching pupils not merely liberal arts and vocational skills, but also required learning of foreign languages, for this is critical for them to maintain proactive communication with their counterparts abroad, get extensive knowledge of everything that is going on around the globe, and command the august world of intellectual treasure.⁶⁶

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

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

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

Under the conditions of developing multilingualism we can no longer afford to remain monolingual. Successive reforming occurred in Uzbekistan demands all peoples to speak a variety of languages. Learning FL no longer a pastime: it is a necessity. It is known that learning a foreign language results

⁶⁵ Address by President I. Karimov at the Opening Ceremony of International Conference 18 February 2012.

⁶⁶ Ibid.

in students achieving greater divergent thinking, creativity, and cognitive development compared to monolingual students. When students learn a FL they have a tendency of outscoring those who are proficient in only a single language on tests of nonverbal and verbal intelligence.

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

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

1.3. English as an international language

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

International Language Hegemony of the English language is a global phenomenon and the onset of modern technology, the computer; and as the choice language of the academia will further strengthen it. Melvia A. Hasman reported about three factors of English spreading: 1) usage in science, technology and commerce; 2) the ability to incorporate vocabulary from other languages; 3) the acceptability of various English dialects⁶⁷. Today, in the

⁶⁷ Hasman MA. The Role of English in the 21st Century// English Teaching Forum V.38, No1. - Pp.3.

information age, developing information-communication technology and Internet-mediation communication demands knowing English. International cooperation in all spheres of life is organized on the English language.

For the last period English occupied the function of *lingua franca* – language-mediator for the representatives of communication. Sometimes it is called the language of international politics and diplomacy, business communication and international conferences. It is also understood as language-mediator for non-native speakers within intercultural communication. Arafte states, “This may involve interaction between mother tongue (L1) speakers and those using a second or foreign language (L2); or between speakers using different varieties of the same L1, as within the varied English speaking or Spanish-speaking world, where cultural assumptions are not necessarily shared, in spite of a shared language”⁶⁸. Thus, all parties use a language adopted for the purposes of wider communication.

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

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

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

⁶⁸ Arafte A. A Role for English as *Lingua Franca* in the Foreign language Classroom? / Soler E.A., Safond Jorda MP. (eds). *Intercultural language Use and Language Learning*. - Springer, 2007. - P.79.

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

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

Spreading English makes an appearance of many topical issues; all people are interested in them. The first, the role of other foreign languages is decreasing. It follows to decreasing hours for teaching other foreign languages as German, French at educational institutions and as effect to unemployment for the specialists of these languages.

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

language.

Questions:

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

Tasks:

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

Independent work

1. Describe the FL as a subject from the position of bringing up and developing goals of education in the written form
2. Search the information about specific features of the English language as lingua franca and prepare the written presentation.

2. Teaching foreign languages in the world

Questions to be discussed

2.1. Historical survey of FL teaching in the world

2.2. Language education in Europe

2.3. Language education in the United States

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

2.1. Historical survey of FL teaching in the world

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

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

In Europe before the 16 century, much of the language teaching enclosed teaching Latin to priests. In the 16 and 17 centuries, French was a lingua franca for speaking to foreigners. Mostly court members spoke French, and also it was a required language for travelers, traders and soldiers. French was greatly taught throughout this period, and a study of documents, textbooks, literature indicate that language teachers of that time were considering the same issues that are being considered today. These contained

issues about practice versus learning rules and formal study versus informal use.

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

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

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

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

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

In the early to mid-1900s developments in other fields such as psychology, behaviorism has had a great effect on language teaching resulting in the audio-lingual method. *The audio-lingual method* has students listen to or view tapes of language models acting in situations. Students practice with variety of drills, and their instructor emphasizes the use of the target language at all times. The audio-lingual method was used by the United

States Army for “crash” instruction in FL during World War II. Despite the documented success of these programs, they are no longer common.

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

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

Other theorists have also proposed ideas influencing language teaching. Stephen Krashen, for example, studied the way that children learn language and applied it to adult language learning. He proposed the *Input Hypothesis*, which states that language is acquired by using comprehensible input (the

language that one hears in the environment) which is slightly beyond the learners' present proficiency.

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

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is an approach to the teaching languages that emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. Despite a number of criticisms, it continues to be popular, particularly in Europe, where constructivist views on language learning and education in general dominate academic discourse.

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

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

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

Learning by teaching is a widespread method in Germany (Jean-Pol

Martin). The students take the teacher's role and teach their peers. An important target is developing web-sensibility.

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

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

The Silent Way is a discovery learning approach, proposed by Gale Gattegno in the 50s of the last century. It is often considered to be one of the humanistic approaches. It is called The Silent Way because the teacher is usually silent, leaving room for students to talk and explore the language. It is often associated with Cuisenaire rods and wall charts where words are colour-coded; each phoneme a different colour.

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

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

vocabulary has been memorized.

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

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

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

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

An increasing number of people are now combining holidays with language study in the native country. This enables the student to experience the target culture by meeting local people. Such a holiday often combines formal lessons, cultural excursions, leisure activities and homestay, perhaps with time to travel in the country afterwards. Language study holidays are popular across Europe due to the ease of transportation and to the small geographical distances. Many individuals travel to the UK alone to learn English.

The internet has emerged as a powerful medium to teach and learn FLs which provides a beneficial supplement to real world language schooling. Websites provide language exchange, i.e. two users with complementary language skills, e.g., a native English speaker and a native Chinese speaker

who are eager to learn one another's language from different countries, can teach each other their languages.

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

2.2. Language education in Europe

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

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

In Europe, at the start of FL teaching, pupils have lessons for three to four hours a week. Compulsory lessons in a FL normally start at the end of primary school or the start of secondary school. In Luxembourg, Norway, Italy and Malta, on the other hand, the first FL starts at age six and in Belgium's Flemish community at age 10. About half of the EU's primary school pupils learn a FL.

In majority of countries, the curricula list the FL from which pupils may

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

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

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

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

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

In some countries, learners have lessons taken entirely in a FL: for example, more than half European countries with minority or regional

language community use partial immersion to teach both the minority and the state language.

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

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

The basic objectives of FL teaching and the major methodological approaches are the same in all EU. All curricula explicitly or implicitly refer to the communicative approach. The prime objective is to enable learners to communicate and express themselves in a FL. All curricula therefore emphasize those objectives and contents that pertain to communication. These are expressed by way of four areas of proficiency, known as the four major skills: listening, reading, speaking, and writing. Most often, these skills are given equal treatment in terms of priority. Some countries, though emphasize oral and aural skills (speaking and listening), which are sometimes associated

with reading skills. Grammatical knowledge is as a rule presented as a means of achieving communication proficiency. The role and importance of grammar are thus subordinate to communication-related objectives. The only differences observed between countries relate primarily to the extent to which this is so. Consequently, some curricula do not explicitly require the achievement of a given level of grammatical proficiency. Other curricula instead clearly set out grammatical objectives, or even draw up lists of grammatical elements to be taught.

2.3. Language education in the United States

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

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

Questions and tasks:

1. When did begin the history of FLT in the world?
2. Why did Latin language as FL dominate in the world?
3. Can you explain the core of the Grammar translation method?

4. Why the Direct method is effective in FLT?
5. Think about advantages of the Audio-lingual method.
6. Discuss the basic objectives of FL teaching and the major methodological approaches in EU.
7. What can you say about FLT in USA and Britain?

Independent work

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

3. Teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan

Questions to be discussed

- 3.1. The historical review of teaching foreign languages in settlements of Uzbeks at ancient times.
- 3.2. The main periods of teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan.
- 3.3. The features of the V- VII periods of foreign languages teaching in Uzbekistan.

Key terms: history of FL teaching development, periods of teaching FL, maktab and madras, gymnasiums, bilingualism, multilingualism, classical and practical directions, scientific works, training the FL teachers, [the clergy](#) educational institutions, Russian-speaking schools, Uzbek-speaking schools, National curricular, FL textbooks, FLT methodology.

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

Teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan has a long-lasting history that was described in details by prof. J.J. Jalolov in his works⁶⁹.

From the ancient times bilingualism and multilingualism were widely spread on the territory of Uzbekistan. The Uzbek people learned the Tajik language and other languages from childhood. For example, Amir Timur since his childhood freely spoke in Turkish and Tajik languages⁷⁰.

Peoples living at that time in this area always knew languages of each other. The Uzbek people tried to learn languages of neighboring and distant states. At that time among the population of our homeland the Arabic language also became widely extended, as an effect of spreading Islamic religion.

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

⁶⁹ Jalolov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign Languages Teaching Methodology. - Toshkent: O'qituvchi, 2012. - P- 133- 144.

⁷⁰ See the book by J.J. Jalolov: Yakubovsky A.Yu.// In book: History of the people of Uzbekistan. Timur and his time. V. 1. p. VII., ch. I. - Tashkent: AN UZSSR, 1950. - P.345.

Knowing different languages they could study the works of the Eastern and Western scientists and created their own original works⁷¹.

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

As a result of annexing Turkestan by the Russian Tsar, a peculiar bilateral system of education took place in the territory of Uzbekistan. On the one hand a widespread network of elementary Muslim schools under the government of mosques and madrasah was functioning where the main objective was to teach the Islam doctrines. On the other hand schools with Russian-speaking teaching started to be organized. By 1867 their quantity reached 10 schools. According to academician V.V. Bartold, under the governor of area Kaufman the Muslim organizations, including educational institutions were opened»⁷². Migration of a large number of the Russian-speaking population into Uzbek land and bourgeoisie changes in the local conditions influenced the education system. Secondary educational institutions for the Russian-speaking population were opened in this region.

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

⁷¹ Jalolov J., G.Tojjeva. Historical outline of foreign language teaching (FLT) in Uzbekistan. In: Advanced Science Journal. – USA. – 2012 – Volume 2012 Issue 5. – Pp. 58.

⁷²See the book by J.J.Jalolov: Bartold V.V. History of cultural life of Turkestan. V.1, p. 1. - M: Publishing house of east literature. 1961. - P. 297.

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

3.2. The main periods of teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan

The main periods of teaching FL in Uzbekistan were defined by R.A. Zaripova⁷³ and some periods was clarified and added by J.J. Jalalov⁷⁴. Taking into consideration J.J. Jalalov's clarifications the history of teaching and learning FL in Uzbekistan can be divided into the following periods:

- the I period – before 1917;
- the II period – from 1917 up to the beginning of 1930;
- the III period – from 1930 up to the first half of 1940;
- the IV period – from the middle of 1940 up to the beginning of 1960;
- the V period – from 1960 up to the beginning of 1970;
- the VI period – from 1970 up to 1990;
- the VII period – from 1991 – to the present time.

The specifics of the first four periods (I, II, III, IV) can be characterized with reference to J.J. Jalalov and A.A. Klevan's article⁷⁵.

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

⁷³ Зарипова Р.А. Изучение иностранных языков в Туркестане (1865- 1924 гг.) Нукус: Каракалпакстан 1971. – 152 с.

⁷⁴ Jalalov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign Languages Teaching Methodology. - Toshkent: O'qituvchi, 2012. - P- 133- 144.

⁷⁵ Джалалов Д.Д., Клеванъ А.А. К истории преподавания иностранных языков в Узбекистане.// Ученые записки Вьп 7. - Т. НИИПН, 1964. - С.320- 336.

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

In Turkestan FL teaching was based on grammar-translating methods under Russian educational traditions. Then they gave “the green light” to the direct method (without a native language as a mediator) within which the oral speech was paid a great attention to⁷⁶.

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

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

In 1924 the Turkistan Oriental Institute was reconstructed and became one of the divisions (oriental faculty) of the Turkestan State University, which focused on FL teaching. After formation of the Uzbek Socialist Republic FL were taught at some schools with the Russian language orientation. Especially the German language dominated; the ex-prisoners of war from the Austria-Hungarian Army and the gymnasium teachers were invited as the German teachers. Most of them had no imagination about the methodology of FL teaching which caused a low language performance. At that time FL were not taught at the Uzbek schools because they were dealing with primary education. Only at the Pedagogical College FL was introduced because they

⁷⁶ Зарипова Р.А. Изучение иностранных языков в Туркестане (1865-1924 гг.) Нукус: Каракалпакстан, 1971. – С. 145.

trained FL teachers.

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

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

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

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

The period of the Second World War was characterized with extending the FL teaching at schools given the military time needs, requirements and conditions. The development of FL education was continued in the post- war

period. In 1947 the Decrees “On improvement of FL teaching at schools” and “On FL teachers training”, then in 1948 “On improvement of FL teaching at schools of Uzbekistan and organization of FL teachers training” were adopted by the Cabinet of Ministers. This authority obliged the Ministry of Education to provide compulsory teaching of one of the FL (English, French, German and Spanish) at all urban schools. That’s why under the Ministry of Education a special division of FL and the section of the Higher Teaching-methodical Council to help teachers’ activity and improve FLT were founded. The staff of methodists- inspectors of FLT was set out in Tashkent and other regional Education departments and institutes of teachers advanced training. Training of FL teachers was carried out at the Tashkent pedagogical institute and at the philology faculty of Samarkand state university. In 1948- 1949 in Uzbekistan there was a mass introduction of FLT at 5- 10 forms of schools, and at some schools learning of FL began at the 3- d form.

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

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

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

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

2. Scientific research works in the sphere of methodology of FL teaching appeared in the middle of 1950. Prior to that, local textbooks, the

methodical materials, and scientific books were not published in Uzbekistan.

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

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

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

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

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

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

of the National curricular. In 1968 the first project of the National Curricula for FL teaching at schools was worked out and it was introduced into the educational process in 1970.

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

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

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

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

The great merit of FLT methodology development in Uzbekistan belongs to professor J.J. Jalolov. His original innovative ideas were reflected in the monograph "Issues of the content of the foreign languages teaching"⁷⁷, the

⁷⁷ Джалалов Д.Д. Проблемы содержания обучения иностранному языку. - Т.: Фаң, 1987.

textbook “Foreign language teaching methodology”⁷⁸ and the EL textbooks for schools and “Teachers’ guide books”.⁷⁹

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

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

Questions and tasks:

1. What are the main periods in the history of FL methodology development?

⁷⁸ Jalalov J.J. Чет тил ўқитиш методикаси - Т.: Ўқитувчи, 1996; Jalalov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign Languages Teaching Methodology. - Toshkent: O'qituvchi, 2012.

⁷⁹ Джалалов Д.Д., Стравчинская Г.И. Учебник английского языка для 5 класса узбекской школы - Т.: Ўқитувчи, 1972. (8-е изд. в 1981); Джалалов Д.Д., Стравчинская Г.И. Книга для учителя к учебнику английского языка для 5 класса узбекской школы - Т. Ўқитувчи, 1973; Джалалов Д.Д., Стравчинская Г.И. Учебник английского языка для 4 класса узбекской школы - Т.: Ўқитувчи, 1982. (5-е изд. в 1986); Джалалов Д.Д., Стравчинская Г.И. Книга для учителя к учебнику английского языка для 4 класса узбекской школы - Т. Ўқитувчи, 1983; Джалалов Д.Д., Стравчинская Г.И. Учебник английского языка для 6 класса узбекской школы - Т.: Ўқитувчи, 1972; Джалалов Д.Д., Стравчинская Г.И. Книга для учителя к учебнику английского языка для 6 класса узбекской школы - Т. Ўқитувчи, 1973; Д.Д.Джалалов. Книга для чтения для 5-6 классов. English Reader. . - Т. Ўқитувчи, 1979; Жалалов Ж English 10. - Т.: Ўқитувчи, 2002; Жалалов Ж English 11 - Т.: Ўқитувчи, 2005.

2. What were the main features of the first and second periods?
3. What do you think about 1941- 1945 period of FLT?
4. Why did German take the dominant position?
5. What institutes were specialized for FL teachers training?
6. Can you say about methods of FLT in 1950- 1970?
7. When was the first National Curricula elaborated?
8. Is it necessary to take into consideration the native language in FLT?

Give your arguments.

9. What innovations are introduced into the FLT in Uzbekistan at present?

Tasks:

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

Independent work:

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

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

CHAPTER 1. Teaching English language material

1. Teaching English vocabulary

The questions to be discussed:

- 1.1. Theoretical characterization of the methods of teaching English vocabulary
- 1.2. What is vocabulary and what needs to be taught?
- 1.3. Different approaches to recognition of lexical (vocabulary) complexity.
- 1.4. The main stages of formation of the vocabulary skills.

Key terms: vocabulary; word; lexicon; formal; functional; semantic; style; active (productive) minimum; passive (receptive) minimum; semantic; combinative; stylistic; frequency; word-building; synonym; antonyms; hyponyms; context; definition; interpretation; static stage; dynamic stage; choice criterion; dialogue ; monologue; pre-activity; while-activity; post-activity.

2.1. Theoretical characterization of the methods of teaching English vocabulary

The teaching and learning of English is riddled with several inherent paradoxes, contradictions and controversies. A teacher can only facilitate learning. The learner is the nucleus of the whole process of instruction; and his age, previous learning experiences, aptitudes, interests, the time he devotes to the learning of a foreign language and other socio-economic factors determine the suitability of the curriculum, course materials and

methods of teaching. Any instruction that does not take into consideration the imperative needs of the learners, fails to achieve the desired objectives. It is therefore obvious, that the decline in the standard of English in different countries is the consequence of inadequacies of various degrees and at various levels of their educational system

Educationists and teachers are not clear about the specific objectives of teaching English or the methods to be adopted to make English-teaching more meaningful and effective⁸⁰. The so-called foundation course is a misnomer, because it neither lays the foundation, nor aids in the construction of the superstructure. It is only by examining the needs of the learners according to their priorities, that general goals can be translated into more specific claims of what the language course should set out to achieve. In framing a heavily content-based syllabus, academicians seem to be acting on the assumption that teaching literature will automatically help the acquisition of language skills. Here again, we can see that the paradox persists. While the aims of teaching literary master pieces are high, the achievements continue to be low. What is the use of teaching the lofty works of Shakespeare and Milton, when our students are unable to speak or write even simple English correctly?

The term “curriculum” includes the totality of the knowledge that is expected to be imparted to the learner in a school, lyceum or college. It provides a comprehensive plan on which the entire system of learning and teaching can be based. Hence, the curriculum should plan the use of receptive and productive skills, mastery of vocabulary, and acquaintance with the culture and literature of the people who use English as their first language⁸¹.

Of the four language skills, vocabulary is not only one of the most

⁸⁰ Pike K. L. Linguistic research as pedagogical support. – 1980. - Pp.40- 43.

⁸¹ Мирульд Р.П., Максимова И.Р. Современные концептуальные принципы коммуникативного обучения иностранным языкам // Иностранные языки в школе. – М, 2000. - №4. – С. 9- 15.

difficult but also the most important. Ironically, however, the most important skill remains the most neglected and the least significant of our pedagogical concerns.

While preparing course books for study, editors should, as far as possible, choose texts so, that student's interest is immediately generated by the familiarity of the content or theme of the text. A text which is closer to the student in time, place and thought, assists in creating an atmosphere that is conducive to the learning process. This enables the learner to comprehend the text better, gain valuable insights into the creative mind, and ultimately lead him on towards creative writing itself.

We should study both theoretical and practical approaches of teaching vocabulary. Moreover, knowing the vocabulary selecting criteria is significant for an effective learning.

According to psychologists, human beings learn the life experiences by words, because thoughts are made by words. Word is a central unit of a language: language first of all is the system of words. The main practical aim of teaching vocabulary in schools and secondary schools is to form the pupils' vocabulary skills as a basic component of all the language activities. But when we speak about vocabulary we shouldn't forget that vocabulary and words are not the same.

Learning a new language is basically a matter of learning the vocabulary of that language. Not being able to find the words you need to express is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language. Of course vocabulary is not the whole of the language. The system of the language (its 'grammar' or 'structure') is also important: how the plural is formed, how past tense is signified and so on.

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

have the vocabulary we need, it is usually possible to communicate.

Anyone who learns a new language is likely to recognize more words than he can produce. It is difficult to produce a word correctly. One has to pronounce or spell it in the right way, use it in the correct grammatical form, use it appropriately with the correct words coming before and after it and so on. It may therefore be important for a teacher to decide which words she wishes the students to produce correctly. These words form the 'productive' or 'active (productive)' vocabulary. The teacher also should decide which words she wishes her students merely to recognize. These words form the 'receptive' or 'passive (receptive)' vocabulary. Producing (speaking or writing) words in the target language makes much greater demands on the learner. Of course in productive vocabulary, the learner has an advantage in that he is able to choose which word he wishes to use: whereas in receptive vocabulary (as in listening or reading) he has to handle whatever language the speaker or writer uses.

1.2 What is vocabulary and what needs to be taught?

Vocabulary can be defined, roughly, as the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word: for example, *pen-holder* and *merry-go-round*, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea. There are also multi-word idioms such as *take the bull by the horns*, where the meaning of the phrase cannot be deduced from an analysis of the component words. A useful convention is to cover all such cases by talking about vocabulary "items" rather than "words". It is also called mental lexicon that is "vocabulary in mind"⁸². It consists of the smallest independent meaningful units of speech. These units of speech are called words. The words have word forms and

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

meanings assigned to them. Words in mental lexicon create lexical networks. Once activated a lexical item stimulates other associated lexical items and this causes activation of a bigger network. To access mental lexicon an idea has to be mapped onto meaning and form that are stored in our memory. Mental lexicon performs the functions of word storage, retrieval, comprehension and use. Storage of words in mental lexicon is the result of a person's cognitive processes in real-world situations. As a result of cognitive processes, the words make up the situation sets (associated with a particular situation, objects, phenomena or processes), semantic sets (associated with a concept) and collocation sets (associated with other words by habitual everyday use).

Language is created and developed by the society, people only because of requirements of communication constantly accompanied to the labour and the whole life of peoples and its satisfaction turned out to be necessary. That is why the language as means of communication was and always remains the constant participant of all sides of society and activity of collective. Vocabulary work is inseparably connected with all the other aspects of the language:

a) With pronunciation: lexical meaning are expressed with the help of phonic means of a language: - short and long vowels (fill- feel, knit- neat):

- open and close vowels (beg- bag)

- voiceless and voiced consonants (lad- let)

b) With morphology:

c) With syntax,

d) With spelling: fair tale – fare tail;

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

By vocabulary skills we mean the ability:

- To transfer of a word from distant memory to immediate memory;

(Retrieval of words from memory is done through the activation of mental lexicon. Activation is caused by attempts to map an idea onto the words in memory. Sometimes meaning cannot be mapped onto the words and this causes the “tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon” when the meaning needs to be expressed but the form cannot be retrieved from memory).

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

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

- To choose the proper paradigmatic form of the word quickly suitable for a particular structure (The use of words in both speech production and comprehension is the result of cognitive processes. It starts with the perception of the situation that makes it necessary to look for a word in the “master-file” (the main storage of words)).

What needs to be taught? The learner has to know what a word sounds like (its pronunciation) and what it looks like (its spelling). These are fairly obvious characteristics, and one or the other will be perceived by the learner

when encountering the item for the first time. In teaching, we need to make sure that both these aspects are accurately presented and learned. Another point is grammar. The grammar of a new item will need to be taught if this is not obviously covered by general grammatical rules. An item may have an unpredictable change of form in certain grammatical contexts or may have some idiosyncratic way of connecting with other words in sentences; it is important to provide learners with this information at the same time as we teach the base form. When teaching a new verb, for example, we might give also its past form, if this is irregular (*go, went*), and we might note if it is transitive or intransitive. Similarly, when teaching a noun, we may wish to present its plural form, if irregular (*foot, feet*), or draw learners' attention to the fact that it has no plural at all (*advice, information*). We may present verbs such as *want* and *enjoy* together with the verb form that follows them (*want +to do, enjoy +doing*), or adjectives or verbs together with their following prepositions (*wait for, listen to*). The collocations typical of particular items are another factor that makes a particular combination sound "*right*" or "*wrong*" in a given context. So this is another piece of information about a new item which it may be worth teaching. When introducing words like *decision* and *conclusion*, for example, we may note that you *take or make* the one, but usually *come to* the other; similarly, you *throw a ball but toss a coin*; you may talk about *someone being* dead tired *but it sounds odd to say* *dead fatigued. Another typical feature is idiomatic word use or collocations. They often serve as instruments of individual expressive power. Collocations are also often noted in dictionaries, either by providing the whole collocation under one of the head-words, or by a note in parenthesis. Teacher should appeal learners' attention to the differentiative features of idiomatic expressions with word combinations.

By methodological typology of the language material we mean distribution of

lexical units into groups in accordance with the degree of their complexity for assimilation.

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

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

- taking into account qualitative characteristics of words, that is formal, functional and semantic peculiarities of a particular word and complexity of its assimilation under the condition of contact between two languages. When people are speaking or writing, their choice of words is influenced by the situation they are in. A variety of the language in a communicative situation is called a language style. It may be appropriate to use an informal style with close friends, a neutral style with business acquaintances and a formal style with an employer. Often in communication it is necessary to select specific vocabulary that helps convey the message in the best way. People switch the vocabulary they use when they talk to different specialists or non-specialists, to adults or children, to indifferent or sensitive people. The selection of vocabulary for the purpose of achieving the best communicative result is called language register⁸³.

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

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

⁸³ Milrud R.P. English Teaching Methodology. - M.: Drofa, 2007. - P.93- 94.

- semantic approach;
- combinative approach;
- stylistic approach ;
- frequency approach;
- word- building value;
- words of polysemantic value;
- excluding synonyms;
- excluding international words.

The active (productive) minimum vocabulary is selected on the basis of topics and communicative situations, analysis of phonogram, dialogues, written speech.

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

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

1.4 The main stages of formation of the vocabulary skills

Stage I - presentation of a new vocabulary. Aim – to introduce a new word and disclose (convey) of the meaning of each word. Ways and techniques to convey the meaning of a word are:

Direct

- dictionaries – used in conveying the meaning of a word
- synonyms- items that mean the same, or nearly the same; for example, *clever*, *smart* may serve as synonyms of *intelligent*.
- antonyms - items that mean the opposite; *rich* is an antonym of *poor*.
- hyponyms - items that serve as specific examples of a general concept;

dog, lion, mouse are hyponyms of *animal*.

- morphological analysis (word building) - *You may wish to teach the common prefixes and suffixes: for example, it learners know the meaning of sub-, un- and -able, this will help them guess the meanings of words like substandard, ungrateful and untranslatable.* They should, however, be warned that in many common words the affixes no longer have any obvious connection with their root meaning (for example, *subject, comfortable*). New combinations using prefixes are not unusual, and the react- or hearer would be expected to gather their meaning from an understanding their components (*ultra-modern, super-hero*). Another way vocabulary items are built is by combining two words (two nouns, or a gerund and a noun, or a noun and a verb) to make one item: compound word, or two separate, sometimes hyphenated words (*bookcase, follow up, swimming pool*).

- context – if the number of familiar words big enough
- definitions – explanation of meaning in English with the words familiar for learners
- examples – situational and interesting information which can motivate learners.
- interpretation – if there is no equivalent in native language
- matching - synonyms, opposites
- familiar or famous (international) words

Visual

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

Translation

- translation by means of giving an equivalent
- translation- interpretation
- comparing a foreign word with that of the native language

The choice of a way of conveying the meaning of a word depends on the following factors:

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

How to work at a new word? - There are 2 ways: at an isolated word, in a context. How to work at an isolated word:

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

Work at a new word in a context is more widely used: in a phrase, in a situation, in a story, in question- answer form, in a talk, in a story with elements of a talk. It leads to better assimilation of new words.

Stage II – drilling. Aim: to create/ form the stereotypes of usage of a new word.

Stage III – situational (communicative practice). Aim – improvement of the vocabulary skills and developing of the pupils’ skills of using the vocabulary independently.

There is another point which is called inferencing (or guessing) procedures. Many language teaching programmes aspire to teach only about 2000 words. Are the remaining words learnt from a dictionary? Almost certainly not. If the meanings have not been supplied by outside sources, as it were, then where have they been found? The answer is, of course, that we guess the meanings of the words by hearing them used in a certain situation or by reading them in a certain context and guessing their meaning from the context⁸⁴.

Now we shall look through all these stages in details. When we speak about the lexical meaning it should be apprehend as the material meaning of a word. This is a meaning which gives the concept of a word. By the lexical meaning the word expresses the basic properties of the thing the word denotes. The lexical meaning of a word falls into two: the denotational meaning and the connotational meaning. Denotational meaning makes communication possible because words denote things, concepts, they name them. Ex the denotational meaning of the word «table» is a piece of furniture consisting of a flat top with four supports (called legs). The connotational meaning is a meaning which has a stylistic shade. It serves to express all sorts of emotions, expressiveness. Connotation may be shortly defined as emotional and evaluative component of the lexical meaning. For example, the notion of “white” can be expressed by different words: “bianco, white, weiß, blanc, safed” in Spanish, English, German, French and Persian. One can see that the expressed notion is one and words are several. Every word can express several meanings if it is not a term, for instance: whit paper, to whiten up, etc. Meaning is studied in linguistics and notion in psychology. Meaning of the word is linguistic term, it is given in dictionaries.

⁸⁴ Lado R., Fries C. Lessons in Vocabulary. - Michigan: The University of Michigan Press, 1990.

Four structural sides of the word- phonemes (in phonetics), structure (in lexicology) and grammar (in morphology) are studied in linguistics. Nowadays Indo- European languages consist of more than half million words. **People can communicate in a language using 400- 500 words. An educated person uses 3000- 5000 words to express his ideas in writing and speaking. A person should know more than 3000- 5000 words for reading and listening. Famous writers and poets use 20- 25 thousand words in their works.** Words are classified into groups according to some categories: lexico- grammatical (word combination), ways of word formation (simple, compound), groups of theme and terms and etc.

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

You can see the differences in the Table 9.

Table 9. Differences in the word notion

Relationships between notions	Uzbek	English	Spanish	Deut ch	French	Russian
Fully the same	Suv	water	agua	wasser	eau	вода
Partly	qo'l	1.arm 2.hand	1.brazo 2.mano	1.arm 2.hand	1.bras 2.main	рука
Fully dif f erent	Shanbali k	Lunch	Siest a	Herr	Grand	Суббот НИЖ

While introducing new vocabulary fully same words are translated, partly same words are introduced with word compositions, dif f erent words are given definitions. Words are very complicated with their meaning, material side (phoneme, morpheme, grapheme) and expresses connection between objects and circumstance (its denotations).

Pay attention to the following examples:

Uzbek	English	Spanish	Deut ch	French	Russian
Bormoq	Go	Ir	Geher	Ailer	Идти
kelmoq	come	verir	commen	venir	

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

Associative communication is very important while remembering and using new words. There are five types of associative communication: 1. synonyms; 2. antonyms; 3. equally related: table-chair (furniture); 4. widening of the meaning: table-furniture, apple-fruit; 5. connection of

notions: illness- death (reason- effect), soldier- army (part of entirety).

Methodic preparation of new vocabulary is done in two stages. First is a methodical process prepared by Methodist that the teacher should know. In this stage words are chosen, methodically arranged, and included in manuals. After static stage the next dynamic stage is done.

The term “choice” is widely spread in methodic. The phenomenon of making microsystem for learning of a pupil from language macrosystem according to certain scientific criteria is called a Methodical choice. A Methodist chooses lexicon using the following methodical terms: “resource of choice”, “criterion of choice” and “unit of choice”. “Resource of choice” means choosing lexical minimum from the language system. Linguistic minimum is usually chosen from the speech. Particularly active (productive) minimum is chosen from dialogues, fictions or from the daily speech models. Passive (receptive) minimum on the contrary, is chosen from the terms. Active (productive) vocabulary is used in oral speech, passive (receptive) is in written. Active (productive) minimum of foreign language in schools include approximately 1000- 1200 words. Passive (receptive) vocabulary is chosen based at the active (productive) minimum.

Frequent, widespread and available words are chosen according to “choice criterion”.

Combinability, derivatibility, polysemy, stylistically neutral and usage in making sentences belong to the next criterion.

The process of vocabulary acquisition has certain “laws” of its own. The first encounter with the word is sometimes more important than its frequency in exercises. That is why it is essential to “prime the word”, i.e. to prepare the learners for the encounter with the new word through activation of prior knowledge and creating the necessity of using the word. Development of vocabulary in mind depends on the complexity of the concepts that are

expressed with the help of words, because words with a concrete meaning are acquired easier and sooner than abstract ones. Learners acquire separate meanings of a word. First they acquire one component of meaning and then another. Basic terms (e.g. potato) are learned before superordinate words (vegetables). The storage of words in memory depends on the depth of meaning processing. The deeper learners get the meaning of the words in examples and associations, the stronger memory traces will be. Receptive skills come before productive skills and the learners find it easier first to understand a word and then to use it. The knowledge of a vocabulary item comes before the knowledge of a vocabulary collocation, i.e. the learners first acquire words and then learn how to combine them in collocations. Words are best remembered in their situational context (combination with other words) yet situational context can limit the potential use of the words to particular situations only. In a motivating activity the word is remembered the best. Motivating activities are more important than continuous repetitions.

→ In conclusion we can say that there is three-phase framework of teaching vocabulary. They can be broken down into three phases such as pre-activity, while-activity and post-activity (Table 10).

Table 10. Phases and activities

Phase	Activity
Pre-activity	Exploring vocabulary forms (word derivation models) Exploring vocabulary meaning (synonyms, antonyms, polysemy). Exploring potential vocabulary use
While-activity	Deriving words (e.g. creating the necessary form of the words) Using vocabulary (e.g. choose the right synonym) Communicating the message (e.g. describe the gadget)

Post- activity	Reflecting on task fulfillment Focusing on vocabulary use Integrating vocabulary with teaching communicative skills (reading, listening, writing and speaking)
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Questions:

1. What is the difference between single and multi word?
2. What other aspects of the language is connected with vocabulary?
3. What is vocabulary?
4. What needs to be taught?
5. How do you explain the term “mental lexicon”?
6. What kinds of abilities are meant by vocabulary skills?
7. What are the basic principles and criterion of selection the active minimum vocabulary?
8. What is the Methodic preparation of new vocabulary?
9. What is three- phase framework of teaching vocabulary?

Tasks:

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

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

2. As it has been mentioned there are some types of vocabulary sets

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

(situation sets, semantic sets **and** collocation sets), match the following vocabulary units with the types of “vocabulary sets”.

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

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

Every time I try to talk up a new idea to my boss, he talks down to me, or talks around the issue. I can talk back to him but fail to talk him into anything. We can talk over and out the problem but there is no way to talk him round. So we are just talking away. I talk up but we never come to talking through.

5. Find appropriate answer and extend your ideas.

What do you think...

The language classroom should have plenty of meaningful or role learning.

A teacher’s feedback to the student should be given frequently or infrequently, so students will develop independence.

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

Independent work:

1. Within on theme create a system of exercises for developing vocabulary skills.

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

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

1. [Short Vocabulary Activities for the ESL Teacher - Readers provide the...](#)
2. [Using the Internet to teach English for Special Purposes \(ESP\)](#)
3. [effective...for- teaching- vocabulary/](#)

2. Teaching English grammar

Questions to be discussed

2.1. Cognitive aspect of acquiring grammar

2.2. Selection of the grammar material

2.3. The ways of developing grammar skills

2.4. Principles of teaching grammar

Key terms: grammar, grammar acts, grammar mechanisms, grammar case, active and passive grammar minimum, productive and reproductive speech, speech patterns, grammar item, grammar skills, grammar exercises.

2.1. Cognitive aspect of acquiring grammar

There are a number of reasons why there occur different notions about “grammar” when one comes across this term. While it is perceived as a part of Linguistics in the course of mother tongue at the secondary school, in

teaching/ learning foreign language it is considered to be the grammar side of the speech. According to various scientific sources the word “grammar” could be limited in two notions: 1) the grammar side of the speech – the grammar cases found in speaking, listening, reading and writing the language (e.g., article; speech patterns; verb forms of the person) and 2) abstractions defining language situations (e.g., the first place of the subject in the sentence; the plural suffix of singular noun).

There are plenty of methodical literatures where one can see such terms as acquiring “grammar mechanisms”, developing grammar skills and others. The term “mechanism” is used to describe the events in action. It is more decent to use in short “grammar mechanisms” (V.S.Setlin) than “using grammar elements in speech activity”.

V.S.Setlin has divided the process of acquisition of the grammar mechanisms into three parts: 1) acquiring grammar acts; 2) studying/ learning ready material; 3) mastering grammar generalizations.

Grammar acts have the leading position in the grammar mechanisms of speech. Acquiring grammar act is classified by the formation of automatized skills of speech grammar. Learning the ready material of grammar is defined by memorizing grammar forms. Memorizing and using definitions, rules and notions is called mastering generalization.

Studying ready material is learning units of the foreign language, mastering grammar acts, i.e. forming skills. Linking words and grammar morphemes are learned as a material whilst change of words, word combinations and word order are acquired as skill.

The notion of grammar material is not a form of grammar case. The term “form” is associated with the structure of a sentence or a word composition, the content parts of words, linking words and items forming a word. It is more logical to use the term “grammar form of word” than “form

of grammar case”.

Thus teaching foreign grammar is associated with acquiring of grammar mechanisms.

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

Active grammar means grammar cases used in reproductive (as well productive) speech. In some sources active grammar is called as “grammar of speaking”.

The notion passive grammar, according to the methodical doctrine of L.V.Scherba consists of grammar cases and their abstracts used in perception (reading, listening). The term “passive” relates only to educational material, the essence of the pupils’ activity in education to be always active was admitted in both Psychology and Didactics.

As it is known L.V.Scherba theoretically substantiated two kinds of speech activity. His theory added great contribution to the development of foreign language teaching methodology in our country and abroad. P.Hagboldt devoted a special part to the matter of passive (receptive) and active (reproductive) assimilation in his book (*Language Learning*. Chicago, 1935.). Passive grammar was named as “recognitional grammar” by Ch.Handschin (*Modern Language Teaching*. New York, 1940), “visual grammar” by H.Dunkel (*Second language Learning*. Boston, 1948) and M.West (*How Much English Grammar? “English Language Teaching”. vol. VII, Autumn, 1952, N1.*) called it as “grammar for recognition”.

Many methodological research works reveal passive grammar with the term “grammar of reading”. As passive grammar has wider meaning in modern methodology, it would be more appropriate to call it “grammar of reading and listening”.

Micro-form, micro-meaning and micro-usage are recognized as the unit of grammar selection. The grammar cases for the oral speech of the pupil are selected from the live speech of foreign native speakers and speeches of fiction heroes in that language. The source of selection active grammar is spoken literary language. Passive grammar minimum is selected from written texts for written speech (reading) of pupils. There are elected grammar cases reflecting written way of speech.

2.2. Selection of the grammar material

Active and passive minima do not differ very much as in vocabulary (active minimum enters passive), active minimum is selected for 5 – 7- grades and passive grammar minimum is selected only for higher grades, lyceums and colleges and followed.

The formation of grammar minima directly deals with speech themes and vocabulary minima, theme and vocabulary are the paramount notions and grammar depends on them

The classification of methodical criteria in preparing grammar is as follow

Criteria of selecting *active* grammar minimum

1. Criterion of prevalence of grammar case in oral and written speech. The most frequent cases in people speech are “picked up” from the all grammar material.

2. Criterion of standing to be a sample. It requires the ability to form very many new grammar cases through the samples based on grammar units selected on this criterion. Well then the cases that can provide most vocabulary are put in this minimum (e.g., forming noun, adjective, adverb with the help of suffixes).

3. Criterion of isolation of mono-semantic cases. Aiming to prevent

difficulties the most frequent and stylistically appropriate unit is elected, i.e. one of the grammatical synonym cases is selected.

Criteria of selecting **passive** grammar minimum

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

The act of criteria in selecting grammar material is directly linked together. Some of them function as the main, others as complementary. Kinds of speech activity need various volume of language material. The most demanding in them are reading and listening. The volume of the material used in speaking and writing is relatively little.

The organization of preparing foreign grammar material requires serious approach, as the success of teaching is directly linked with the selection, distribution and methodical typology of the content. That's why the selection should be appropriate to the above criteria.

The next task of preparing language material is presentation of selected minimum. Distribution of grammar minimum requires functional (i.e., according to the task in speech) approach. Grammar is divided into no less than a sentence, communicative units. Speech pattern performs as a unit of distribution.

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

Reproductive way of learning the foreign language, especially based on speech patterns is bringing to expected results. The speech pattern was introduced into methodology in the 60s of the last century under another term. Then the notion "model" (modelling) was methodically researched. Up to now "the type sentence" in the present educational programs is recognized as grammar unit.

Grammar was distributed in two ways i.e., with the help of rules and speech patterns. The third way “vocabulary approach” is appropriate when the grammar case is presented isolated, i.e., if it is used in the only sentence, it needs to be learned without rule as a word (vocabulary). According to modern methodological requirements method of grammar distribution means “using primarily speech patterns, and if necessary grammar rules”.

The process of distribution consists of three stages: defining general sequence, distribution among grades and distribution in school year. Each stage has its own methodical criteria.

General distribution is measured according to the criterion of importance of grammar cases. In distribution of present indefinite and present continuous tenses of foreign language, the first one is considered to be the most important for speech process. Usually the most important grammar cases are distributed in initial stage.

Besides importance distribution of grammar among grades takes into account the criterion of correlation of grammar with vocabulary. Vocabulary is primary which in its turn influences on the distribution of grammar units.

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

The first and second distribution is presented in syllabus. The third one is reflected in textbooks.

The result of analysis of translingual and intralingual comparison of selected language material creates the basis to the stage of typology of grammar.

As it was emphasized in typology of vocabulary material, the learned

cases in grammar are also divided into kinds. The details of easy/ difficult acquisition are looked thoroughly. Identification of difficulties and their typology give the opportunity to create the system of exercises, work out methodical ways of teaching these cases and assign the time of assimilating the material. Typology of grammar material can be associated with typology of difficulties in the process of assimilation.

It is known that identifying the difficulty is a multistage methodical organization: analyzing speech errors, comparing languages (foreign language, native language and second) contacted in pupils mind and contrasting both results. The acts of analyzing errors, comparing and contrasting are performed according to grammatical meaning, form and usage.

Grammar cases are taught for developing speech grammar skills. For developing skills in the content of habits grammar skills pass through three stages: 1. Presentation stage consists of introducing new grammar unit, by this token explaining it and performing initial grammar acts. 2. Doing grammar exercises. This stage is mostly performed in creating skills. 3. Using grammar cases in kinds of speech activities.

The first and second stages are directly organization of teaching grammar, the third stage relates both to grammar skills and speech habits.

Grammar cases presented in speech pattern are introduced orally to pupils in the lower and middle stages of education, and in written form in the middle and higher stages. Grammar case is presented in speech pattern, as a rule, speech pattern and a rule unitedly, or as a vocabulary unit. The list of speech patterns in foreign language formalized by linguists and methodologists as corresponding models are known in the science as two kinds of rules: rule – instruction and rule – generalization.

Rule – instruction is a mental activity aimed at using or reading and listening comprehension of grammar cases, in psycholinguistics that studies

speech issues, this program is called algorithm. Introducing the rule is the advance guiding base directed to providing speech act. In other words, rule can be defined as a theoretical wing of speech practice.

Rule – generalization is simple theoretical information related to grammar material that was learned sparsely in the process of speech acquisition. The rule should be always short, accurately defined, aimed and directed to using or recognizing grammar case.

Rule and model are methodical notions with the same essence. Using model provides to capture letter images in person's mind. (Verbal) abstraction expressed by words occurs discursively. Speech patterns play the role of sample for composing sentences, where verbal discursive abstraction doesn't attend but there occurs analogy. Discursiveness must be limited as much as possible.

2.3. The ways of developing grammar skills

Presentation of grammar material happens inductively or deductively. Inductive presentation begins from example and transfers to abstraction; deductive one presents a rule (or a speech pattern) then practices examples. Rule – generalization appear when there are more than one example. Only one grammar case can be learned without rule on the level of vocabulary. Also in mostly used grammar cases one example is given lexically. Many factors should be taken into account in introducing new grammar case to pupils:

1. Factor of relation to the nature of grammar case. Similarity of the form, easiness of clear meaning requires using inductive method.
2. Factor of similarity and difference between native and foreign language cases. Similarity makes to use induction and difference makes to use deduction.
3. Factor of leaning to the experience gained from foreign language.
4. Factor of learning micro- units of newcases via different methods.

Using inductive and deductive method must be rational.

Organizational part of presentation stage involves three sequent methodical actions: presentation, control of perception and memorizing a new case as well as uttering to perform initial exercises.

Doing exercises promotes transformation of grammar cases into foreign language skill. Grammar skill is a complex of operations and acts that provides proper and automatized usage and memorization of morphologic-syntactic cases of speech. Morphologic skill involves formation and usage, operation and acts of forms (noun suffixes, verb suffixes, grammar units that came before noun, e.g., articles, prepositions, etc.). Syntactic skill includes word order, formation of word combinations. The skill of using grammar material is made up by changing words and inserting the words into place.

Development of speech skills of pupils is characterized by the process “stamping” of grammar cases. The stage of doing exercises consists of three parts: 1. Learning to utter grammar cases imitatively, any grammar act is limited by leaning to its sample. Performing imitative exercise binds to the next part.

2. There start doing exercises by making changes in the content of imitatively learned case. The familiar material serves to thorough acquisition of the new grammar case.

3. The previously learned and today’s grammar cases are used in oral and written form of expression. The speech orientation is common to the given time of doing exercises.

2.4. Principles of teaching grammar

Grammar language material is taught according to the definite methodical principles. Teaching foreign language grammar is conducted basing on the following principles.

I. Principle of developing grammar mechanisms. Teaching foreign language grammar is associated with developing grammar mechanisms. The grammar mechanism of the foreign language consists of three parts, as it was mentioned above skills, material and generalization.

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

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

Methods of developing grammar skill of foreign language is connected with peculiarities of speech activity and difficulties on interrelations of grammar structures of the native language, second language and foreign language are taken into consideration.

Teaching grammar mechanisms of speech must be fulfilled by taking into account the mother tongue of students from the one side and secondly by overcoming negative influence of mother tongue to the foreign language speech process: a) a rule is explained in mother tongue, where the meaning of grammar cases and their usage are expressed; b) development of reproductive skills are achieved by changing grammar acts and thinking operations that appear due to the mother tongue, changing systems and using methods of choosing to avoid negative influence of mother tongue. This is reflected in selecting exercises and content of rules. To avoid negative influence that results in difficulties translating and untranslating exercises are done; d) overcoming the attendance of mother tongue in the speech process of foreign language is achieved by decreasing and avoiding to use thinking operations.

The second content of teaching grammar mechanisms of speech in foreign language involves linking words and inflexions. Its acquisition requires

creating exact and steady images. It is achieved along with acquisition of skill acts and also by creating an opportunity to memorize the material.

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

II. Principle of communicative orientation: a) grammar skills are acquired in the content of kinds of speech activity; b) special grammar exercise is planned only in the initial stage of creating the skill.

III. Principle of practical learning of grammar. It reveals learning grammar cases that are important and enough for oral and written speech.

IV. Principle of teaching grammar in structure. Structural approach in teaching grammar is well-grounded measure. A new vocabulary unit is presented in the known speech pattern, and the unknown pattern is presented on the base of acquired vocabulary material.

V. Principle of teaching grammar in speech situation. In teaching foreign language it is referred as situational approach (in American methodology *role playing*).

VI. Principle of conscious acquisition of grammar. Consciousness is aimed at directing attention of the pupil to definite language elements in the learned speech pattern (sentence).

VII. Principle of differentiated teaching grammar. Based on the assimilation of active and passive units they are sorted into reproductive and receptive speech. There are different acts for reproduction and reception.

Besides the above mentioned general principles there are also private principles of teaching foreign grammar (worked out by V.S.Setlin).

The system of teaching foreign grammar (according to the doctrine of

V.S.Setlin) consists of forming grammar skills, acquiring grammar material and learning generalization. In its turn it requires doing exercises aimed at forming skills and acquiring the material. In short exercises are means of overcoming difficulties in material, acts and generalizations. There are some samples of exercises aimed at teaching EL grammar:

- 1.To discover the studied grammar case in the perceived text.
- 2.To differ new grammar from other known cases.
- 3.Naming the heard/ read grammar case.
- 4.To analyze the sentence grammatically.
- 5.To continue teacher's story using relevant grammar case.
- 6.To use grammar case uttered by pupil (teacher) in sentence.
- 7.To systemize grammar material (e.g., making up sentences in present, past and future tenses).
- 8.To use freely grammar case in speech situation.
- 9.To describe the picture in the present (past, future) tense in foreign language.
- 10.To make up conversation using the proper grammar case.
11. To use didactic handouts for grammar exercises (individual approach).
12. To translate the sentence (paragraph) that contains difficult grammar case, etc.

Questions:

- 1.What is grammar?
- 2.What do we mean by the active and passive grammar?
- 3.Describe the essence of methodical preparation of grammar and its stages.
- 4.Think over the grammar item, criteria and source of selection.
- 5.What are the stages of forming and developing grammar skills?

6. Describe principles of teaching grammar.

Tasks:

1. Analyze the ways of presentation of active and passive grammar in the EL textbooks of school, lyceum and college.
2. Work out the grammar exercises within one theme.

Independent work

1. Analyze the grammar exercises presented in the EL textbooks for school, lyceum and college.
2. Study the matters about technology of teaching grammar described in the book “Foreign language teaching methodology” (2012, Pp. 180- 186) by J.J. Jalilov.

3. Teaching English pronunciation

Questions to be discussed

- 3.1. The essence of teaching pronunciation
- 3.2. Distribution and typology of pronunciation material
- 3.3. Ways and principles of forming and developing pronunciation skills

Key terms: pronunciation skill, phonetic material, pronunciation minimum, content of teaching pronunciation (CTP), pronunciation norm, pronunciation unit, phonetic case, phonetic system, phonetic exercise, phoneme/ sound, approximation.

3.1. The essence of teaching pronunciation

Pronunciation plays a special role in the content of language material, as it requires the awareness of pronouncing and linking sounds of a sentence as well as following intonation. Pronunciation consists of three parts as hearing (acoustic), uttering (motor) and meaning (semantic). They have their own peculiarity of action in every language. Acquiring phonetic side of the language, i.e. mastering pronunciation skill is one of the core conditions of speech communication. There appear a question - Is it possible to achieve perfect foreign pronunciation? Methodologists have the exact answer: pupils learn approximated foreign language (proper pronunciation could be achieved in mother tongue and second language). According to the idea of approximation, it is available to limit the volume of phonetic material and have the lower quality of some sounds than native speakers. But the definite foreign sound could be the reason of changing the meaning, i.e. it could play phonemic role, in this case it is recommended to achieve the highest approximation, e.g., it is important to seek high approximation in long – short vowel sounds in English, voiced and unvoiced consonants in the end of the word, otherwise the meaning will be lost.

Approximation of the pronunciation is firstly characterized by the condition of secondary education, i.e. the unnatural climate of teaching foreign language, so pronunciation is more complex than vocabulary and grammar.

The main requirement is acquiring relatively fluent foreign pronunciation. Firstly it provides comprehension of communicants, secondly it demands acquiring middle speed of speech skill (it is known the speed of the EL speech means to be average pronunciation 220- 250 words in a minute. Keeping in mind that speech units exist only in sound images and that pronunciation is mixed with vocabulary and grammar skills, they are usually acquired integrally. Pronunciation skill is a unique language act that provides

the expression of speech units through relevant sounds

The issue of when to start teaching pronunciation was the reason of various discussions. It is not logical to select definite grade or stage in methodology as acquiring pronunciation depends on speech skills and habits. The following order as a general law is recommended for all schools: almost all sounds are introduced in the initial stage of education; the middle stage continues teaching new sound combinations, stress and intonation; in the middle or higher stages all pronunciation cases are developed. Hearing during acquisition of language materials as vocabulary and grammar develops pronunciation skill.

3.2. Distribution and typology of pronunciation material

Minimum of the EL phonetic (pronunciation) is selected according to vocabulary and grammar minima. Language material usually consists of active and passive minima. The notions of active and passive in phonetic (pronunciation) minimum are treated differently. Active and passive pronunciation minima are learned simultaneously. They are included in the complex language skills and appear in speaking and perception.

Active and passive minima are distinguished as follows: active minimum admits approximation, but it is not found in passive. Active minimum works in the range of limited phonetic material and in passive it is possible to meet variants of foreign language phonemes.

Pronunciation minimum is general for definite educational institution, for example, for secondary schools in spite of the language experience of pupils. As the sounds, sound combinations, phonetic cases and intonation of the learned foreign language compile pronunciation minimum

It is inevitable that all phonetic units of foreign language lexical-grammatical material occur in pronunciation minimum. But it is methodically

known that pronunciation units that are easy to learn are not taught in separate exercises, because they are not included into the content of teaching pronunciation. Thus minimum doesn't consider language experience, and the content of teaching pronunciation compiles cases that require special time and power for definite difficulties in acquisition.

There is a classification that takes into account the difficulties of assimilation of all units in different norms that are included in the content of teaching pronunciation (CTP): difficult cases referring to articulation, opposition, position and acoustics.

Pronunciation minimum is selected according to the following criteria: (1) the proportion of phonetic unit to the need of speech communication; (2) appropriate style for selection; (3) normativity of pronunciation; (4) prevalence.

According to the first criterion there are selected phonemes and intonemes that differ meaning, as pronunciation minimum includes all phonemes (but not their variants).

Appropriate style for selection takes as a base full style of pronunciation, i.e., literary, academic style (conversation style is not appropriate). Literary style could seem to be more artificial but it is more suitable to secondary education.

Criterion of pronunciation norm is close to style criterion, the task of which not to allow the inclusion of dialectal pronunciation into pronunciation minimum. It is recommended to learn phonetic sample, i.e. literary pronunciation.

Prevalence is also like criteria of style and norm. The most used phonetic units are selected and included into phonetic minimum.

On the base of these criteria pronunciation minimum is selected from the phonetic system of the learned foreign language. The most used phonetic

units in speech are selected and included into minimum. In keeping the criteria the phonetic peculiarities of the EL are taken into consideration.

In distribution of vocabulary and grammar material the first issue was to divide into active and passive. Distribution of phonetic material in pronunciation is particular. The listened (passive) and uttered (active) pronunciation units are not acquired alternately but simultaneously, there occur inner speech in listening and outer (oral) speech in utterance.

Distribution of phonetic material occurs according to the following scientific-methodical criteria: 1) speech orientation; 2) distribution of difficulties. These criteria act variously in different textbooks. The common thing is that the received lexical-grammatical distribution predetermines pronunciation distribution.

Typology of pronunciation material. The most appropriate methodic way is that phonetic material is methodically typed for forming pronunciation skill.

There are two types in methods of teaching foreign language. The first leads to find reasonable methods of teaching pronunciation through dividing all units of phonetic minimum into easy/ difficult.

According to the second type only difficult units of the content of teaching pronunciation (CPT) are divided into noted four (articulation, opposition, position and acoustics) groups.

From the content of typology we see that it covers sounds, sound units and phonetic cases. Typology of intonation is another kind.

Methodical typology of the definite language pronunciation units are considered in the stages of presentation, doing exercises and usage that are carried out for developing pronunciation skills.

3.3. Ways and principles of forming and developing pronunciation skills

The methodical term that expresses the least notion is “the unit of

pronunciation". It involves sound, sound combination, phonetic case and intonation. "Phonetic case" expresses the place of sound in the word/ syllable (e.g., the sounded consonant in the end of the word), opposition of sounds (long- short vowel), etc. The term that expresses the widest notion is "phonetic system" which means phonetic systems of mother tongue, second and foreign languages.

Presentation of the pronunciation material occurs through the utterance of phonetic unit by the teacher and hearing of the pupils. It is very important to solve the problems of presenting a pronunciation unit alone, in a word or in a sentence objectively for development of pronunciation skills.

Presentation of the newsound requires imitative and analyzed kinds of work. In methodology they are called imitative and analyzed methods of teaching pronunciation.

Imitative method is natural and simple. But it is based on unconscious acquisition of the language and its pronunciation.

Imitation requires from the teacher accurate pronunciation and from the pupil sharp hearing ability.

Analyzed method, on the contrary, requires the work through consciousness, which results in the development logical thinking. Understanding, thinking out and uttering of pronunciation unit is fulfilled through analysis.

Imitative method can be used alone when the existing pronunciation skill has a positive influence, but the analyzed method is always accompanied by imitation.

Phonetic exercises support to form pronunciation skill of the EL. Exercise is a mental action directed to repetition, acquisition and development of ways of doing.

Mastering pronunciation in the process of teaching foreign language

very much differs from learning lexical and grammar material, hence from learning native language pronunciation. Pronunciation is taught according to the following principles:

1. Using information of comparative analysis of phonetic systems of foreign language and language(s) the pupils speak. The steady pronunciation skill of the pupil who started to learn a foreign language often interferes in learning new phonetic units. Comparative analysis helps to define the difference and similarity between them

2. Synchronous formation of speech action and hearing images of pronunciation in foreign language. During pronunciation skills of hearing and speech action compose inseparable unit. Oral utterance is controlled by hearing analyzer.

3. Using reasonable methods in teaching pronunciation. Phonetic units that require analyzed method is limited in amount, that's why it is usually recommended to use imitation.

4. Taking into consideration important pronunciation peculiarities of the learned foreign language. Only the teacher who is aware of language experience and phonetic norms of the foreign language in the development of pronunciation skills can receive the expected result.

5. Wide usage of educational technical means in teaching pronunciation. Acquisition of phonetic material is not restrained by teacher's pronunciation. Pupils hear a live speech of the teacher, his/her recorded speech and speeches of other persons (speakers).

6. Separate usage of ways of pronunciation material presentation. According to the difficulty of foreign language phonetic units in methodology they are usually presented in a sentence, in a word or separately. Pupil hear the sound in the sentence, in the word or separately, but in utterance they learn some of them separately, and others in the sentences.

Questions:

1. What can you say about the core of acquiring approximated pronunciation?
2. What are the main principles (criteria) of selecting phonetic/ pronunciation minimum?
3. What elements does the content of teaching pronunciation include?
4. What backgrounds are put into the distribution and typology of phonetic material?
5. Describe the methods and ways of teaching pronunciation.
6. Name the principles of teaching pronunciation.
7. What do you think we should work on the pronunciation at lyceum and college?

Tasks:

1. Analyze the terms concerning the matters of developing pronunciation skills.
2. Make up exercises on teaching pronunciation.
3. Analyze the presentation of phonetic drills in the foreign language textbooks of school.

Independent work:

1. Find the additional information about ways, techniques of working on the pronunciation material at school.
2. Analyze the style of texts and dialogues for acting and reading presented in the EL textbooks.

CHAPTER 2. Teaching communicative skills in English

1. Teaching listening in English

The questions to be discussed

- 1.1. The difficulties of listening comprehension in the ELT
- 1.2. The cognitive mechanism of the listening comprehension
- 1.3. Ways and stages of forming and developing listening skills

Key terms: listening comprehension; linguistic skills; speaking; reading; writing; acoustic perception; pronunciation; psychophysiology; psychology; teaching listening; comprehension; pronunciation subskills; acoustic filtering; language skills; selective listening; listening practice; shadowing; multiple skills; audio text; cognitive mechanism; emotion

1.1. The difficulties of listening comprehension in the ELT

The speakers, as usual, try to speak turn by turn and try to understand each other. As experience, the speaking is the lovely language skills among human body. We can get different kind of information by listening. Communication is the necessity of human. Sometimes we are not able to understand the meaning of the speech in a full form. The main reason of not understanding is not to consider enough to teaching listening comprehension.

Listening is a skill in a sense that it's a related but distinct process than hearing which involves merely perceiving sound in a passive way while listening occupies an active and immediate analysis of the streams of sounds. In common the word "speech" means speaking, listening, reading and writing. It would be better if we say "listening- speaking comprehension".

During the history of teaching foreign languages listening comprehension come to the methodology of foreign languages teaching in the 1960. Listening was the brunch of speaking. There were not special exercises for listening before. As we know it is difficult to understand listening than

speaking. In this sphere we can compare two words, like “listening” – to understand the speech and “hearing” – one of the senses of human.

The man who is able to hearing tries to understand the information and by this way he will listen. When we say “Did you listen?” we try to analyze did he understand or not. In one word “listening comprehension” means to understand others opinion. “Listening” and “understanding” happens in one time. Just we can divide them in different sentences to express different meaning.

Listening, writing and reading will help you to get perfection. In getting information the main skill is listening. But among language skills the speaking and the listening are the part of oral speech. It is difficult to divide them when we use the term “Listening comprehension”.

In native speech we understand meaning and the form of speech immediately, but in foreign language it is difficult to understand. We should know a lot of words and word combinations, communicative grammar and phoneme of the foreign language. In one word skills of listening comprehension can be developed by lexis, grammar and pronunciation. Lexis will help you to understand the main idea of the audio text and grammar help you to understand the meaning of the text concretely.

If the speaker and listener speak with the same base it will be easy to understand.

One the brunch of language skills listening comprehension is the object and means of education.

Listening has a "volitional component". While listening; the desire to listen, as well as the capability to listen (comprehension) must be present with the listener for the successful recognition and analysis of the sound.

A listener as a processor of language has to go through three processes using three types of skills:

a. Processing sound/ Perception skills: As the complete perception doesn't emerge from only the source of sound, listeners segment the stream of sound and detect word boundaries, contracted forms, vocabulary, sentence and clause boundaries, stress on longer words and effect on the rest of the words, the significance of intonation and other language-related features, changes in pitch, tone and speed of delivery, word order pattern, grammatical word classes, key words, basic syntactic patterns, cohesive devices etc.

b. Processing meaning/ Analysis skills:

It's a very important stage in the sense, as researches show that syntax is lost to memory within a very short time whereas meaning is retained for much longer. They say that, 'memory works with propositions, not with sentences'. While listening, listeners categorize the received speech into meaningful sections, identify redundant material, keep hold of chunks of the sentences, think ahead and use language data to anticipate what a speaker may be going to say, accumulate information in the memory by organizing them and avoid too much immediate detail.

c. Processing knowledge and context/ Synthesis skills:

Here, 'context' refers to physical setting, the number of listener and speakers, their roles and their relationship to each other while 'linguistic knowledge' refers to their knowledge of the target language brought to the listening experience. Every context has its individual frame of reference, social attitude and topics. So, members of a particular culture have particular rules of spoken behavior and particular topic which instigate particular understanding. Listening is thought as 'interplay' between language and brain which requires the "activation of contextual information and previous knowledge" where listeners guess, organize and confirm meaning from the context.

However, none of these micro- skills is either used or effective in isolation

or is called listening. Successful listening refers to 'the integration of these component skills' and listening is nothing but the 'coordination of the component skills'.

It is very important to make and choose the text. It should be interesting and be adequate to learner's age. If the learner is interested in the text, he/ she will read it with pleasure. Activities in this stage would be interesting and easy including face to face interaction, using visual and tangible topics, clear description of the listening procedure, minimum use of written language, and immediate and ongoing responses and etc. So that learners can easily keep pace with the text and activity.

Listening to short chunks, music image, personal stories, teacher- talk, small question- answer, and interview may be applied in this stage.

The main source of getting information by listening is teacher's speech, tape recorder, radio: Any way, recording must be of an English speaker. Copying recording two to three times is preferred in order to avoid rewind which may discrete attention of the listeners, films, filmstrip, TV program and many others.

One more important features of listened text is to clarify its' simplicities and difficulties. It is significant to know difficulties and their causes.

Every speech Perfecting has its own difficulty. There are a lot of difficulties in Listening.

It is main problem to know and discuss them in studying foreign language.

The problems of perception especially perception of speech was work out by psychologies perfectly of world.

1. There are some kinds of difficulties which belong to language. The meaning is different, but the form of sound is similar (homophone) or the listening and understanding of passive voice are very difficult.

You can think that the homophone and passive voice clear to you in text

but there may be a little difficulty when you try to understand the meaning of audio text.

2. The difficulties which belong to meaning.

The taken information will be including what, where, with whom when and like that questions during understanding of facts or to know contact between them

Also there are some difficulties, which belong to general ideas.

3. The difficulties which belong to understanding of language skills.

It is enough of remember that the score of speech, intonation and the difficulty of mechanic written audio text.

All together the perception of audio text one time, to listen to unknown person the features of sound also may be prohibit to understanding it.

4. The difficulties which belong to the form of speech.

To answer in dialogue speech when we listen long and keep it in memory, they will make certain difficulties for pupils.

5. The difficulties which happen in linguistics.

They are linguistic lexis, grammar and phonetic. In lexical level there are pair concepts (for example the words which describe the sides of world) polysemantic, the meaning of word in permanent combinations. Auxiliary words and from Grammatik side the events which can't exist in mother language or phonetics side.

6. The destination of words in writing and intonation to be reason of depending text.

The structure of audio text (meaning – composition structure) is also a reason of it, because, it has close relation to the understanding the information. The factor which has great influence for comprehension the audio text is: logical suitable of statement and paragraph, the kind of easy and difficult contexts, participating of different words, and the similar

condition of meaning – composition.

The aim of giving information about difficulties, of pupil's listening comprehension, is to settle it by easy way. Remedy of difficulties demands time, work and doing special exercise. To settle difficulties in time hastens education process, and products the most suitable methods of teaching.

1.2. The cognitive mechanism of the listening comprehension

Listening is one of the main skill and a part of knowledge. The process of getting knowledge has sensitive and logical sides. These qualities come together is listening. The mechanisms of listening are studied well in fundamental science.

Psychologists called the first mechanism understand speech. It means some sensible changes. A person doesn't know language cannot hear this language. (Famous psychologist academic Alexander Romanovich Luria came to this conclusion after many researches).

This mechanism is closely connected with the mechanism of listening memory, while understanding speech it helps to understand a part of speech automatically.

In comparison with process of speaking during the processes of automatic understanding speech active analysis work, (famous psychologist N.I. Jinkino proved this idea in his scientific works devoted to the study of the language).

The level of understanding is connected with repetition inside the speech listened, the person who listens repeats the text he/ she listens inside. He/ she repeats difficult or unknown parts of audio text, but he/ she understands the text well the quantity of repeated text becomes less, it is recommended to teach listening and speaking together.

In listening there is a mechanism of comparison of the signals coming to the memory.

Comparison may be correct or incorrect depending on the person's previous experience.

Listener's experience is the trace left by listening and speaking in brains while comparison then listener becomes successful in recognizing them. If the trace left by listening is strong recognizing mechanism acts well, information listened does not leave in brains in full and only the trace is left.

Next mechanism is called anticipation, which means admonishing (guessing?)

When mechanism works there is the possibility to guess the content of the audio text (through words and combinations).

One more mechanism is understanding audio text logically.

By forming these mechanisms, the listening/comprehensive skill of students is developed.

1.3. Ways and stages of forming and developing listening skills

Listening comprehension is formed and developed by doing the necessary tasks.

During the activity, they are observed in their wholeness.

We know that for teaching listening given special time and it devoted to exercises. From the first lesson of FLT in schools paid attention LT till pupil graduating the school. Without general requirements of oral speech in educational program has the list of phrases which only devoted to LT. We must know that these phrases are for understanding the teacher's speech.

For teachers transpired that the grammatical and lexical material which assimilated by speaking and reading is also regarded to teaching listening. Teacher's speech is important for pupils listening. They should teach only in English.

Listening comprehension (LC) exercises are leading during the lesson. LC

is differing from other types of language skills and studies as a aim and content of education. The aim of practical learning is to take information in English. Content of all oral speech and reading materials is assimilated by LC.

LC as a means of teaching is used as a way of introduction of the language material in oral form (in a talk, in speech patterns); a means of forming well-set acoustic images of language phenomena (words) together with their meanings, which is ensured by multiple perception of the same material by the ear; a means of acquiring pronunciation subskills, because instruction only won't help pupils to pronounce a sound strange to their mother-tongue if they don't hear how it is pronounced by a teacher or by the speaker; and skills in an effective means of developing habits foreign language; a means of mastering the (teaching) technique of reading aloud, as the mechanisms of reading aloud comprises also acoustic images.

LC as the means of teaching permits multiple listening of one and the same speech material; while LC as a language activity constitutes a skill of comprehending speech by ear at single (presented but once) perception (presentation).

Listening is an act of interpreting speech that one receives through ears. Hearing is an act of receiving the language through ears without interpretation. In real life we can hear somebody speak but actually do not listen to what is being said. Listening is a communicative skill to get the meaning from what we hear. People listen in order to remember what they hear verbally or for the sake of meaning retention. They listen in order to evaluate critically what they hear or to give supportive empathy. They can derive aesthetic pleasure from what they hear or to produce a listener's feedback. They can fulfill the instructions in the heard text.

Listening to the spoken language involves hearing the sounds, recognizing words, understanding different accents, understanding intonation, coping

with “noise” (external interference and indistinct pronunciation), recognizing sentences, predicting the meaning, understanding whole discourse.

There are different ways of teaching LC in practice. One of them is teaching at first language materials then language skills. In this method first of all pupils' must study words and word phrases, sentences then pupils' attention paid to content of learned material. The result of these method is inefficient because it take much time, that's why it's undesirable method.

In second way, which teacher's use LC going with forming language skills. By teaching speaking, reading and writing pupils' practice (or train) the LC. Herewith paid attention for teaching language materials. This method is useful for teachers. Pupils practice LC during writing, reading and speaking, with it they pay attention to teaching language materials. This method is more effective.

Person who is reading or writing his idea can understand used language material. According to available materials, learning by LS (Language Skills) listening, speaking, writing and reading, formation of the accurate dynamic stereotype. It's difficult to take good results if not used one of them. One of the main way of keep in mind (which taken information), teaching LS each other.

There are special texts for LC without speaking, reading and writing materials. With the listened text they can practice other 3 LS.

LC is a means of assessment of 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.

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

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

When auditing the EL students 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 auditing: (1) linguistic material for auditing; (2) the content of the material suggested for listening and comprehension; (3) conditions in which the material is presented.

If to organize LC of a text presented by a teacher or using audio texts teacher must do: At first, introductory talk with the aim to prepare pupils for comprehension of a text by the ear;

At second, aim – to prepare students for listening, focusing on the situation and encouraging students to predict: a) working at the title of a text; b) removing the language difficulties of the text (phonetic, lexical, grammatical).

At third, setting an aim for primary comprehension of the text.

At fourth, primary presentation of the audio text to the pupils with the help of visual props (pictures, adequate to the content of the text) or verbal props (key- words, word combinations, phrases).

At fifth, checking up understanding of the general content of the text. Then setting an aim for the second presentation of the text; The second presentation of the text/ gist listening (for specific information) – to understand the text in depth – the words, details, structures (with the help of

verbal (graphic) props); Checking up understanding of the details of the text and summing up and follow up activities. You should do this tasks with cinemas.

The aim of assessments forming to LC skills and define how/ he know or understand it. For it, when fathoming, they should know (A.R.Luriya divided into 4): word degree, sentence degree, complex syntax unit and text.

During understanding the word the goes about active, passive, potential (secretly) dictionary. These levels are help understanding audio text but it's not effective assessment of LC. N.I,Gez suggested this separation: 1) shallow understanding; 2) general understanding; 3) fully understanding; 4) critical understanding. Understanding or not understanding content of audio text. Assessments by the second, third and the fourth levels. We widely use LS during FLT.

Systems of exercises for LC are divided into two: special and nonspecial exercises.

In nonspecial exercises LC teaches in passing. For ex: beginning of the lesson pupils should listen the teacher's topic. During the lesson teachers shouldn't repeat phrases which used during the lesson, don't translate into mother language.

Special exercises divided into 2 groups: preparatory exercises and real LC exercises. Some authors said that the first of them is about language materials, another authors said that it's conditionally LC exercises. The object of the preparatory exercises is acoustic signal.

The aim of preparatory exercises is preclude difficulties of the exercises.

To language exercises we can refer phonetic exercises aimed at perceiving separate words on the flow of speech by the year, separate comprehending phrases and understanding their rhythmic and intonation pattern, types of sentences.

The requirements to the speech exercises for TLC are as follows: they

should provide proper drill in LC with the regard of its psychological and linguistic nature as a language activity (limited time of comprehension, tempo of speech), peculiarities of different language activities (dialogue, monologue); they should be of training character, i.e. they should help learners to overcome grammatical, lexical and structural difficulties of LC not in isolation, as it takes place in language exercises, but in connected speech; they should provide the formation of auditing skills step by step in accordance with the level of pupils' command of the target language, the character of the text etc.

Exercises in comprehension of a definite language form (lexical, grammatical, phonetical material of an audio text).

Such exercises should provide intuitive comprehension of language material, which can be made possible if: a) well-set auditory images of language phenomena are created; b) long-term and short-term auditory memory is developed; c) inner speech in the target tongue has a developed, i.e. broken character.

Aim of the preparatory exercises – to remove linguistic and psychological difficulties before the presentation of an audiotext, so that the listener could concentrate his attention on comprehending the content.

For example: listen to a pair of words and say what sounds are the same in them; try to recognize a new word among the familiar ones (clap your hands...); name nouns which are most often used with the following adjective; define the function of a word (is it a verb, noun or adj).

Aim of the speech exercises- to develop skills of comprehension of speech under conditions similar to natural ones. These exercises teach pupils to divide an audiotext into parts, to state the main idea of a text, to extract new information from the text. Speech exercises are subdivided into exercises in auditing a) a dialogue and, b) a monologue.

Ways of checking up understanding. You can control LC:

a) orally and in writing;

b) in the mother tongue or in the target language if the pupils' level of mastering the target language is enough to convey the information;

c) extralinguistic and linguistic ways - draw, underline, perform an action. Pupils are supposed to know the requirements to auditing a particular text (e.g. the number of details).

- Multiple choice tests (choose the correct answer out of 3-4);
- Fill in the blanks in the graphic variant;
- Answer the questions;
- Choose a suitable picture;
- A discussion in the mother tongue;
- Underline the correct answer (or raise your hand when..);
- Make up an outline of the story;
- Perform an action;
- Retell the text according to the plan/ key- words;
- Put the pictures in the logical order, described in the story;
- Colour the picture according to the content of the text;
- Draw a picture of ...

Questions:

1. What are difficulties in teaching listening?
2. Tell about mechanism of listening process.
3. Does practice listening in the language lab help you to develop English skill?
4. How does it promote your learning?
5. Do watching movies or using video clippings help to develop listening comprehension? Prove your statements.
6. How does interaction with teacher or interference of teacher while listening help you?

7. What kinds of exercises are used for forming listening skills?

Tasks:

1. Choose one text. Tell about differences of voice. Recognize a word include not distinguishing between different sounds in English (e.g. /l/ and /r/ in "led" and "red" for many Asians).

2. Study the list of the difficulties of listening. Create the special ways or exercises of remedy these difficulties.

- Unknown language.
- Unintelligible manner of presentation (poor clarity of diction, etc.).
- Unfamiliar topic.
- Lack of own experience (have never been in circumstances).
- No visual clues (images, gestures, mimicry).
- No expectation about the text (the information came all of a sudden).

3. The listening exercises are given below as samples. Choose the text and make up exercises to the pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening stages.

- listening and filling in the gaps;
- listening and ticking lexical items and grammar structures used in the text;
- listening and answering questions;
- listening and ticking the true or false statements;
- listening and completing the chart
- listening and commenting on the content of the text;
- listening and reasoning;
- listening and picking up details of the text;
- prediction the content of text on the bases the given words.

Independent work:

1. Organize the work in the given sequence.

- Find ten interesting short jokes, stories, advertisements or poems (not more than a minute long) and record yourself reading them, each onto a different cassette.
- Borrow two or three extra tape recorders and place them at different locations around the room
- Put two or three of your cassettes next to each machine. Show learners how to 'play' and 'rewind' the tapes and how to keep the volume level down. Then invite them to wander freely around the different places, changing tape or location at will, with the aim of choosing their favourite recording - or, possibly, filling in a worksheet you provide.
- Make sure they play tapes softly and that they don't all gather round one machine - but otherwise leave the control of the activity to them
- Afterwards get feedback on what they enjoyed or learnt.

2. Project work "Types of listening"

2. Teaching speaking in English

The questions to be discussed:

- 2.1. Speaking as a speech activity and a skill.
- 2.2. Approaches to learning and teaching speaking.
- 2.3. Teaching speaking within a communicative competence framework.
- 2.4. Teaching dialogue and monologue.
- 2.5. Ways and stages of teaching speaking English.

Key terms: speaking; speech activity; oral communication; expressing idea; utterance; statement; monologue; dialogue; a means of communication;

motivation; associative relation; paradigmatic and syntagmatic relation; interference; reproduction; choice; arrangement; discourse; genres of oral conversation; communicative competence; stimulus; appropriacy; response; reinforcement; deductive; inductive; group speech; received; reproductive; constructive; models.

2.1. Speaking as a speech activity and a skill

Speaking as a skill of oral communication is considered one of the speech activities. Psychological content of speaking is expressing ideas. In a simpler way speaking as a methodic concept envelops: 1) the process of expressing idea; 2) utterance; 3) oral speech; 4) statement. Answering a question or even a whole monologue can be the expression of idea. So speaking is an integral part of oral conversation. Speaking is the use of certain lexical, grammatical or pronunciation phenomenon in the aim of expressing the idea. The proverb "First think then speak" proves this idea. So thinking is the usage of language material and expressing the idea is speaking skill.

Teaching speaking in English is considered as a medium practical aim, i.e. at the beginning stage of the education pupils learn speaking and listening but reading and writing used as a means of teaching. At the higher level, when reading and writing becomes an aim, speaking turns into a means of teaching. Speaking has three functions: a means of communication, a means of teaching and practical aim of teaching.

Speaking in English is a three part of speech activity. First of all the learner has to be motivated. In this part the intention of speaking appears. In the expressing part of the idea speaker begins to analyzing process began to work. Speaker needs to stick in memory (associative relation) for performing this process. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relation is also observed, in

paradigmatic relation inner connections is compared basing on different features of the word. It can be seen in the words with the same pronunciation but different spelling (write- right, son- sun); close in meaning (little- small); opposite in meaning (come- leave, give- take). Sintagmatic relation plays important role in learning to speak here we can see the usage of words in different word- combinations.

Speaker chooses ready word or grammatical units from the memory. Usually materials of mother tongue are always ready in memory. However interference is observed (order of words in foreign language and mother tongue).

The third part of speaking is performing or express an idea, pronunciation, namely, it consists of usage of it in outer speech. Realization of all these three parts helps to make speaking process⁸⁵.

Speaking skill should be taught closely connected with other skills (writing, listening and reading).

We can express our opinion orally in two ways namely monologue and dialogue. Teaching monologue and dialogue is one of the main requirements of the curriculum. The teacher should know the main features of both forms. For instance the usage of complete clauses and structural forms are essential for monologue, but ready models or elliptical sentences are essential for dialogue.

For performing oral speech learners should gain some psycho physiological mechanisms. They are the mechanism of reproduction (some elements are used in a ready form some of them are reproduced in the process of speech, for instance, prepared phrases consist of 25 % in the English speech), the mechanism of choice (speaker should use different words and speech patterns during the speech and they can be found quickly

⁸⁵ Jalalov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign Language Teaching Methodology. - T.: O'qituvchi, 2012. -P. 235- 238.

or slowly in memory toward taking shape of associative relations), the mechanism of joining (in the process of joining the words and sentences, the speaker will form new combinations), the mechanism of arrangement (while feeling the language in comparison with the abstract model operations of text arrangements are made not remembering the theories of linguistics), the mechanism of feeling beforehand (in order to speak fluently, it is important to feel the speech in advance what the speaker intend to say and be ready to continue the sequences, the mechanism of feeling beforehand appears in two meanings: to use the language material and predict the maintenance), and the last one is discourse mechanism (this mechanism is based on logical thought, when pupil uses it, consciously he estimates the speech situation and understands the speech partners ideas and gets it nonverbal manner, response properly, he uses main point and situation of speaking knowledge).

According to ideas of some foreign language psychologists speaking is not either a communication process or utterance but it is a means of statement or expression of the idea⁸⁶. There are certain genres of oral conversation. They are description (telling the details to an active listener), narration (telling the development of events), reasoning (telling one's train of thought to an active listener), identification (talking about one's likes and dislikes), language-in-action (people doing things and talking), comment (opinions and points of view), service encounters (buying and selling goods and services), debate and argument (seeking a solution and pursuing one's point), learning (use of language in learning) and decision making (people working towards a decision)⁸⁷. The ability to perform these genres is a proof of the skill level.

⁸⁶ И.А. Зимняя. Психологические аспекты обучения говорению на иностранном языке. – М: Просвещение, 1978. – С. 58.

⁸⁷ See: Milrud R.P. English Teaching Methodology. - M: Drof a, 2007. –P. 111.

2.2. Approaches to learning and teaching speaking

Speaking in the English language has been considered the most challenging of the four skills given the fact that it involves a complex process of constructing meaning. This process requires speakers to make decisions about why, how and when to communicate depending on the cultural and social context in which the speaking act occurs. Additionally, it involves a dynamic interrelation between speakers and hearers that results in their simultaneous interaction of producing and processing spoken discourse under time constraints. Given all these defining aspects of the complex and intricate nature of spoken discourse, increasing research conducted over the last few decades has recognized speaking as an interactive, social and contextualized communicative event. Therefore, the key role of the speaking skill in developing learners' communicative competence has also become evident, since this skill requires learners to be in possession of knowledge about how to produce not only linguistically correct but also pragmatically appropriate utterances. Drawing on these considerations, this subtheme first outlines the advances that have been made in learning the skill of speaking over the last decades. It then considers how this knowledge becomes the basis for teaching speaking from a communicative perspective. Finally, it presents the importance of integrating this skill within a communicative competence framework so that learners can acquire their English language communicative competence through speaking⁸⁸.

Up to the end of the 1960s, the field of language learning was influenced by environmentalist ideas that paid attention to the learning process as being conditioned by the external environment rather than by

⁸⁸ Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills. Edited by Esther Uso-Juan, Alicia Martínez-Flor. – Berlin, 2006. –P. 140.

human internal mental processes. Moreover, mastering a series of structures in a linear way was paramount. Within such an approach, the primacy of speaking was obvious since it was assumed that language was primarily an oral phenomenon. Thus, learning to speak a language, in a similar way to any other type of learning, followed a stimulus-response-reinforcement pattern which involved constant practice and the formation of good habits. In this pattern, speakers were first exposed to linguistic input as a type of external *stimulus* and their *response* consisted of imitating and repeating such input. If this was done correctly, they received a positive *reinforcement* by other language users within their same environment. The continuous practice of this speech-pattern until good habits were formed resulted in learning how to speak. Consequently, it was assumed that speaking a language involved just repeating, imitating and memorizing the input that speakers were exposed to. These assumptions deriving from the environmentalist view of learning to speak gave rise to the Audiolingual teaching approach. This instructional method emphasized the importance of starting with the teaching of oral skills, rather than the written ones, by applying the fixed order of listening-speaking-reading-writing for each structure. Thus, learners were engaged in a series of activities, such as exercises and substitution exercises, which focused on repeating grammatical structures and patterns through intense aural-oral practice. However, rather than fostering spoken interaction, this type of oral activities was simply a way of teaching pronunciation skills and grammatical accuracy. Consequently, although it can be assumed that this approach to learning and teaching speaking stressed the development of oral skills, speaking was merely considered as an effective medium for providing language input and facilitating memorization rather than as a discourse skill in its own right. In fact, significant aspects, such as the role that internal mental processes play when learning to produce new and more complex

grammatical structures, were neglected under this view. The task of paying attention to those processes was the focus of study in the following years.

Another approach is speaking within an innatist. By the late 1960s, the previous view of learning to speak as a mechanical process consisting in the oral repetition of grammatical structures was challenged by Chomsky's theory of language development⁸⁹. His assumption that children are born with an innate potential for language acquisition was the basis for the innatist approach to language learning. Thus, as a result of this assumption and together with the discipline of psycholinguistics that aimed to test Chomsky's innatist theory, the mental and cognitive processes involved in generating language began to gain importance. Within such an approach, it was claimed that regardless of the environment where speakers were to produce language, they had the internal faculty, or competence in Chomsky's terms, to create and understand an infinite amount of discourse. This language ability was possibly due to the fact that speakers had internalized a system of rules which could be transformed into new structures by applying a series of cognitive strategies. Given this process, speakers' role changed from merely receiving input and repeating it, as was the view in the environmentalist approach, to actively thinking how to produce language. Consequently, it was assumed that speaking a language was a decontextualized process which just involved the mental transformation of such an internalized system of rules. These innatist assumptions about learning to speak did not result in any specific teaching methodology. However, the emphasis on practicing exercises and repeating grammatical structures advocated by the audiolingual approach was replaced by "an interest in cognitive methods which would enable language learners to hypothesis about language structures and

⁸⁹ Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills. Edited by Esther Uso-Juan, Alicia Martínez-Flor. – Berlin, 2006. –P. 142.

grammatical patterns”⁹⁰. In this type of methods, learners took on a more important role in that they were provided with opportunities to use the language more creatively and innovatively after having been taught the necessary grammatical rules. Although this approach recognized the relevance of speakers’ mental construction of the language system in order to be able to produce it, speaking was still considered to be an abstract process occurring in isolation. In fact, this innatist view of learning and teaching speaking did not take into account relevant aspects of language use in communication, such as the relationship between language and meaning (i.e., the functions of language) or the importance of the social context in which language is produced. The consideration of these aspects took place in subsequent years.

There is also another approach which is called interactionist. This approach is based on interactionist ideas that emphasized the role of the linguistic environment in interaction with the innate capacity for language development.

2.3. Teaching speaking within a communicative competence framework

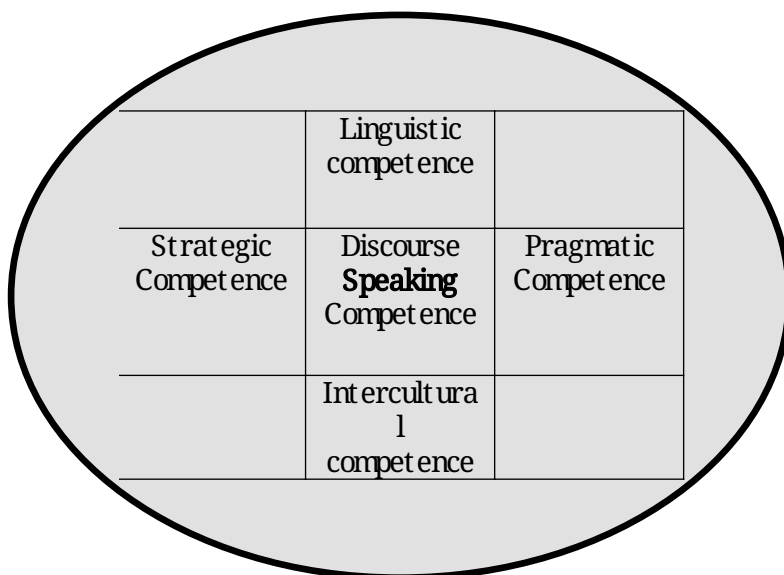
Communicative approaches to English language teaching have undergone significant changes over the past two decades. A strong background influence is associated with the work developed by Hymes, who was the first to argue that Chomsky’s distinction between competence and performance did not pay attention to aspects of language in use and related issues of appropriacy of an utterance to a particular situation. Thus, he proposed the term *communicative competence* to account for those rules of language use in social context as well as the norms of appropriacy⁹¹.

⁹⁰ See: Burns and Joyce, 1997. –P. 43.

⁹¹ Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills. Edited by Esther Uso- Juan, Alicia Martínez- Flor. – Berlin, 2006. –P. 140- 145.

Considering how a proper operationalization of this term into an instructional framework could contribute to make the process of English language teaching more effective, different models of communicative competence have been developed by specifying which components should integrate a communicative competence construct.

In such a construct, it can be assumed that the role of speaking is of paramount importance to facilitate the acquisition of communicative competence. Figure 1 shows the diagram representing this framework with speaking positioned at its core.



The proposed communicative competence framework has at its heart the speaking skill since it is the manifestation of producing spoken discourse and a way of manifesting the rest of the components. Discourse competence involves speakers' ability to use a variety of discourse features to achieve a unified spoken text given a particular purpose and the situational context

where it is produced. Such discourse features refer to knowledge of discourse markers (e.g., well, oh, I see, okay), the management of various conversational rules (e.g., turn-taking mechanisms, how to open and close a conversation), cohesion and coherence, as well as formal schemata (e.g., knowledge of how different discourse types, or genres, are organized). Making effective use of all these features during the process of producing a cohesive and coherent spoken text at the discourse level requires a highly active role on the part of speakers. They have to be concerned with the form (i.e., how to produce linguistically correct utterances) and with the appropriacy (i.e., how to make pragmatically appropriate utterances given particular sociocultural norms). Additionally, they need to be strategically competent so that they can make adjustments during the ongoing process of speaking in cases where the intended purpose fails to be delivered properly⁹². Consequently, an activation of speakers' knowledge from the other components proposed in the framework displayed in Figure 1 (that is, linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural and strategic) is necessary to develop an overall communicative ability when producing a piece of spoken discourse. Each of these components is described in turn below

Discourse analysis or competence produces distinction between interactional and transactional function of the language. The information-transferring function is called *transactional*. Transactional function of the language is *message-oriented*. The purpose is to get things done. Examples are science reports, news stories, eye witness accounts to the police, a talk between a patient and a doctor, etc. In all the cases it is necessary to extract the salient details, to sequence and to present them to the listener or to the audience. This function is performed for "bringing the message across" and for "getting things done".

⁹² See: Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills. Edited by Esther Uso-Juan, Alicia Martínez-Flor. – Berlin, 2006. –P. 147- 150. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000.

Other types of conversation are different. People chat with each other for pleasure. They talk in order to feel comfortable and to be friendly with each other. This function of the language is called interactional. Interactional function of the language is *listener-oriented*. The purpose is to “oil the wheels of communication”. Such speech consists of friendly dialogues⁹³.

Linguistic competence consists of those elements of the linguistic system, such as phonology, grammar and vocabulary that allow speakers to produce linguistically acceptable utterances. Regarding phonological aspects, speakers need to possess knowledge of suprasegmental, or prosodic, features of the language such as rhythm, stress and intonation.

Apart from being able to pronounce the words so that they can be understood, speakers’ linguistic competence also entails knowledge of the grammatical system. Thus, speakers need to know aspects of morphology and syntax that will allow them to form questions, produce basic utterances in the language and organize them in an acceptable word order. Similarly, speakers’ ability to choose the most relevant vocabulary or lexicon for a given situation will also contribute to the elaboration of their spoken text.

The mastery of these three linguistic aspects (i.e., pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary) is, therefore, essential for the successful production of a piece of spoken discourse since it allows speakers to build grammatically well-formed utterances in an accurate and unhesitating way. However, it has been claimed that it is possible to communicate orally with very little linguistic knowledge if a good use of pragmatic and cultural factors is made. These factors refer to the next two components proposed in the framework, which are also interrelated to build discourse competence through speaking.

⁹³ Milrud R.P. English Teaching Methodology. - M: Drof a, 2007. -P. 114.

Pragmatic competence involves speakers' knowledge of the function or illocutionary force implied in the utterance they intend to produce as well as the contextual factors that affect the appropriacy of such an utterance. Thus, speakers need to master two types of pragmatic knowledge: one dealing with pragmalinguistics and the other focusing on sociopragmatic aspects. On the one hand, pragmalinguistics addresses those linguistic resources that speakers can make use of to convey a particular communicative act. In other words, depending on the meaning speakers want to express, they can choose a particular form from among the wide range of linguistic realizations they may have available. On the other hand, sociopragmatics deals with speakers' appropriate use of those linguistic forms according to the context where the particular utterance is produced, the specific roles the participants play within that contextual situation and the politeness variables of social distance, power and degree of imposition. These politeness factors and the way speakers may use them to *save face* play a paramount role in successful communication.

Intercultural competence refers to the knowledge of how to produce an appropriate spoken text within a particular sociocultural context. Thus, it involves knowledge of both cultural and non-verbal communication factors on the part of the speaker. Regarding the cultural factors, speakers need to be aware of the rules of behavior that exist in a particular community in order to avoid possible miscommunication. For instance, the length of pauses within a normal conversation may be very short in one culture, thus making the speakers quickly look for something to say, whereas in another culture pauses may be desired, and even considered polite, given the fact that they allow time for reflection and prevent speakers from overlapping with other participants in conversation. Knowledge of non-verbal means of communication (i.e., body language, facial expressions, eye contact, etc.) is

also of paramount importance to communicate appropriately when producing a spoken text. Speakers need to pay careful attention to listeners' non-verbal movements, such as their body language or whether to maintain or avoid eye contact, in order to be able to repair their intervention if something goes wrong in the course of the exchange⁹⁴.

The last component included in the framework, which has been added to all the above-described competencies, refers to strategic competence. This competence implies speakers' knowledge of both learning and communication strategies. On the one hand, speakers need to possess learning strategies in order to successfully construct a given piece of spoken discourse.

As has been shown, a review of the changing patterns of how speaking has been viewed over the last decades has provided us with a better understanding of why this skill has progressively come to be learned and taught as a discourse skill in its own right. Once considered as the *result* of repeating and memorizing words in isolation or just combining a series of formal linguistic rules in the abstract, speaking is nowadays recognized as an interactive, social and contextualized *process* that serves a number of functions. Given this complex communicative process in which speakers need to take account of a variety of linguistic, contextual, cultural and interactional aspects among others, the task of teaching the spoken language has been perceived as a very difficult one.

2.4. Teaching dialogue and monologue

Dialogue and monologue are taught together in practice but their teaching methods are looked through separately. If we compare these two types of speech with each other we can see exact difference between them

⁹⁴ See: Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills. Edited by Esther Uso-Juan, Alicia Martínez-Flor. – Berlin, 2006.

Connection to the field	In dialogue	Marks	In monologue
communicative	in different ways	target	in one way
informative	exchanging	information	delivery
cybernetics	strong	communication	weak
psychology	alternative	speech activeness	directed
linguistics	shortened	method	completely
Paralinguistics	much	situation	less
Psychophysiology	changeable	task	exact

To teach following types of dialogue are recommended at secondary schools:

1. Information–exchange dialogue
2. Plan–dialogue (outlined in order to work together)
3. Discussion–dialogue. To speak one’s own ideas.

Every of them involves private language material and also it may belong to different stages of education.

In the information–exchange speech the interlocutors will exchange concrete information with each other. Its aim is to inform interlocutors mutually or unilaterally (one-sided) and it is used at initial stage of education because of being capable to utilize ordinary and less language materials. Whereas plan–dialogue is much more complicated in the form and deeper in the meaning. That’s why the learner should know future simple tense, imperative sentences, how to refuse his/her interlocutor’s opinion and to know how to defend his/her ideas in plan–dialogue. It is suitable at the middle stage of education. While complementing discussion–dialogue it is demanded to know subordinate clauses which linked due

to relation of cause and effect and to be able to use different means of modals. While using discussion – dialogue it is indispensable to know how to prove his/ her opinion, how to persuade his/ her interlocutor, to be critical and to find and prove faults. The attention of the speaker is given to the core of speech. Speech experiences become developed. Discussion – pair speech is used at higher levels (lyceum and colleges). Dialogue is taught in two ways: deductive (from general to private) and inductive (from private to general)⁹⁵.

In deduction entire sample of dialogue is considered as a main source. At first the sample is given to listening as a collection of dialogue identity then it is learned by heart afterwards there will be lexical changes, and it is worked on part to part and then it will be performed. According to opinion of the supporters of this trend this direction is accustomed to learn language naturally i.e. "from the top to the low" (deductive). But in this direction learner cannot use language materials in his/ her speech independently and he learns everything unconsciously and cannot have independent ideas.

In induction learners learn how to work independently with beginning of simple units. Here it is not forbidden to use mount – sample but it is not for learning by heart, it is just for imitating and working on speech activities language material is also learnt. Due to this resolve to learn identity of dialogue by heart, to utilize phrases together, to make grammatical and lexical changes in replicas are not forbidden.

Usually dialogue begins with phrases which tempt to speak, to ask and to inform. At the beginning stage it is better to use questions and urgings, in the middle and higher stages information is suitable. Speaking

⁹⁵ Jalalov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign Language Teaching Methodology. - T.: O'qituvchi, 2012. -P. 245- 246.

manners of the members may be controlled beforehand - programming (algorithmic) or without controlling may be performed as a free conversation (asking questions and answering). In situational dialogue attention is given to the theme, aim and roles. Theme is to choose a topic for dialogue, resolve of speaking is to determine right commitment and roles mean to find suitable interlocutors. All mentioned things are loaded for teachers. Every member of dialogue is considered as actors of roles. It means learner is an "actor" whereas teacher is a producer, a listener and a prompter in one time.

The dialogue which is used for developing and forming of speech practice is recommended to teach by special speech activities except prepared ones. To teach dialogue involves to learn pieces of practice: to know his/her own speech task, to make a plan for conversation, to make partly changes during conversation, to be initiator, to make a situation to his/her partner in order to perform his/her task, reaction to his/her partner according to speech situation and to attract his/her partner's attention to conversation.

If these dialogue experiences are developed, learners can afford to exchange their ideas.

The widened form of dialogue is group speech (more than two learners).

To speak in pairs or in groups in foreign language is organized by means of inclination or motivation. Such factors of motivation (inclination) includes demonstration, listened or read text, film transparency film or extract), slides and of course verbal speech situations. They are very important especially at the early stage of speaking.

There are received, reproductive and constructive stages of teaching dialogue. In first stage learner listens teacher's speech and comprehends it. In reproductive stage learner make his/her own phrase imitating given

sample and learner may learn text by heart at home, and retell the text with some changes.

While expressing ideas it can be used both a separate word and even the whole text as a speech material. For example: What is your name? –The word “name” is the replica of the answer. Dialogue is considered situational whereas monologue is a speech based on an exact topic. That’s why it monologue is somehow more complicated than dialogue.

There are some stages of teaching monologues according to the theme:

1. Using the experience of language and personal life
2. Expressing ideas gradually
3. Make all the spoken information together
4. Showing one’s own opinion

When the learner uses language experience he/ she tries to utilize its most necessary linguistic and lexical sides. So, for showing what you think, principals of language and moving them into speech are also important. In the first stage, forming exercises are very helpful. In the next stage it is better to use developing exercises. And then some exercises are done by learners as: examples from real daily and family life and then let the pupils tell these examples in turn. Content of speech is more deeply expressed than using experience.

In the next step, all the information will be expressed in an integrated form. While speaking learners feel free and will be more independent. And they use the facts which they got from reading and listening. When they manage to get to the peak of speaking on the exact topic, they do some exercises like: using some facts corresponding to the topic, showing personal attitude towards some events. During this period they use widely some phrases and word combinations as: “to my mind”, “it is clear that”, “there is no doubt”, “I believe that” etc.

With the help of the following stages we can show clearly how to teach monologues⁹⁶:

1. With the help of teacher using speech examples

Telling it with some changes

a) inner lexical change

b) enrichment

c) transformation(changing the form)

e) finishing(completing)

Using it independently

2. Learners express their opinions according to the teachers' help

3. Learners show their speaking ability with the help of verbal and visual aids without teachers' help.

In the end, learners make a kind of connected text, and their opinions will be ready about this topic.

2.5. Ways and stages of teaching speaking English

Some aims, criteria, and principles are specific to particular disciplines, while others are more general. Scientists typically speak differently than literary critics, philosophers differently than sociologists. In some fields, presentations typically include visual presentations of data or other material, using PowerPoint, overheads, slides, or posters. In other disciplines, the unaccompanied spoken word is more customary. Language styles range from relatively unadorned scientific discourse to more poetic or expressive first-person speech. Genres vary as well. Discussions about a common research project within a scientific laboratory differ from discussions about the meaning of a poem or an oration. Arguments about politics take different

⁹⁶ Г.В. Рогова. Методика обучения иностранному языку в средней школе. - М, 1991.

shape than arguments about scientific experiments.

To teach field-specific elements of speaking, instructors should consider two questions: (1) what kinds or genres of speaking do learners in my field need to master? (2) what characterizes effective speech in each of these different genres?

While some criteria and genres are discipline-specific, there are also overarching principles of good speaking that are worth teaching learners. One very useful schema is audience, purpose, and occasion. Good speakers should always consider relevant traits of the audience they are addressing—e.g. their knowledge of the topic, level of understanding, interest, expectations, beliefs, and their perceptions of the speaker. Considering these traits will help a speaker to determine what sorts of background material they need to provide, how technical or complex they can be, what arguments are most likely to be persuasive, and how entertaining they need to be to keep the audience involved.

In addition, good speakers should be clear about their own purposes—is it to explain? to inform? to argue? to provoke? to move? to entertain? to display their abilities? to establish social connections? Often times speakers have more than one purpose, but clarity about purpose generally determines what will be said.

Finally, good speakers should recognize the resources, constraints, and conventions tied up with the occasion of which they are a part—be it a poster session, a job interview, a polarized community meeting, or an academic debate. Occasions carry different senses of what is appropriate in terms of language, organization, subject matter, and style of delivery. Considering the occasion helps speakers determine how long to speak, what to focus on, whether to speak formally or informally, what visual aids are called for, and a host of other factors.

Formal speaking instruction extends back to classical antiquity, where it represented a central component of the well-rounded education that preceded the modern liberal arts curriculum. Speaking was considered an art mastered by learning its principles, studying models, and gaining experience through practice. This classic understanding is still a useful point of departure whether the goal is having learners speak to learn or learn to speak.

Learners are most likely to improve if opportunities to speak are accompanied by instruction in basic techniques and consideration of good (or bad) models. This is true whether the oral activity is formal (a podium speech or structured debate), semi-formal (a class or small group discussion), or informal (one-on-one student discussions interspersed through a lecture). Instructors are well-served not to just 'turn learners loose' with a speaking exercise but instead to detail the aims of the exercise, criteria distinguishing good and bad performances, and principles the learners might draw upon to guide their efforts.

While formal speaking instruction has a very long history, the importance of informal or low-stakes speaking activities has been more recently recognized. Such informal activities can have a benefit of their own as well as contributing to higher-stakes speaking assignments. In general, the ability to speak in formal settings is grounded in and builds on more informal speaking abilities, both in terms of material discussed and in confidence as a speaker. Learners come to class with a wide range of experiences in speaking. Some learners have been encouraged to express themselves and their opinions from an early age; others have had no such experience or may even have been actively discouraged from doing so. Some learners find it very anxiety-provoking to address the class as a whole, while others revel in it. In order to provide opportunities for all learners to develop their speaking skills, instructors can use informal or low-stakes speaking

activities, especially early in a term, to provide experiences in dealing orally with course ideas and to raise learners' comfort level with speaking in class.

A useful informal technique is to have learners discuss a question or issue in pairs before opening the discussion to the class as a whole. This gives learners a non-threatening experience in discussing course ideas and guarantees that all learners have something to contribute to the ensuing discussion. Such a strategy effectively restructures the social organization of the classroom, from an exclusive emphasis on learners speaking to the teacher or to the whole class, to learners communicating with learners.

In considering audience, purpose, and occasion, good speakers should also remember that speaking differs from writing. Unlike readers, listeners cannot go back and re-read what they missed, and they don't have the benefit of paragraphs and headings to help them follow the structure of an argument.

In comparison with readers, listeners generally can't process as complex language; have a harder time following highly nuanced arguments, and face stricter limits on how much information they can take in. This means that clarity, organization, and focus are especially important if speakers want their listeners to take in new information and follow their arguments. They generally need to use less complex language, more straightforward sentence structure, and clearly focus on a handful of well organized main ideas.

Speakers should build repetition into their speech with clear, orienting introductions (e.g. "I will report on...") and summaries of the main points. And they should help the audience follow along by using transitions, signposts or 'oral paragraph marks' (e.g. "First...Second...Third," "My next point is..."), and verbal underlining of key ideas (e.g. "The crucial finding was this:.."). All of these techniques help to ensure that a speech actually communicates ideas to an audience.

Questions:

1. What is the psychological content of speaking?
2. How is the proverb “First think then speak” connected with speaking?
3. Is speaking considered as an aim or a means?
4. How do you explain speaking as a three part speech activity?
5. What is paradigmatic and syntagmatic relation?
6. What kind of genres of oral conversation do you know?
7. What approaches to learning and teaching speaking can you tell?
8. What consists of discourse competence?
9. What is the role of teaching dialogue and monologue in speaking?
10. What strategies of teaching speaking do you know?

Tasks:

1. Study the list of speaking genres, indicate real-world situations where these genres can occur. Some examples have been done for you.	
• Description	
• Narration	Telling a tale to a child
• Reasoning	
• Identification	
• Language-in-action	
• Comment	
• Service encounters	
• Debate and argument	
• Learning	
• Decision making	

2. Study your own style of oral speech. Mark the following statements as T (true) or F (false) with regard to yourself. Describe your communication style.
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1. I am a blunt person.	
2. I criticize people.	
3. I rarely admit I am wrong.	
4. I can gossip about a mutual friend.	
5. I compliment people.	
6. I use rude language at least sometimes.	
7. I like to talk about myself.	
8. I am a good listener.	
9. I push forward my ideas.	
10. I talk a lot.	
11. I don't mind talking about a situation where I was embarrassed, humiliated and so on.	

3. Match the following pieces of discourse with the type of language (“transactional” or “interactional”).	
<p>1. ... and with the acting in the film... you know... it really works well ... it's a great script to start with ... and all the jokes come through.. very entertaining</p> <p>2. ... one thing that I like about my age is that you have a sense of measure ... less and less of these highs and lows as teenagers have...</p> <p>3. Young prodigies are of course not confined to music ... take sports for instance such as chess or athletics ... many of them miss a lot in their general education ... their parents' expectations put them under stress as well...</p> <p>4. ... well ... you can have lots of emotions ... lots of love ... and you can keep in your emotions and would let it out in little bits ... it's all in your fancy and the more fancy you have the more</p>	<p>A. Transactional discourse</p> <p>B. Interactional discourse</p>

romantic you are in fact it's been estimated that up to 40% of all drugs prescribed in the USA are derived from rainforest resources. These resources have been used for centuries...	
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4. Match the ways to set up a problem for discussion with the topics for discussion

Ways to organize a discussion	Topics
1. Obstacle to a desired goal	A. What makes business
2. Alternative points of views	B. A portrait of a happy family
3. Choosing among the	C. Is violence justified?
4. Rating items	D. Sleeping rough
5. Situation of challenge	E. How to remain happy?

5. *What do you think...*

1. The language classroom should have plenty of meaningful or role learning.

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

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

Independent work

1. Study the scale of oral testing criteria. Try to work out analog criteria for interview testing.

<i>Accuracy</i>		<i>Fluency</i>	
Little or no language produced	1	Little or no communication	1
Poor vocabulary, mistakes in basic grammar, may have very strong foreign	2	Very hesitant and brief utterances, sometimes difficult	2

Adequate but not rich vocabulary, makes obvious grammar mistakes, slight foreign	3	Gets ideas across, but hesitantly and briefly	3
Good range of vocabulary, occasional grammar slips, slight foreign accent	4	Effective communication in short turns	4
Wide vocabulary appropriately used, virtually no grammar mistakes, native-like or slight foreign accent	5	Easy and effective communication, uses long turns	5
TOTAL SCORE OUT OF 10:			

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

onestopenglish.com/skills/speaking/teaching-ideas/

3. Teaching reading

Questions to be discussed

- 3.1. Reading as goal and means of ELT
- 3.2. Reading as a process
- 3.3. Selection of texts for reading
- 3.4. Stages and exercises for development of reading skills

Key words: reading purpose, communicative approach, linguistic

competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, reading strategies.

3.1. Reading as goal and means of ELT

Traditionally, the purpose of learning to read in a language has been to have access to the literature written in that language. In language instruction, reading materials have traditionally been chosen from literary texts that represent "higher" forms of culture.

This approach assumes that students learn to read a language by studying its vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure, not by actually reading it. In this approach, lower level learners read only sentences and paragraphs generated by textbook writers and instructors. The reading of authentic materials is limited to the works of great authors and reserved for upper level students who have developed the language skills needed to read them.

The communicative approach to language teaching has given instructors a different understanding of the role of reading in the language classroom and the types of texts that can be used in instruction. When the goal of instruction is communicative competence, everyday materials such as train schedules, newspaper articles, and travel and tourism Web sites become appropriate classroom materials, because reading them is one way communicative competence is developed. Instruction in reading and reading practice thus become essential parts of language teaching at every level.

Reading is type of speech activity and the purpose of teaching at all stages. A person may read in order to gain information or verify existing knowledge, or in order to critique a writer's ideas or writing style. A person may also read for enjoyment, or to enhance knowledge of the language being read. The purpose(s) for reading guide the reader's selection of texts.

The purpose for reading also determines the appropriate approach to

reading comprehension. A person who needs to know whether she can afford to eat at a particular restaurant needs to comprehend the pricing information provided on the menu, but does not need to recognize the name of every appetizer listed. A person reading poetry for enjoyment needs to recognize the words the poet uses and the ways they are put together, but does not need to identify main idea and supporting details. However, a person using a scientific article to support an opinion needs to know the vocabulary that is used, understand the facts and cause-effect sequences that are presented, and recognize ideas that are presented as hypotheses and givens.

Reading research shows that good readers

1. Read extensively
2. Integrate information in the text with existing knowledge
3. Have a flexible reading style, depending on what they are reading
4. Are motivated
5. Rely on different skills interacting: perceptual processing, phonemic processing, recall
6. Read for a purpose; reading serves a function

3.2. Reading as a process

Reading is an interactive process that goes on between the reader and the text, resulting in comprehension. The text presents letters, words, sentences, and paragraphs that encode meaning. The reader uses knowledge, skills, and strategies to determine what that meaning is.

Reader knowledge, skills, and strategies include

1. Linguistic competence: the ability to recognize the elements of the writing system; knowledge of vocabulary; knowledge of how words are structured into sentences
2. Discourse competence: knowledge of discourse markers and how they

connect parts of the text to one another

3. Sociolinguistic competence: knowledge about different types of texts and their usual structure and content

4. Strategic competence: the ability to use top-down strategies, as well as knowledge of the language (a bottom-up strategy)

The purpose(s) for reading and the type of text determine the specific knowledge, skills, and strategies that readers need to apply to achieve comprehension. Reading comprehension is thus much more than decoding. Reading comprehension results is when the reader knows which skills and strategies are appropriate for the type of text, and understands how to apply them to accomplish the reading purpose.

Teachers want to produce students who, even if they do not have complete control of the grammar or an extensive lexicon, can fend for themselves in communication situations. In the case of reading, this means producing students who can use reading strategies to maximize their comprehension of text, identify relevant and non-relevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension.

To accomplish this goal, the teachers focus on the process of reading rather than on its product.

1. They develop students' awareness of the reading process and reading strategies by asking students to think and talk about how they read in their native language.

2. They allow students to practice the full repertoire of reading strategies by using authentic reading tasks. They encourage students to read to learn (and have an authentic purpose for reading) by giving students some choice of reading material.

3. When working with reading tasks in class, they show students the strategies that will work best for the reading purpose and the type of text.

They explain how and why students should use the strategies.

4. They have students practice reading strategies in class and ask them to practice outside of class in their reading assignments. They encourage students to be conscious of what they're doing while they complete reading assignments.

5. They encourage students to evaluate their comprehension and self-report their use of strategies. They build comprehension checks into in-class and out-of-class reading assignments, and periodically review how and when to use particular strategies.

6. They encourage the development of reading skills and the use of reading strategies by using the target language to convey instructions and course-related information in written form: office hours, homework assignments, test content.

7. They do not assume that students will transfer strategy use from one task to another. They explicitly mention how a particular strategy can be used in a different type of reading task or with another skill.

By raising students' awareness of reading as a skill that requires active engagement, and by explicitly teaching reading strategies, the teachers help their students develop both the ability and the confidence to handle communication situations they may encounter beyond the classroom. In this way they give their students the foundation for communicative competence in the ELge.

Instruction in reading strategies is not an add-on, but rather an integral part of the use of reading activities in the language classroom. Instructors can help their students become effective readers by teaching them how to use strategies before, during, and after reading.

Before reading: Plan for the reading task

1. Set a purpose or decide in advance what to read for

2. Decide if more linguistic or background knowledge is needed
3. Determine whether to enter the text from the top down (attend to the overall meaning) or from the bottom up (focus on the words and phrases)

During and after reading: Monitor comprehension

1. Verify predictions and check for inaccurate guesses.
2. Decide what is and is not important to understand.
3. Reread to check comprehension.
4. Ask for help.

After reading: Evaluate comprehension and strategy use

1. Evaluate comprehension in a particular task or area.
2. Evaluate overall progress in reading and in particular types of reading tasks.
3. Decide if the strategies used were appropriate for the purpose and for the task
4. Modify strategies if necessary.

3.3. Selection of texts for reading

For students to develop communicative competence in reading, classroom and homework reading activities must resemble (or be) real-life reading tasks that involve meaningful communication. They must therefore be authentic in three ways.

1. The reading material must be authentic: It must be the kind of material that students will need and want to be able to read when traveling, studying abroad, or using the language in other contexts outside the classroom

When selecting texts for student assignments, remember that the difficulty of a reading text is less a function of the language, and more a function of the conceptual difficulty and the task(s) that students are

expected to complete. Simplifying a text by changing the language often removes natural redundancy and makes the organization somewhat difficult for students to predict. This actually makes a text more difficult to read than if the original were used.

Rather than simplifying a text by changing its language, make it more approachable by eliciting students' existing knowledge in pre-reading discussion, reviewing new vocabulary before reading, and asking students to perform tasks that are within their competence, such as skimming to get the main idea or scanning for specific information, before they begin intensive reading.

2. **The reading purpose must be authentic: Students must be reading for reasons that make sense and have relevance to them. "Because the teacher assigned it" is not an authentic reason for reading a text.**

To identify relevant reading purposes, ask students how they plan to use the language they are learning and what topics they are interested in reading and learning about. Give them opportunities to choose their reading assignments, and encourage them to use the library, the Internet, and foreign language newsstands and bookstores to find other things they would like to read.

3. **The reading approach must be authentic: Students should read the text in a way that matches the reading purpose, the type of text, and the way people normally read. This means that reading aloud will take place only in situations where it would take place outside the classroom, such as reading for pleasure. The majority of students' reading should be done silently.**

Students do not learn to read by reading aloud. A person who reads aloud and comprehends the meaning of the text is coordinating word recognition with comprehension and speaking and pronunciation ability in highly complex ways. Students whose language skills are limited are not able

to process at this level, and end up having to drop one or more of the elements. Usually the dropped element is comprehension, and reading aloud becomes word calling: simply pronouncing a series of words without regard for the meaning they carry individually and together. Word calling is not productive for the student who is doing it, and it is boring for other students to listen to.

There are two ways to use reading aloud productively in the language classroom. Read aloud to your students as they follow along silently. You have the ability to use inflection and tone to help them hear what the text is saying. Following along as you read will help students move from word-by-word reading to reading in phrases and thought units, as they do in their first language.

Use the "read and look up" technique. With this technique, a student reads a phrase or sentence silently as many times as necessary, then looks up (away from the text) and tells you what the phrase or sentence says. This encourages students to read for ideas, rather than for word recognition.

3.4. Stages and exercises for development of reading skills

EL teachers are often frustrated by the fact that students do not automatically transfer the strategies they use when reading in their native language to reading in a language they are learning. Instead, they seem to think reading means starting at the beginning and going word by word, stopping to look up every unknown vocabulary item, until they reach the end. When they do this, students are relying exclusively on their linguistic knowledge, a bottom-up strategy. One of the most important functions of the language teacher, then, is to help students move past this idea and use top-down strategies as they do in their native language.

Effective EL teachers show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading

purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation.

Strategies that can help students read more quickly and effectively include

1. **Previewing:** reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection

2. **Predicting:** using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content

3. **Skimming and scanning:** using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions

4. **Guessing from context:** using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up

5. **Paraphrasing:** stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text.

Teachers can help students learn when and how to use reading strategies in several ways.

A. By modeling the strategies aloud, talking through the processes of previewing, predicting, skimming and scanning, and paraphrasing. This shows students how the strategies work and how much they can know about a text before they begin to read word by word.

B. By allowing time in class for group and individual previewing and predicting activities as preparation for in-class or out-of-class reading. Allocating class time to these activities indicates their importance and value.

C. By using cloze (fill in the blank) exercises to review vocabulary items.

This helps students to learn how to guess meaning from context.

D. By encouraging students to talk about what strategies they think will help them approach a reading assignment, and then talking after reading about what strategies they actually used. This helps students develop flexibility in their choice of strategies.

When language learners use reading strategies, they find that they can control the reading experience, and they gain confidence in their ability to read the language.

Reading is an essential part of the EL instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways.

1. Reading to learn the language: Reading material is language input. By giving students a variety of materials to read, instructors provide multiple opportunities for students to absorb vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and discourse structure as they occur in authentic contexts. Students thus gain a more complete picture of the ways in which the elements of the language work together to convey meaning.

2. Reading for content information: Students' purpose for reading in their native language is often to obtain information about a subject they are studying, and this purpose can be useful in the language learning classroom as well. Reading for content information in the language classroom gives students both authentic reading material and an authentic purpose for reading.

3. Reading for cultural knowledge and awareness: Reading everyday materials that are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldviews of the people whose language they are studying. When students have access to newspapers, magazines, and Web sites, they are exposed to culture in all its variety, and monolithic cultural stereotypes begin to break down.

Students need to follow our basic steps when they learn reading:

1. Figure out the purpose for reading. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate reading strategies.
2. Attend to the parts of the text that are relevant to the identified purpose and ignore the rest. This selectivity enables students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory.
3. Select strategies that are appropriate to the reading task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up skills simultaneously to construct meaning.
4. Check comprehension while reading and when the reading task is completed. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, helping them learn to use alternate strategies.

Using reading activities involves more than identifying a text that is "at the right level," writing a set of comprehension questions for students to answer after reading, handing out the assignment and sending students away to do it. A fully-developed reading activity supports students as readers through pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities.

As you design reading tasks, keep in mind that complete recall of all the information in a text is an unrealistic expectation even for native speakers. Reading activities that are meant to increase communicative competence should be success oriented and build up students' confidence in their reading ability.

Make sure students understand what the purpose for reading is: to get the main idea, obtain specific information, understand most or all of the message, enjoy a story, or decide whether or not to read more. Recognizing

the purpose for reading will help students select appropriate reading strategies.

In addition to the main purpose for reading, an activity can also have one or more instructional purposes, such as practicing or reviewing specific grammatical constructions, introducing new vocabulary, or familiarizing students with the typical structure of a certain type of text.

The factors listed below can help you judge the relative ease or difficulty of a reading text for a particular purpose and a particular group of students.

1. How is the information organized? Does the story line, narrative, or instruction conform to familiar expectations? Texts in which the events are presented in natural chronological order, which have an informative title, and which present the information following an obvious organization (main ideas first, details and examples second) are easier to follow

2. How familiar are the students with the topic? Remember that misapplication of background knowledge due to cultural differences can create major comprehension difficulties.

3. Does the text contain redundancy? At the lower levels of proficiency, listeners may find short, simple messages easier to process, but students with higher proficiency benefit from the natural redundancy of authentic language.

4. Does the text offer visual support to aid in reading comprehension? Visual aids such as photographs, maps, and diagrams help students preview the content of the text, guess the meanings of unknown words, and check comprehension while reading.

The teacher should remember that the level of difficulty of a text is not the same as the level of difficulty of a reading task. Students who lack the vocabulary to identify all of the items on a menu can still determine whether

the restaurant serves steak and whether they can afford to order one.

The activities the teacher should use during pre-reading may serve as preparation in several ways. During pre-reading the teacher may:

1. Assess students' background knowledge of the topic and linguistic content of the text.
2. Give students the background knowledge necessary for comprehension of the text, or activate the existing knowledge that the students possess.
3. Clarify any cultural information which may be necessary to comprehend the passage.
4. Make students aware of the type of text they will be reading and the purpose(s) for reading.
5. Provide opportunities for group or collaborative work and for class discussion activities.

It is necessary to present the sample pre-reading activities:

1. Using the title, subtitles, and divisions within the text to predict content and organization or sequence of information.
2. Looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs and their captions.
3. Talking about the author's background, writing style, and usual topics.
4. Skimming to find the theme or main idea and eliciting related prior knowledge.
5. Reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures.
6. Reading over the comprehension questions to focus attention on finding that information while reading.
7. Constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related).
8. Doing guided practice with guessing meaning from context or checking comprehension while reading.

Pre-reading activities are most important at lower levels of language

proficiency and at earlier stages of reading instruction. As students become more proficient at using reading strategies, you will be able to reduce the amount of guided pre-reading and allow students to do these activities themselves.

In while-reading activities, students check their comprehension as they read. The purpose for reading determines the appropriate type and level of comprehension.

1. When reading for specific information, students need to ask themselves, have I obtained the information I was looking for?

2. When reading for pleasure, students need to ask themselves, Do I understand the story line/ sequence of ideas well enough to enjoy reading this?

3. When reading for thorough understanding (intensive reading), students need to ask themselves, Do I understand each main idea and how the author supports it? Does what I'm reading agree with my predictions, and, if not, how does it differ?

To check comprehension in this situation, students may

1. Stop at the end of each section to review and check their predictions, restate the main idea and summarize the section

2. Use the comprehension questions as guides to the text, stopping to answer them as they read

Many language textbooks emphasize product (answers to comprehension questions) over process (using reading skills and strategies to understand the text), providing little or no contextual information about the reading selections or their authors, and few if any pre-reading activities. Newer textbooks may provide pre-reading activities and reading strategy guidance, but their one-size-fits-all approach may or may not be appropriate for your students.

The teacher can use the guidelines for developing reading activities

given here as starting points for evaluating and adapting textbook reading activities. Use existing, or add your own, pre-reading activities and reading strategy practice as appropriate for your students. Don't make students do exercises simply because they are in the book; this destroys motivation.

Another problem with textbook reading selections is that they have been adapted to a predetermined reading level through adjustment of vocabulary, grammar, and sentence length. This makes them more immediately approachable, but it also means that they are less authentic and do not encourage students to apply the reading strategies they will need to use outside of class. When this is the case, use the textbook reading selection as a starting point to introduce a writer or topic, and then give students choices of more challenging authentic texts to read as a followup.

Reading ability is very difficult to assess accurately. In the communicative competence model, a student's reading level is the level at which that student is able to use reading to accomplish communication goals. This means that assessment of reading ability needs to be correlated with purposes for reading.

A student's performance when reading aloud is not a reliable indicator of that student's reading ability. A student who is perfectly capable of understanding a given text when reading it silently may stumble when asked to combine comprehension with word recognition and speaking ability in the way that reading aloud requires.

In addition, reading aloud is a task that students will rarely, if ever, need to do outside of the classroom. As a method of assessment, therefore, it is not authentic: It does not test a student's ability to use reading to accomplish a purpose or goal.

However, reading aloud can help a teacher assess whether a student is "seeing" word endings and other grammatical features when reading. To use

reading aloud for this purpose, adopt the "read and look up" approach: Ask the student to read a sentence silently one or more times, until comfortable with the content, then look up and tell you what it says. This procedure allows the student to process the text, and lets you see the results of that processing and know what elements, if any, the student is missing.

Teachers often use comprehension questions to test whether students have understood what they have read. In order to test comprehension appropriately, these questions need to be coordinated with the purpose for reading. If the purpose is to find specific information, comprehension questions should focus on that information. If the purpose is to understand an opinion and the arguments that support it, comprehension questions should ask about those points.

In everyday reading situations, readers have a purpose for reading before they start. That is, they know what comprehension questions they are going to need to answer before they begin reading. To make reading assessment in the language classroom more like reading outside of the classroom, therefore, allow students to review the comprehension questions before they begin to read the test passage.

Finally, when the purpose for reading is enjoyment, comprehension questions are beside the point. As a more authentic form of assessment, have students talk or write about why they found the text enjoyable and interesting (or not).

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

1. It must have a purpose other than assessment.
2. It must require students to demonstrate their level of reading comprehension by completing some task.

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

Use this response type as a base for selecting appropriate post-reading tasks. The teachers can then develop a checklist or rubric that will allow you to evaluate each student's comprehension of specific parts of the text.

Questions:

1. Why reading is considered as speech activity. With what other types of speech activity it is interrelated?
2. What are goals and techniques for teaching reading?
3. Is reading a means of teaching?
4. Why is it important to use authentic material for reading?
5. Which strategies are used in order to stimulate students to read more quickly and effectively?
6. What material is necessary for developing listening skills of the students of college?

Tasks:

1. Tell about pre-, while- and post-reading activities. Give examples.
2. Analyse the EL textbook for school, lyceum, college to reveal the following items:
 - genre of reading;
 - authenticity of the texts;
 - effectivity of the system of exercises;
 - sequence of developing reading skills.

3. Think about the difficulties of reading. Choose the text and make up exercises to this text taking into consideration remedy work.

4. Think about scanning and skimming readings.

Scanning - speedy reading to extract specific bits of information

Skimming - reading to get the general picture, without paying attention to details.

What other strategies of reading do you know?

Independent work

1. Find the information about types of reading and prepare the presentation.

2. Selection of the text is conducted on the bases of the following criteria:

- authenticity

- readability;

- suitability;

- usability;

- resourcefulness.

Prepare the report about these criteria.

3. Prepare the presentation "Jigsaw reading"

4. Teaching writing in English

Questions to be discussed

4.1. Writing is the goal and means of EL teaching and learning

4.2. Content of teaching writing in the EL at school, lyceum and college

4.3. Forming and developing writing competence at school, lyceum and college

4.4. Approaches to teaching writing in the EL

Key terms: writing as a means of teaching, writing is a goal of teaching, encode, graphics, handwriting, spelling, text format, genre, layout, paragraph writing, text-sample, writing activities, stages of writing, three-phase framework, pattern power, meaning, mastery, dictionary skills, word building, writing activities, proofreading activities, challenge word, text-based approach, process approach, genre approach, communicative approach. spelling, writing

4.1. Writing is a goal and means of EL teaching and learning

Writing is a complex communicative activity. It helps to communicate in the written form with the help of graphical symbols. Writing is a type of speech activity as “a communicative skill to encode, store and send messages with the help of written symbols”.⁹⁷ The product of this type of speech activity is a text for reading.

Writing is characterized by the three-phase structure: 1) inducement-motivation, 2) analytical-syntactical and 2) operation. Under the first phase the motive appears as an intention to communicate. The author's message has an intention to inform somebody.

In the second phase an utterance is formed and pronounced: the necessary words for producing the utterance are selected, within a set of sentences, subjective area of indicators is distributed, the predicate or a key part of the idea organization between sentences is defined.

The third phase of writing is decoding of the idea/ message with the help of graphical symbols.

In the ELT the writing is the goal and means of teaching and learning.

⁹⁷ Milrud R.P. English Teaching Methodology. - M: Drof a, 2007. - P.182.

The goal of teaching writing is to teach production of written texts which students can write in the native language. To produce the written text students should master mechanics (techniques) of writing. That's why, in domestic methodology the two types of writing are distinguished: 1) mechanics of writing (handwriting, spelling, punctuation; 2) process of expressing ideas in a graphical form

Writing is meant as acquiring graphical and orthographical systems of EL by students for fixation speech and language material to remember it and support acquiring oral speech. Modern approaches to teaching writing recognize its dual purpose: as **a means** (a support skill) and as **an end** (communicative skill).

Writing refers to several sub-skills: putting words on paper, making sentences and linking them in paragraphs, developing essays and many others. So, writing is also a support skill.

At the elementary and intermediate levels it helps to think and to learn. Writing new words and structures help students remember new words; written practice helps students focus their attention on what they are learning. It is important for developing all skills. Writing serves as learning and controlling means.

It needs some forms of instruction and imposes an appropriate use of the language. That's why the operation and activities are divided into groups: 1) those designed to develop the writing skills and 2) which provided opportunity of practicing English. "A task which provides little or no practice for students to extend their knowledge of appropriate content or context or to raise their awareness about writing process is not really a writing task but general learning task using writing."⁹⁸

⁹⁸ Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. . In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. - Romania: Poliron, 2003. - P. 185.

To understand dual purpose of writing as a sub-skill and communicative skill in ELT we should examine the content of the Table 11 which summarizes the above-mentioned information.

Table 11. Writing as a means and purpose in ELT

Writing to learn	Learning to write
A means of engaging students with other language skills: 1) as a means of getting students to practice a particular language point; 2) as a method of testing it.	A purpose for forming/ developing a writing skill. Practice written forms at the level of a word, sentence, structure and content organization.
Activities: note down new vocabulary, copy out grammar rules; write answers to reading and listening comprehension questions, to written tests.	Activities: writing a letter, report, narrative story, describing the picture, combining writing with other speech activities - writing a response to reading an article, writing an annotation to the text, etc.

4.2. Content of teaching to write in the EL at school, lyceum and college

At the beginning level (2-4 classes) we teach graphics in EL (handwriting), i.e. teaching to write letters (alphabet) which interrelates with teaching reading as graphic-phonemic correspondence. Pupils must acquire print hand letters. At the same time we form elementary writing skills for conducting communicative-cognitive objectives in the written form. On the material of sentences and not complicated texts pupils must write:

- a) holiday and birthday congratulations in cards;
- b) personal data: name and surname, dates, address;
- c) short messages and personal letters;
- d) a plan, questions to short texts;
- e) description of pictures.

The second stage (5-9 classes) at school must provide more intensive development of writing skills in different situations of communication. Topics and capacity of writing messages is broaden; the quality of produced text in the written form is improved. The content of writing

teaching within this stage differs in its informativeness and is built on the authentic material. The samples of an epistolary type as letters, cards, articles from newspapers and magazines are used for developing teenagers' writing skills:

- f) to give the information about him/ herself, family, school, city/ town, interests and hobby;
- g) to write a short commentary/ letter in newspaper or journal with the norms and conventions of native speakers;
- h) to write personal data in questionnaire and registration document;
- i) to do note-taking (plan, copy out the key words, speech patterns) to use it for production of the text.

At an academic lyceum and vocational college the level of the language proficiency in writing must provide more effective using it as a means of teaching, self-learning and academic study. It demands involving the variety of official and unofficial situations, complicity of the produced texts, and high degree of autonomous activity.

The lyceum and college students must obtain the following skills:

- j) to describe events or facts;
- k) to send and ask an information in the extended form;
- l) to express an opinion, arguments;
- m) to comment events and facts using argumentative statements and emotional-estimation means;
- n) to write a plan and notes for an oral message;
- o) to fix a factual information during reception of oral and printed text;
- p) to write a summary, synopsis, annotation.
- q) to write a composition and essay.

4.3. Forming/ developing writing competence at school, lyceum and college

The success of writing as a communicative skill is a long-term process which is difficult and demands a lot of efforts from the teacher and students.

Sub-skills of EL teaching to write for the beginning stage: handwriting and spelling. There are difficulties related to: 1) inter-language interference: similar letters of the Uzbek/ Russian/ English languages so the native can get confused. E.g.: Tt- Tt; Pp - Rr: 2) intra-language interference: the letters which are similar in the EL are difficult. E.g.: b- d, p- q, t- f- l.

It is a very difficult process forming spelling skills in the EL. The process of forming writing sub-skills (handwriting and spelling) and skills (communicative) at the beginning stage includes a set of activities⁹⁹:

- **Pattern power:** Write the spelling words in which [a] is spelled these ways

a_____; ey_____

ea _____ ay_____

ai_____ a- e_____

- **Meaning mastery:** Write the spelling of words that complete these sentences.

- **Dictionary skills:** 1) Write the given spelling of words in alphabetical order; b) In the dictionary entry parts of speech are shown by using the following abbreviation: n – noun; vb – verb; adj – adjective, adv – adverb. Classify the given words according to the parts of speech.

- **Word building:** A) If you change the underlined vowel in the word, you can make a new word: blend +o = blond; B) The same sounds are often spelled in different ways. Write the spelling of words that rhymes with these words. See sample. Made – aid.

⁹⁹ The name of these activities were taken from the Coursebook: Cook G.E., Esposito M, Gabrielson T., Turner G.R. Spelling for Word Mastery. - Toronto, London, Sydney: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co, 1984.

- **Handwriting activity:** Practice writing of the given spelling of words that have at least one- two consonant blend in the word. Write each word three times, making sure you join the letters correctly: draft, stuck, blend, cliff,...

- **Challenge words:** Write the correct challenge words to complete the micro-text.

- **Proofreading practice:** Find the words that John spelled incorrectly, and write the words correctly at the end of each sentence.

The girl had a dream about becoming a great athlete. _____

- **Writing activities.** A) Complete this sentence to surprise your readers by writing a short story with an unexpected ending; B) Brainstorming is a good way to get ideas for a short story. Choose a spelling word, and write what it makes you think of. Write as many ideas as you can. Remember to begin the sentence with a capital letter and end with a period.

Teaching writing proposes mastering the text format as a typical layout of the text as a congratulation and condolences, telegrams, notes, signs, labels, captions, notices, menus, advertisements, personal or business letters, invitations, application for a job. CV (Curriculum Vitae), references, recipes, diaries, log-books, dictation, note-taking, reproductions, abstracts, summaries, reviews, reports, précis, synopsis, case-studies, projects, essay, stories, poems.

The knowledge for forming and developing writing sub-skills are presented in the Table 12.

Table 12. Knowledge for forming sub-skills in teaching writing

Knowledge
<p>Knowledge of the genre.</p> <p>Students should be able to recognize a genre, in which they are writing, grammatical and lexical choices they need to make in order to match the text to the writing purpose. This includes knowledge of:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>content</i>: the concepts involved in the subject area; 2. <i>context</i>: the context in which the text will be read, including reader's expectations.

Knowledge of the language system

Students need to have knowledge of those aspects of the EL system necessary for the completion of the task. They should also be able to organize texts appropriately.

Knowledge of the writing process.

Students need to know how to prepare a writing task: how to plan, draft, review, edit, etc.

The process of teaching writing is organized according to a three-phase framework: pre-writing, while-writing and post-writing¹⁰⁰ (see Table 13).

Table 13. Phases and their content

Phases	Content
Pre-writing	Schemata activation, motivation for writing, preparation for the language, familiarization with the format of the target text.
While-writing	Thesis development, writing from notes, ending up with a given phrase, proceeding from a given beginning phrase, following a plan, following a format and register, solving-problem
Post-writing	Reflection on the spelling and reasoning errors, sharing the writing with the classmates, redrafting, peer editing.

There are various tasks, techniques and activities for forming and developing writing as a communicative skill at the first and second stages of schools.

For organization of the work on writing an invitation we can use the letter-sample and instruction-rules¹⁰¹:

Look at this invitation

14 Ten avenue Prairie View, Missouri 64193 March 8, 2014	Heading
Dear Alex,	Opening salutation

¹⁰⁰See: Milrud R.P. English Teaching Methodology. - M: Drof a, 2007. - P.2007.

¹⁰¹ See activities in the book: Cook G.E., Esposito M, Gabrielson T., Turner G.R. Spelling for Word Mastery. - Toronto, London, Sydney: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co, 1984.

<p>We are having a pizza party on Sunday, March 2014, at 14 Ten Avenue from 3:30 –7.00 p.m. Please come and enjoy the pizza. Bring your discs if you like.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">Your friend, Mark</p>	<p>Body</p> <p>Closing salutation Signature</p>
--	---

This invitation has five parts: heading, opening salutation, body, closing salutation and signature. In letter writing, commas are important. Look at the commas in the heading, opening salutation, body and closing salutation of Marks' invitation

An invitation may ask you to come to the party. Invitation tells the date, time, and place of the party. It may tell you what to wear, what to bring, what you might eat, or what you will do.

Write an invitation to ask a friend to come to a birthday party, a skating party, or a picnic. Follow the example above for your invitation. Remember to tell your friend the date, time, and place of the party.

For writing a friendly- letter you can use the following instruction- rules and tasks:

In a friendly letter, you tell about yourself and what you have been doing. You can also ask your friends about themselves and what they have been doing. A friendly letter is like a friendly conversation

Write a friendly letter. Remember to write the heading, opening salutation, body, closing salutation, and signature, and to punctuate them correctly. Write an address on the envelope using the given below address as a sample.

<p>Moor City, Iowa 50573</p>	<p style="text-align: right;">24 Acorn Street</p>
<p>Ms. Marilyn Peterson R. G. Profit, Inc.</p>	<p style="text-align: right;">April 3, 2014</p>

414 main Avenue
Detroit, Michigan 48201

The next activity for writing is a description addresses to the 9- form students.

One day Bobur was sitting in the living room when he looked out of the window and saw his friend. He ran to the door to call him but he saw that he had mistaken a stranger for his friend.

Write a paragraph telling whom Bobir saw and describe the appearance of this boy. Proofread your paragraph for correct spelling, grammar and punctuation

The communicative exercises can be divided into four groups¹⁰², presented in the Table 14:

Table 14. Groups of exercises in teaching writing

Types of exercises	Activities
1. Reproductive using of formal supporters	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- reproduction of printed or oral text on the basis of key words or speech patterns;- eliciting of text content in the written form on the basis of a plan or headline of the text;- scrambled sentences for writing a text in the logical sequence.
2. Reproduction of the content on the basis of the text	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- questions to the text;- making a plan;- compression or extending of the text;- writing a headline to the text with arguments;- transformation of a dialogue into a monologue;- characteristics of heroes from the text.
3. Production on the basis of visual supports.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- describing the picture, photo; a fragment of a movie;- letter writing on the basis of a visual format- sample;- composition writing on the basis of the content of the text, the given pictures, questions or a scheme;- writing a review on the text, book, film on the basis of a format- sample.
4. Production on the basis of the language and life experience	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- letter writing;- composition and essay writing;- announcement writing;- writing a review on the text, book, film

¹⁰² See: Гальскова Н.Д., Гез Н.И. Теория обучения иностранным языкам Лингводидактика и методика. - М: Академия, 2007. - С.258- 259.

As we see, this system of speech exercises for developing writing skills is built on the basis of two principles: 1) from reproduction to production of the texts; 2) from verbal and visual supports to production without supports.

4.4. Approaches to teach writing in the EL

There are three main approaches to teach writing in the EL: 1) Text-based approach; 2) Writer-based approach, 3) Genre approach; 4) Communicative approach.

1. Text-based approach/ The product approach to teaching writing is oriented on the creation of a text as a product. The basis of this approach is explanation of the rules of using language units and features of discourse models. Technology of teaching is aimed at forming the language and rhetorical sub-skills. This approach stresses three features: grammar (rules for verbs, agreements, articles, pronouns, etc), syntax (sentence structure, sentence boundaries, stylistic choice, etc.), and mechanics (handwriting, spelling, punctuation, etc.). Besides, the teacher presents rhetorical models as types of a speech organization: (narration, explanation, reasoning, etc.) for the purpose of teaching formation/development of writing skills. Thus, teaching writing is built on the basis of samples of written texts and analysis of their structure and content, and then their formal reproduction follows.

The procedure of this approach may be presented as a schema: presentation of a text-sample for imitation or adaptation → writing variations of the first sentences, then paragraphs, then the whole text → checking the language correction in the text → correction of the text. The main criteria of evaluation are structural and language correction. So, this approach emphasizes accuracy rather than fluency or originality.

Writing techniques and activities can be characterized as controlled (for providing the content and form), guided (as free but a form is given) and

free. (Controlled writing proposes using the following activities: coping, gap-filling, re-ordering words, substituting, correcting the facts and dictation, or dictocom (a combination of dictation and composition).

Guided/ parallel writing is used when we teach paragraph writing and rhetorical models. Paragraph writing can be practiced when students mastered basic skills of sentence writing and sentence combining. That's why it is usually used at the pre-intermediate and intermediate levels.

Free writing is used at the intermediate and advanced levels. Activities: writing narrations based on picture/ pictures, description of facts/ events, etc., information, report, review, instruction.

2. Writer-based approach/ Writing as Process/ Process approach to teaching writing in the EL. The focus on the writer has led to the process approach which lays stress on the activities which move students from the generalization of ideas and collection of data to the production of texts (more publication). The process approach is the dynamic, creative, unpredictable and non-linear writing. It emphasizes the writing process over the product, which is recognized as recursive process (the stages are recursive or non-linear) that encourages student to explore topics through writing.

This approach is more beneficial for advanced students, because it belongs to the creative writing and demands complicated mental operations and activities as thinking, revising and editing.

The process of creation of a written product follows getting ideas, getting started, writing drafts and revising. That's why, during creation of the written product the following stages are organized: 1) prewriting; 2) composition/ drafting; 3) revising; 4) editing. The activities for usage of these stages are given in the Table 15.

Table 15. Stages and activities in process writing

Prewriting	Composition/ drafting	Revising	Editing	Publishing/ presentatio
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				n
For generating, focusing and structuring: brainstorming, mind-map, speedwriting, answering questions.	Writing drafting: writing plan, writing the first draft.	Seeing the first draft and developing ideas, structure and language correctness in using forms.	Editing the language errors (spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, grammar) and checking relevance of information, the order in which this is presented, the layout.	Presentatio n the product to the audience (to the teacher, or to classmates).

In the process approach, students explore a topic given by a teacher through writing, showing the teacher and each other their drafts, and using what they write to read over, think about, and move them on to new ideas. According to A. Raimes, this approach gives “two crucial supports: time for the students to try out their ideas and feedback on the content of what they write in their drafts ... writing process becomes a process of discovery ... new ideas and new language forms to express those ideas”¹⁰³.

L. Marshal and F. Rowland single out two phases in the process of writing: 1) creative or generative phase – thinking, reflecting and imagining and 2) critical or editing phase – analysis and editing simultaneously¹⁰⁴. In this case the creative and critical writing is emphasized.

3. **The genre approach** is more popular in teaching writing. D. Nunan explains different genres of writing as “typified by a particular structure and by grammatical forms that reflect the communicative purposes of the genre”.¹⁰⁵ Writing is seen as an essentially social activity in which texts are written to do things.

Having exploring different genres students get acquisition of structure and form for production the different types of texts.

The model of genre writing has a three-phase organization: 1) the target

¹⁰³ Rimes A. Techniques in Teaching Writing. - Oxford: OUP, 1983. - P.10- 11.

¹⁰⁴ Marshal L., Rowland F. Learning Independently. – Glasgow Bell and Bain Ltd., 2003. – P.184.

¹⁰⁵ Nunan D. Second Language Teaching and Learning. – Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers, 1999.

genre is modeled for students; 2) a text is jointly constructed by the teacher and students; 3) a text is independently constructed by each student. The main attention on the first stage focuses on the function of the text-genre, its structure and content. Within the second stage the following activities are used: research and analysis of the text, note-taking, discussion, role-play. In the third stage students construct their own text on the basis of experience acquired in the previous stages. The approach acknowledges that writing takes place in social situations and reflects a particular purpose, and that learning can happen consciously through imitation and analysis, which facilitates explicit instruction¹⁰⁶.

For writing a composition within the process approach the writer fulfills the role of 1) a creator whose cognitive process is focus on the structure and content; 2) an inter-actor, who dialogues with a reader, 3) a user of a text/literature. This approach can be used at academic lyceums and vocational colleges or at the advanced level of teaching EL.

4. Communicative approach stresses the purpose of a piece of writing and the audience for it. Under this approach students are encouraged to behave like writers in real life and to ask themselves the crucial questions about purpose and audience: What am I writing this for? Who will read it? Taking into consideration the audience (readers) of a piece of writing, the teacher provides students with a context in which to select appropriate content, language, and levels of formality.

This approach emphasizes task-based activities that involve the exchange of information, with the focus on fluency. This approach practices a good deal of modeling and controlled practice, and also pays great attention to motivation and self-expressing. The activities used under this approach: writing instructions, cards, letters, messages, articles, job applications,

¹⁰⁶ Badger R.G., White G. A process genre approach to language pedagogy. // J. ELT 54 (2), 2000- P.163- 160.

reports, advertisements, projects, etc.

Questions and tasks:

1. Try to explain why writing presupposes is a three- phase structure.
2. Why is it considered that writing is a means of the EL learning?
3. Think about content of teaching writing at school, lyceum and college. Can you add anything to the given information?
4. What techniques are used for forming writing sub- skills?
5. What speech exercises are used for forming/ developing writing skills?
6. What approaches are there in teaching writing? Discuss their effectiveness for teaching writing.
7. What writing activities do you know? Briefly describe them.
8. Is it necessary to teach pupils handwriting?
9. How much time do you usually spend on writing a presentation? Do we teach writing a presentation lyceum and college students?
10. What typical language errors are there in writing?
11. Decide what you would do *before, during and after* the writing stages. Think of the ways of the remedy of difficulties in writing.

Independent work

1. Read and remember the following types of writing:
 1. **Imitative writing** – at the beginning level of learning to write, students will simply “write down” English letters, and possibly sentences in order to learn the conventions of the orthographic code. Some forms of dictation fall into this category although dictations can serve to teach and test higher order processing as well.
 2. **Intensive (controlled) writing** – usually arrears in controlled written grammar exercises. Some written tasks as essays, compositions, summary are

also included into intensive writing.

3. **Self- writing** - this type means writing with only the self in mind as an audience. The most vivid example of this type of writing is note-taking where students take notes during a lecture for the purpose of later recall.

4. **Display writing** – short answer exercises, essay examinations, research reports are display writing examples, when students have to display their knowledge of language and academic skills.

5. **Real writing** – this type is done not for marks or checking by teachers. Its aim is genuine communication. Writing diaries, letters, post cards, notes, personal messages or other informal writing can take place.

2. Read and think about students spoken and written errors and techniques¹⁰⁷.

Spoken errors: When students are doing controlled practice, we are usually concerned with accuracy; so we need to correct important errors as they occur. When students are involved in a free activity (e.g. discussion, role play), we want them to develop fluency; so it is better not to interrupt by correcting too often, but to remember common errors and deal with them afterwards.

Possible techniques for correction errors:

- give the correct form; a student repeats it;
- indicate where the errors are, but let a student correct them on his/ her own;
- pass the question onto another student then give the first student a chance to repeat the correct form.

To help students develop a positive attitude to errors; encourage them, focusing on what they have got right, and praise them for correct and partly

¹⁰⁷ Doff A. Teach English. A training course for teachers. - CUP, 1988. - P.78.

correct answers, so they feel they are making progress.

Written errors: to avoid too much correction of written work, give simple writing tasks which will not lead to many mistakes and which can be corrected in class.

Correcting work in class:

- go through the answers, writing on the board only if spelling is a problem;
- let students correct their own work or exchange books and correct each other's;
- move round the class to check what they are doing.

3. Prepare a short writing activity for a lesson. The activity should develop writing skills, not just practice vocabulary and grammar.

4. Read the instruction for using a picture for development of writing skills. Think about pictures/photos, writing tasks and activities which are suitable for school, lyceum and college students.

Using a picture as a topic for several writing classes gives you an opportunity to develop not merely a wide variety of tasks but also a sequence of tasks, carefully selected so that students move from one level of difficulty to another, gathering more vocabulary, knowledge of idioms and sentence structures, and organizational skills as they proceed. The picture can be used as a reference point for students to discuss a cultural phenomenon and their own experience related to it. The picture can be used as the basis for a variety of sequential tasks.

Example: In the small groups students discuss the questions related to the content of the picture "Wedding". They write down words and phrases that they can use. Then they compare the results. The teacher asks students to describe the picture in the written form using these words. Then, the teacher gives a task "Write a letter to a friend abroad about the wedding in

the picture”.

5. Study the procedure of teaching writing a narrative essay in the book “Great Essays” by Keith S. Folse. A. Muchmore- Vocoun, E. Vestry Solomon. Note-taking the main points of writing a narrative essay according to the given plan:

1. The structure of the narrative essay on the basis of a sample.
2. The features of paragraph writing.
3. Transitional devices.

6. Find the samples of ready-compositions and analyze their structure and content. Think about activities for teaching writing a composition in the EL. Analyse the strategy of errors correction pointed out by the teacher.

Comments on content and organization

This is a good first try,
but your topic sentence should be
more specific and unique
↓

Aside from any question, education considered a wonderful aspect of anyone personality. It separate you from other in the universe. Education make a person to be better used in society. It gives you knowledgeable about other people. And also it keep you open mind to another point of view. Education helps you to take a correct decision. I remember a time when I was a little girl, my father told me about a rich man, his father was a business men and he had one child he bought him everything. But he did not let him attend school because he had already all that he needs: big houses and lots of fancy clothes. So he think if his son go to school it will waste his time. But after his father's death the son did not know how to take care of himself. In my opinion, it would have help him if he had a high education. *I like this example a lot!*

This is a nice paragraph. Thanks for your hard work. But I think you could improve it by giving me more details about the rich man and his son. Why, exactly, did he not allow his son to go to school?

And what kinds of problems did the son have living on his own?

5. Assessment of language performance in English

Questions to be discussed

- 5.1. Assessment as an integrative part of the teaching process
- 5.2. Types, forms and techniques of assessment in ELT
- 5.3. Assessment of language performance in English
- 5.4. Language portfolio

Key terms: assessment, control, objects of assessment/ control, functions of assessment/ control, forms of assessment/ control, evaluation, testing, feedback, content feedback, form feedback, errors and mistakes, language shortcomings/ language gaps, language portfolio

5.1. Assessment as an integrative part of the teaching process

“Assessment” is a very broad term that can cover formal exams and tests, both external and internal, which are structured and built into the fabric of the academic year, as well as more informal types of assessment that teachers undertake as a part of their day-to-day practice. The term “control” is often replaced by “assessment”.

In general, assessment is collecting data for revealing the level of language proficiency achieved within a certain time period. In language assessment, we gather information in a systematic way with the help of language testing tools.

Assessment is a part of the lesson during which the teacher evaluates how students have mastered the material and use it in reception and production of texts in the oral and written forms. For example, we may use an oral interview to gather information about students speaking abilities, then give comments based on that information, and make a decision what material

and activities we should use if the students need more work on oral fluency. Thus, within the EL classroom we reveal **sources and zones** of learning difficulties, see the effectiveness of materials and activities, encourage students' involvement in the learning process, track learners' upgrading their English, and provide students with feedback about their EL learning progress for further classroom-based applications of language tests.

The objects of the assessment are: a) knowledge and sub-skills – language competence; b) using knowledge and language sub-skills in the process of production and reception of speech and interaction (communicative competence); c) country-study and linguo-cultural knowledge of verbal and non-verbal behavior – socio cultural competence.

The assessment in the ELT process fulfills different functions and objectives, which are shown in Table 16.

Table 16. Functions and tasks of the control

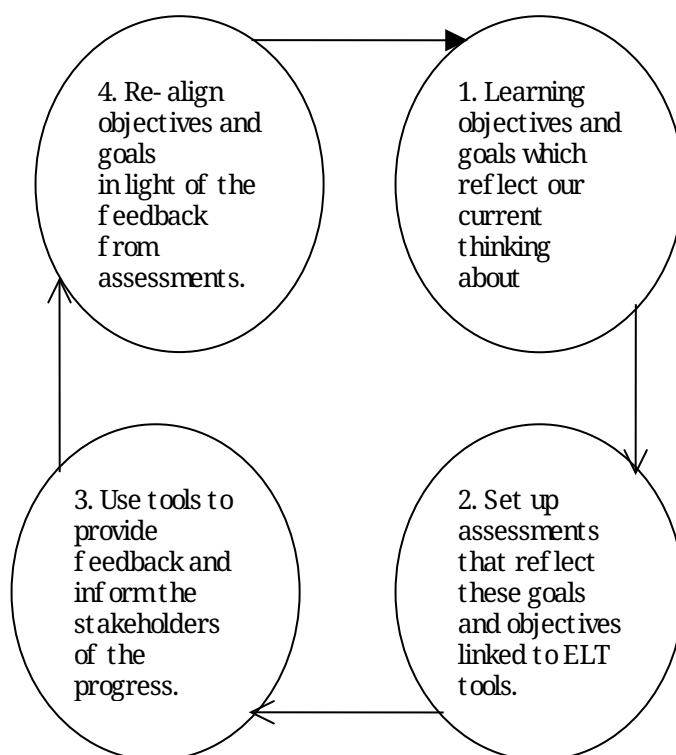
From the position of	Functions	Objectives
Learners	1) motivation and stimulation; 2) correction; 3) teaching;	1) stimulus and vehicle for gaining learning material; 2) raising creative activity of learners in promotion of self-study and self-correction; 3) opportunity to fixate self-achievement in language proficiency and in noticing shortcomings; 4) eliminating gaps in language;
Teachers	1) diagnostic; 2) checking-correction; 3) evaluation; 4) organization; 5) revising.	1) revealing the level of language performance; 2) predicting learners' abilities for acquiring material and developing strategies of learning; 3) diagnosing difficulties and shortcomings, choosing the ways of their preventing; 4) creating competitive environment for creative activity;
Who are responsible for monitoring	1) managing; 2) organization; 3) analytical.	1) monitoring the educational activity of learners and teachers; 2) monitoring the objectivity and reliability of assessment techniques of learners' achievements; 3) determining and analyzing the dynamic progress and regress in learners' achievements; 4) creating a competitive environment for teachers' and learners' creative and productive activity;

		5) analyzing the persistent control of teaching and learning processes; 6) predicting perspectives of education system development.
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We should identify learning goals and objectives with students' achievements and assessment. We need to create tools of assessment that will help us evaluate and understand whether our learning outcomes have been achieved. But we also recognize that the assessment contributes to achieving some of our communicative goals. The tools of assessment we set up can be very different both in the skills they focus on, and also in the way they are executed. The assessments might be individual, pair, or group-based. The assessments evaluation and feedback are also very important.

The feedback could be provided by students, it could even be practiced by the students themselves and thus encourage their self-assessment. What is the outcome of this process? It is a picture of students' progress and a better understanding of whether the content of the course achieves its goal. In light of what we learn about students' performance during the learning cycle (Figure 4), some changes may need to be incorporated to the content of the course.

Figure 4. The learning cycle



5.2. Types, forms and techniques of assessment in ELT

In the teaching process the summative and formative types are distinguished. **Summative assessment** often takes place at the end of a unit, module, or the whole course. The focus tends to be on the mark and the idea is to evaluate how well a student has learned what has been presented. **Formative assessment** takes place during a course, module or unit. The focus is more on gathering data about students' progress and using this data to help them improve language and fill in communicative gaps. In the teaching process

the summative assessment is supported by the formative assessment data. We assess students at different stages and provide feedback that they can use to improve, re-draft or change what they are currently working on, but also to help them in their future learning (often referred to as feed-forward).

There are four stages in organizing classroom assessments: 1) planning assessments; 2) collecting data on students' learning through the assessment; 3) making judgments about students' performance, or evaluation; 4) providing appropriate feedback.

The assessment *correction* and organizing *feedback* are differentiated. Where the lesson makes use of accurate reproduction and drilling techniques, it needs to be carefully organized, during this stage, students' errors and mistakes will be corrected almost instantly.

Organizing feedback occurs when learners have already finished a task. The teacher gives feedback to let the learners know how well they have performed in the course of activity (during the activity the teacher has picked up some of the students' mistakes and has put them on the blackboard; now he is asking the students opinion about correctness).

There is a distinction between two different kinds of feedback. *Content feedback* concerns an assessment of how well students have performed the activity as an activity is more important than a language exercise; e.g. when students have completed a role-play the teacher first discusses with students the reasons for their decision in the simulation. *Form feedback* tells the students how well they have performed linguistically, how accurate they have been.

During the teaching process assessment eventually leads to **evaluation**. Evaluation is used as a final judgment about students' level of performance which has been measured by using different tools. Evaluation refers to the

extent to which the teaching/ learning objectives, stated at the beginning of a school year, term or lesson have been achieved. This judgment is formally expressed in numbers and per cent or marks, grades or informally in scores or points, which eventually can be converted into marks.

In Uzbekistan evaluation at schools, lyceum and college is organized in the frame of five-score (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) marking. Assessment conducts within: 1) current control, 2) terminal (intermediate, or interval) control, 3) final control. But it is necessary to indicate here also preliminary control, because its role is important for organizing the ELT process.

The process of assessing students' performance is done by using variety of ways, techniques and forms. There are many techniques or activities of language performance in ELT. Dictation exercises, strip stories, tests and written assignments are all examples of different types of techniques and activities suitable for English language learners. Simple dictation exercises require students to write down a passage read aloud by the teacher. These exercises offer an assessment of students' listening and writing skills. Strip stories require students to organize a short passage into the proper order after it has been taken apart and reorganized. Strip stories test reading comprehension and narrative awareness.

Testing is the most widely spread technique used for assessing students in the classroom. There are different tests: multiple choice, matching, true-false, fill-in-the-blanks tests, cloze and dictation procedures; essay exams; oral interview – but also tests differing in scope and structure from these well-known options. Technological development has led to a number of new language testing formats, including computer-based and computer-adaptive tests, audiotape-based oral proficiency interviews, and web-based testing.

A communicative test approximates to real language use in the real world. For example, dictation and cloze tests are considered non-communicative

types, while role-play, letter and essay writing, following instruction, problem-solving, oral interview are communicative tests. But, for example, cloze tests provide a good way of gauging a student's written, reading, grammar and vocabulary proficiencies.

Multiple choice tests and written assignments are good ways of assessing vocabulary, reading comprehension and writing skills.

Thus, language tests are simply instruments or procedures for gathering particular kinds of information, typically information having to do with students' language abilities. Tests have a variety of formats, length, item types, scoring criteria, and media.

The above mentioned information is presented in Table 17 as generalization and visualization.

Table 17. Types, forms, tasks, techniques of the assessment

Types of assessment	Forms of assessment	Objectives of assessment	Techniques
Preliminary control	- oral; - written; - individual; - group.	- to define the level of language proficiency, the level of cognitive and learning abilities, and motivation to EL; - to make acquainted with new requirements and teaching conditions.	- interview and tests; - oral or written tasks.
Current control	- individual, frontal, pair and group work in oral and written forms. - homework tasks; - project forms of work; - implicit control using different questions or plays; - self-control; - mutual control.	- to make diagnostic of shortcomings in language performance; - to correct errors, mistakes; - to assess the level of language performance in the frame of the gained material; - to provide revising and rotation the acquired material as an addition to the new one; - to develop reflexive	- oral and written assignments for forming and developing all sub-skills and skills in the form of topics and situations of communication;

		skills and self - evaluation; - monitoring the process of teaching and bringing up.	
Terminal control	- individual, frontal, pair, group forms; - self - control and mutual control.	- to define a dynamic of language proficiency of each student and whole class; - to make diagnostic of students' gaps and shortcomings in output; - to define the level of learning sub - skills.	- tests; - oral or written tests and assignments; - creative assignments.
Final control	- individual	- to reveal the level of language proficiency in accordance with the syllabus requirements.	- tests; - oral or written assignments.

5.3. Assessment of language performance in English

Assessment of language sub - skills

Linguistic competence refers to the mastery of knowledge of the language code itself. It involves controlling the format organization of the language for producing or recognizing “correct” sentences and organizing them to form texts.

Pronunciation is tested globally in different types of conversational exchange. Interview, reading aloud, etc., that go in the classroom. The purpose of testing pronunciation is not only to evaluate knowledge and award grades, but also to motivate students to be sensitive to this aspect of English. The most effective way of testing pronunciation is to actually listen to the learner. But it is not always possible in the teaching condition. So, the alternatives are: testing segments and word stress with the help of dictation exercises, listening activities designed to test the learners' ability to discriminate phonemes or group of phonemes.

The following exercises can be used for this purpose:

1. “Same or Different?” : The students listen to a pair of words or pair of sentences and indicate whether they are the same or different:

Bad – bed; suck – sock; spring – springer.

2. Fill the Gap: the students listen to a sentence and select from a set of words the one they hear and need for the sentence:

Where did you see the.....? (pupil, purple)

He can ...national songs? (think, sing, thin).

Vocabulary and grammar skills are the integral part of communicative skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing). They influence the effectiveness of speech reception and production. Vocabulary and grammar skills are tested when language is used.

Examples for testing vocabulary skills:

1. Choose the appropriate synonym to the given word.

Shape a) form, b) size, c) rate, d) oval

2. Complete the sentence with suitable words.

Use this_____ to find an _____ answer to the problem (option/ appropriate)

Do not spend _____ time _____ piano. (much/ playing)

Examples for testing grammar skills:

1) Complete the dialogue with *will* or *be going to*

Stan: _____ you _____ (have) lunch with me tomorrow?

Tess: Sorry, I _____ (not be) in town tomorrow

2) Write questions to the given short answers.

- Yes, I am

- No I can't.

- Yes, he did.

Assessing of listening

The goal of assessment is revealing the level of listening proficiency, i.e. reception and comprehension of the oral speech/ audio- text.

In domestic methodology four levels of comprehension are singled out:

- 1) the level of fragmental comprehension;
- 2) the level of general comprehension;
- 3) the level of details comprehension;
- 4) the level of critical comprehension.

It is accepted that the first level gives evidence that the students' listening comprehension skills are not full because they comprehend only some fragments. So, we deal with the following three levels of comprehension, where the fragmental level of comprehension can be defined as assessment. In Table 18 the ways for testing of these three levels of comprehension are given.

Table 18. The ways of assessment of different levels of listening comprehension

General/ global comprehension	Comprehension of details	Critical comprehension
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - question-answering activities and tasks touching the general content of the text; - multiple choice; - telling the key idea of the text; - enumeration of the main facts; - making the plan; - singling out key words after re-listening; - defining the main subject and type of the text; - matching the headline/ picture with the content of the text. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - question-answering task and activities touching the general content and details/ facts; - making the full scaled plan; - retelling the text using visual aids (picture, schemata, key words or plan); - dramatization on the basis of the text content; - resume/ text evaluation; - drawing diagram, scheme, table, picture; - dividing the text into paragraphs and finding the headlines to them; - evaluation of people' behavior; - filling the gaps. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - review of the text; 3. annotation; 4. comparison of different points of view; 5. agreement or disagreement to the author's views and inferences; 6. interviewing; 7. discussion or conversation.

Assessment of the first two levels of comprehension (given in the table) can be organized during teaching process at school, lyceum and college. The tasks and texts should correspond the students' age and be practical. Depending on the complicity of the texts and purpose, listening skills of

students are tested within scanning, skimming, intensive and extensive listening through appropriate tests. But the level of critical comprehension demands language experience and fluency in reception and listening skills. So, it can be achieved in the linguistic schools, lyceum and colleges.

Testing of listening comprehension may involve macro- and micro- skills:

- macro- skills:

8. listening for specific information (details, facts);

9. listening for understanding the gist (the main idea of the text);

10. following directions;

11. following instructions;

b) micro- skills;

- interpretation of intonation patterns (e.g. recognition of impolite tone, or irony);

- recognition of functions (e.g. request, command, advice, etc.)

For testing (exams) the text should replicate those (what?) used in everyday life, taking into account the students' age and level of English. Teachers can use: radio news, weather forecast, short stories, dialogues, announcements, monologues, instructions, directions, etc.

Assessing of speaking

An assessment of spoken proficiency is carried out within production and interaction aspects, given or chosen themes, dialogue or monologue, prepared or spontaneous talk. Speaking is in a close interrelation with listening, because one of the communicants is a speaker - producer of the oral speech, the second one is a listener - receptor.

Among the macro- skills of language, it has been widely recognized that speaking in EL is the most difficult language skill to assess.

Assessment of spoken speech is shaped as the use of activities undertaken to acquire and streamline the data about students' speaking

outcomes during and after teaching/ learning activities. Assessment of speaking performance can be organized through different speaking activities such as discussions, problem-solving, role-plays, conversations, story-telling, and so on.

Arthur Hughes singled out the operations and skills for assessing oral abilities¹⁰⁸, which we should take into consideration (see Table 19).

Table 19. Operations and skills for assessment of oral abilities

Operations	Skills
<p>Expressing: likes, dislikes, preferences, agreement / disagreement, requirements, opinions, comment, attitude, confirmation, complaints, reasons, justifications, comparisons.</p> <p>Directing: instructing, persuading, advising, prioritizing.</p> <p>Describing: actions, events, objects, people, processes.</p> <p>Eliciting: information, directions, clarification, help.</p> <p>Narration: sequence of events.</p> <p>Reporting: description, comment, decisions and choices.</p>	<p>Informational skills: express, describe, explain, make comparisons, analyze, apologize, summarize, etc.</p> <p>Interactional skills: respond, express (dis)agreement, indicate, suggest, argue, elicit, repair breakdowns, etc.</p> <p>Skills in managing interactions: initiate interactions, change topics, turn-taking, come to a decision, end and interaction</p>

Below we present a sample of testing students' speaking performance.

Instruction:

1. You have 5 minutes to read the task and think about what you want to say.
2. If there is anything which you don't understand, please ask the teacher.
3. You can make a few notes if you want to.

¹⁰⁸ Hughes A. Testing for Language Teachers. The 2-nd ed. - Cambridge: CUP, 2003.

4. After this 5 minute preparation time, you will talk about the subject with a teacher.

Task;

What makes a good friend?

You are going to talk to the teacher about what you value in your friends.

Look at the suggested information to be incorporated below

Kindness Honesty Fun to be with Support A 'shoulder to cry on'

Shared interests Other...

Reflection;

Do you think it's better to have one or two really close friends, or a wider circle of less close friends?

What are the qualities in yourself that you think your friends value?

There is an English saying, "Blood is thicker than water", meaning that family relationships are more important / reliable than relationships with friends.

Do you agree with this?

There are five components generally recognized by methodist scholars in analysis of the oral speech process: 1) pronunciation, including segmental features, vowels and consonants, the stress and intonation patterns; 2) grammar; 3) vocabulary; 4) fluency; 5) comprehension. These components can be taken as macro- criteria for testing students' speaking performance.

Three frameworks about general purposes of testing oral skills were suggested: 1) linguistically- oriented, 2) communication- oriented, 3) situation- based.¹⁰⁹

1. Linguistically- oriented framework concerns *vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation*. This work/ goal can be carried out/ achieved by *structured speaking tasks*, and *short-answer questions, reacting to phrases tasks*. Structured speaking tasks are typically used to evaluate pronunciation, spoken vocabulary and spoken grammar skills. Short- answer questions and

¹⁰⁹ Luoma S. Developing Speaking Tasks. In Assessing Speaking. - Cambridge: CUP, 2004. - Pp. 139- 169.

reactions to phrases can also be used to evaluate overall understanding and comprehensibility. Short-answer questions test shows comprehension of questions and ability to give relevant information in response. The difference between this and more extended simulations is that the questions and answers are limited and all the information needed for answering the questions is usually provided in the task materials. Reacting to phrases is another structured task which is often used in tape-based tests. The task usually tests the examinees' knowledge of conventional politeness exchanges such as greetings, thanks, apologies, expressions of agreement and polite disagreement, and so on.

2. Communication-oriented framework refers to the overall communication activity in such a task as *telling* a narrative or *expressing* and *defending* an opinion, *discussing* factors that support the chosen opinion and argue against others – for the beginning and intermediate levels, *comparing* and *contracting* things through which advanced oral skills for description are needed.

3. Situation-based task design belongs to the task-based approach to defining the test construct. This approach is typically used in specific-purpose testing – ESP at colleges.

The first two frameworks are appropriate for testing students' speaking performance at schools, lyceums and colleges. We can find out how students understand linguistic rules and use them in communication.

In Table 20 you find some examples, suggested by S. Luoma¹¹⁰, that show the types of test items and their functions.

Table 20. Speaking tasks and speaking tests

¹¹⁰ Luoma S. Developing Speaking Tasks. In Assessing Speaking. - Cambridge: CUP, 2004. - Pp. 139- 169.

Speaking tasks	Examples of speaking tests and their explanation
Description tasks	<p><i>Example 1.</i> A one- to- one interview Describe to me the room or area where you live.</p> <p><i>Example 2.</i> A pair task in an interview test (two pictures are provided): Describe your pictures to each other and then talk about what is similar in your pictures and what is different.</p>
Narrative tasks	<p><i>Example 1.</i> A tape- based test (Six pictures should be provided). Please look at the six pictures below Tell the story based on these pictures starting with picture number 1 and going through to picture number 6. Take one minute to look at the pictures.</p> <p><i>Example 2.</i> A face- to- face paired interaction test. Each of you has a set of pictures. Together they make a story. Each of you tells one part of the story. The narrative is a monologue, and as the test is tape- based the examinees have to tell it in one long stretch without any feedback from a listener. Narrative tasks are used as speaking tests to show how well the examinees can recount a sequence of events, usually in one time frame, either present or past. Most often, the tasks are based on picture sequences, where the content of the pictures guides what will be said. It is likely to create some interaction even though one of the pupils is always the main speaker while the narrative is being constructed. Information gap between the two speakers is therefore likely to occur. Also, the choice of good sequences is a difficult matter. Personal stories often reveal embarrassing details that speakers would be shy to discuss in a test or, if not, they may be so uneventful that the speakers would consider them unworthy to tell.</p>
Instruction tasks	<p><i>Example 1:</i> A one- to- one interview Imagine that we are standing in front of your house. Tell me how to get to the shop from here.</p> <p><i>Example 2:</i> A face- to- face paired interaction test — Feeding the puppy. You cannot go home but your puppy needs to be fed. Your friend says he will do it. Tell your partner exactly what to do, what he'll need and where to find things. Follow the instructions below Find what you need in the picture. Tasks — what you have to do; what you need; where to find things. The main purpose in giving directions and instructions is getting the message to the partner and making sure that it has been understood. This tends to mean short exchanges between the speaker and the listener.</p>
Comparing and contrasting tasks	<p><i>Example.</i> Interaction for a pair task in a paired interview Candidate A compares and contrasts two or three of these photographs, saying what kind of clothing the people are wearing and why the protection might be necessary.</p>

Explaining and predicting tasks	<p><i>Example 1:</i> A taped- based test</p> <p>Explaining the contents of a graph or explaining a process is a fairly common task in many professional and study settings. To do well on the task, the speakers need to set the scene and identify parts of the information or stages in the process that they are explaining and present them in coherent order. They also need to explain the significance of the important parts or stages, so that the listeners understand what the explanation is about and why it is being given. Predictions go together well with explanation tasks, and they can also be fairly in a monolog way. As predictions involve speculation, they may become more interactive in a face-to-face setting.</p>
Decision tasks	<p><i>Example 2:</i> In a paired interview</p> <p>Discuss and decide together: 1) what the advantages and disadvantages are of attending trade fairs, for instance, and 2) which members of staff would most usefully represent a company at a trade fair.</p> <p>In speaking tests, the issues that need to be decided are usually not clear-cut, so that arguments for and against different solutions are needed. The speakers express their opinions about the concerns and justify them in order to air different viewpoints before negotiating the conclusion.</p>
Role-plays and simulations	<p>Role-plays simulate different kinds of communication situations that the target group of the test could plausibly meet outside the test. They can be completed between two examinees or between one and a tester.</p> <p><i>Example:</i> A job interview</p> <p>The employer — inquiring information about candidate’s abilities, qualifications, and character</p> <p>The candidate — providing information about himself and inquiring information about the company</p> <p>Role-play tasks are a way of making communication in a test more versatile because, rather than talking to a tester, the examinees take on a new role and a new, simulated role relationship to their communication partner. Their performance shows their ability to adapt to the requirements of the new role and situation. As long as the situation is relevant for the target audience and the purpose of the test, this gives useful information for the tester. The information may simply be a new perspective into the examinees’ linguistic resources, or the use of different functions from other tasks in the test.</p>

Assessing of reading

Assessment of reading performance is carried out within skimming (reading for gist), scanning (reading for details), and extensive (reading for pleasure focuses on informational content). Reading presupposes forming receptive and comprehension skills.

At the beginning level of reading in English classrooms, the *receptive tasks* include: *recognition* of alphabetic symbols, capitalized and lowercase letters, punctuation, words, and grapheme-phoneme correspondences. They are referred to as “literacy” tasks, implying that the learner is in *the early stages* of becoming ‘literate’. The following tasks for testing are used:

1) reading aloud; 2) written response; 3) multiple-choice; 4) picture-cued.

Scanning and skimming reading. A combination of bottom-up and top-down processing may be both used to assess lexical and grammatical aspects of reading ability. These types of reading involve the different testing tasks: 1) question-answer; 2) cloze tasks; 3) multiple-choice (form-focused and for reading comprehension); 4) true or false; 5) matching tasks; 6) editing tasks; 7) picture-cued tasks; 8) gap-filling tasks; 9) ordering tasks; 10) to get the main ideas or details/facts; 11) non-verbal tasks for information transfer such as charts, maps, graphs, and diagrams; 12) transformation; 13) extending or compression; 14) summarizing (a synopsis or overview of the text) and responding (personal opinion on the text as a whole); 15) note-taking and outlining.

Testing (exam) focuses on evaluation of reading comprehension, which can be involved in macro- and micro- skills.

Macro- skills for testing reading comprehension are:

- skimming to obtain the general idea (gist) of the text;
- scanning to locate specific information in the text;
- identifying the stages and arguments;
- identifying examples in support of the argument in topic sentence.

Micro- skills for testing can be:

- identifying referents of pronouns;
- infer the meaning of words using the text as a context;
- understanding the structure.

Assessing of written work

Writing involves content, organization, style, syntax, mechanics, grammar and spelling. It was pointed out that “If we limit our feedback to pointing out or correcting errors, our pupils will concentrate on producing error-free writing, neglecting the interest or even the meaning of the content. The

equation teaching writing – error elimination is counterproductive”¹¹¹. So it is necessary to conduct feedback in fair balance of content feedback and form feedback.

The experienced teachers consider that teachers should ignore the language mistakes that do not hinder learning, so teachers may correct only those mistakes which are very basic and those which affect meaning.

Study the ways and strategies of errors correction¹¹² (Table 21) and discuss them in the group.

Table 21. Ways and strategies of errors correction

Ways and strategies for error correction	Goal, functions and explanation of error correction
Giving clear instruction	To help the students to concentrate on particular aspects of language, we can tell them that a piece of work will be corrected for only one thing, the use of tenses, for instance. By doing this, we ensure that their work will not be covered by red marks, and we encourage them to focus on particular aspects of written language. We can individualize language work by identifying for each student a few kinds of errors and assigning that focus on these.
Using students work as material	Where a piece of writing contains a number of common errors, we may photocopy the work (erasing the writer's name) and show it to the whole class, asking them to identify problems. In this way the attention of the class can be drawn to common mistakes and photocopied document can form the basis for remedial work
Discussing errors	We will learn about our students' errors if we give them the opportunity to make them, fix them, and discuss them. We can ask our pupils to discuss where they think their mistakes come from and why they make them. This will help us to realize which mistakes

¹¹¹ Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. - Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P. 201.

¹¹² It was adapted from the book: Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. - Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P. 202-203.

	the pupils can recognize and which ones they cannot. Asking the pupils to discuss their mistakes may provide us with wide information about interference, typical mistakes, usage of skills and give us clear evidence of language learning.
Pointing out strengths as well as weaknesses	Our students will have the chance to perceive a correct model in their own use of language and will be likely to continue taking risk if they see that their good qualities are noted and encouraged.

There are different types of writing performance in English which should be assessed¹¹³.

Imitative: at this stage, form is the primary concern to assess learner's skills in the fundamental and basic tasks of writing letters, words, punctuation, and very brief sentences. This category also includes the ability to spell correctly and to perceive phoneme-grapheme correspondences in the English spelling system.

Intensive: this refers to producing appropriate vocabulary within a context, collocations and idioms, and correct grammatical features up to the length of a sentence.

Responsive: assessment tasks here require learners to perform at a limited discourse level, connecting sentences into a paragraph and creating a logically connected sequence of two or three paragraphs. Form-focused attention is mostly at the discourse level, with a strong emphasis on *context* and *meaning*.

Extensive: extensive writing implies successful management of all the processes and strategies of writing for all purposes, up to the length of *an essay*, a term paper, a major research project report, or even a thesis. Students focus on achieving a purpose, organizing and developing ideas logically, using details to support or illustrate ideas, demonstrating syntactic and lexical variety, and in many cases, engaging in the process of multiple

¹¹³ Brown H. D. Language assessment - - principles and classroom practices. - New York: Pearson Education, Inc., 2004.

drafts to achieve a final product.

A piece of writing (for instance, essay) as a final work at advanced level can be evaluated on the basis of criteria: 1) task achievement: relevance and appropriateness of ideas and examples, coverage, variety, suitability of the text, type and length, awareness of a target reader, precision; 2) organization: cohesion, coherence sequencing, paragraphing, layout and punctuation, length/complexity of sentence, textual fluency; 3) range: structures, vocabulary, appropriateness, flexibility, detail, avoidance of repetition; 4) accuracy: grammar, vocabulary, spelling.

5.4. Language portfolio

The basic idea of a portfolio is to provide a much wider range of evidences of the language skills of a student. It involves analyzing and evaluating multiple examples of a student's work and assessing a student's proficiencies and problem areas. Portfolio involves scoring a wide range of student's work based on predetermined criteria. All students can have benefits from this type of self-assessment, because portfolios offer students the opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned and experienced with the target language. It can include the whole range of language evidences reflecting a much wider range of skills. It might include tests, readings, written work, essay plans, feedback and reflections.

The process of actually developing and finding content for the portfolio often means that both the teachers and the students play a role in the form they take. For example, it may be left to the student to decide what examples of writing or reading to include in the portfolio. In doing this the students 'own' their portfolios and learn and reflect from the process of actually choosing the content for the portfolio itself¹¹⁴.

¹¹⁴ LamR., Lee I. Balancing the dual functions of portfolio assessment // J. English Language Teaching. 64/ 1,

Language portfolio was created under framework of Council of Europe and it included three components:

1. The language passport, which is a record of language learning both inside and outside the classroom. This has personal information like any passport, plus a grid which provides information about the languages that the person speaks and their level, using the Common European Framework of Reference.

2. The language biography which is a diagnostic self - assessment of FL, or L2 skills. It is done through a series of 'can do' statements where the student ticks check boxes to demonstrate what s/he can and can't do in a given language.

3. Finally, there is a language dossier/ file. It is here where the students provide actual evidence of their language ability through a variety of artifacts.

Questions and tasks:

1. What do we mean by assessment?
2. What objects of assessment can you enumerate?
3. What function does assessment fulfill in the ELT process?
4. What are the forms of assessment?
5. What can you say about feedback and correction?
6. Think about purposes of testing spoken skills and how they are undertaken in the ELT process.

Tasks:

1. Describe the various types of tests which you know
2. Discuss macro and micro skills testing.

3. Discuss beneficiaries of using language portfolio in the ELT process.

4. In the sample of Bavarian Assessment Criteria for A2 level (CEFR) described above macro-criteria are reflected. Examine these criteria and requirements to speaking proficiency for A1, A2, B1 levels given in the State Educational Standard.

Pronunciation: comprehensibility and effective communication of meaning, including stress and intonation
Lexical and structural range, flexibility and appropriacy: adequacy of repertoire in relation to task and topics
Accuracy: lexical and grammatical - frequency and communicative significance of mistakes and errors
Interaction: initiation, response, independence, participation, negotiation of meaning, turn-taking and accommodation.
Communicative effectiveness: relevance, coherence, organization of ideas, sequencing and task achievement.

5. Study the content given in the box.

Tasks for Different Types of Writing¹¹⁵

Imitative writing

1) Tasks in (Hand) writing **letters, words, and punctuation**

- copying;
- listening cloze selection tasks;
- picture-cued tasks;
- form completion tasks;
- converting numbers and abbreviations to words.

2) **Spelling** tasks and detecting **phoneme-grapheme** correspondences

- spelling tests;
- picture-cued tasks;
- multiple-choice techniques;
- matching phonetic symbols: n/ au - now' is expected to be written by the test taker.)

Intensive writing

This is also called controlled writing and thought of as a form-focused writing, grammar writing, or simply guided writing. Students produce language to display their competence in grammar, vocabulary, or sentence formation, and not necessarily to convey meaning for an authentic purpose.

1) **Dictation** and **Dicto-Comp** (rewrite the paragraph from the best of students' recollection from a listening piece).

2) **Grammatical** transformation tasks:

- change the **tenses** in a paragraph;
- change full forms of **verbs** to reduced forms (contractions);

¹¹⁵ See: gaining.educ.msu.edu/resources/files/Assessing%20Writing.pdf

- change statements to **yes/ no** or **why- questions**;
 - change **questions** into **statements**;
 - combine two sentences into one using a relative **pronoun**;
 - change **direct** speech to **indirect** speech;
 - change from **active** to **passive** voice.
- 3) **Picture- cued** tasks:
- short sentences;
 - picture description;
 - picture sequence description.
- 4) **Vocabulary** assessment tasks: the major techniques used to assess vocabulary are (a) **defining** and (b) **using** a word in a sentence.
Task forms include:
- **multiple- choice** techniques;
 - **matching, picture- cued** identification;
 - **cloze** techniques;
 - **guessing** the meaning of a word in context, etc.
- Vocabulary assessment is clearly **form- focused** in the above tasks, but the procedures are creatively linked by means of the target word, its collocations, and its morphological variants.
- 5) **Ordering** tasks: at the **sentence** level (reordering sentences).
- 6) **Short- answer** and **sentence completion** tasks.

Extensive writing (higher- end production of writing)
The genres of a text that are typically addressed here include:

- short reports (with structured formats and conventions);
- responses to the reading of an article or story;
- summaries of articles or stories;
- brief narratives or descriptions;
- interpretations of graphs, tables, and charts.

6. Study the test formats used for assessment of language skills.

Explain

their effectiveness in the EL teaching process .

Language Skills	Test Formats
Reading skills	1. Multiple- choice items 2. Short answers test 3. Cloze test 4. Gap- filling test 5. False/ true statement

Listening skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Multiple-choice items 2. False/true statements 3. Gap-filling tests 4. Dictations 5. Listening recall
Writing skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Dictations 2. Compositions 3. Reproductions 4. Writing stories 5. Writing diaries 6. Filling-in forms
Speaking skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Retelling stories 2. Describing pictures 3. Describing people 4. Spotting the differences

Independent work:

1. Search the different types of tests in the Internet and prepare a presentation to the class.

2. Find and study samples of descriptors for self-evaluation in the terms “I can do”, “I understand” and try to create descriptors for school, lyceum and college on the basis of content and requirements, given in the State Educational Standard.

Part III. ORGANIZATION OF THE ENGLISH TEACHING PROCESS AT SCHOOL, LYCEUM, COLLEGE

1. EL lesson and planning of the teaching process at school, lyceum and college

Questions to be discussed

- 1.1. The features of the EL lesson
- 1.2. Types of lessons and forms of interaction in EL lesson
- 1.3. EL lesson planning
- 1.4. Structure of the EL lesson plan
- 1.5. Independent work and learning

Key terms: EL lesson, the features of the lesson, requirements to the lesson, structure of the lesson, cycle of lessons, stages of the lesson, types of the lesson, forms of classroom interaction, approaches to organizing the lesson, model of lessons, language atmosphere, phonetic drill, planning, types of plans, principles of planning, independent work and learning, autonomy.

1.1. The features of the EL lesson

A lesson is a unit of a teaching process and the main form of organization of the teaching process. Conducting a lesson is shaped as a collective interrelated activity. The goal of each lesson is an important part of the final goal. Understanding of a lesson goal should be relied on the main important particularities: 1) teaching speech activities as a real process of communication and 2) complexity.

Only one goal makes the lesson logical. Besides of a leading goal the lesson has accompanied tasks. It is not appropriate to define a goal of some lesson irrelatively with the whole system of lessons. For example, the task of a

cycle of lessons can be developing speaking, listening and reading skills on a certain theme, language and speech material. The theme cannot be changed during the series of lessons. But a language material and type of speech activity can be a new one. That's why the goal of each lesson is defined with new skills, which are being formed or developed within a concrete lesson, or within a system of lessons. The whole teaching process is built on the basis of speech themes. Exactly the theme in accordance with the content-communicative principle defines the cycle of lessons. A material is distributed in accordance with the stages of forming/ developing the necessary skills. Such planning allows a teacher to realize perspectives for the further work. The result of such a cycle working is a qualitatively new stage in developing communicative skills.

It is necessary to realize the capacity of teaching/ learning material in the frame of a cycle. Given the above purpose we should 1) define words and structures, which must be learned within a quantum of time for developing required skills; 2) select situations and patterns, following the necessary grammar and vocabulary units, which are typical, meaningful and frequently used within this theme; 3) select a material for practice and production (tasks and activities, their sequence) for forming/ developing communicative skills.

The cycle can consist of 3- 6 lessons (the early stage – 2- 3 lessons, 5- 9 forms – 5- 6 lessons). All capacity of the work is distributed into the cycle. For illustration the sample of distribution of the teaching material is shown.

Lesson1: Presentation of a new theme; new vocabulary; structures; or stimulus for conversation; the text for listening with questions. A new material is presented by the teacher and repeated by students. It is recommended to present a new material at the beginning of the lesson, because it gives an opportunity to have time for practice this material and assess the learners' achievements.

Lesson 2: Working on a grammar material and skimming reading.

Lesson 3: Active working on speech (dialogues, conversation, and retelling; making analogous text; creating a text on the basis of several texts.

Lesson 4: Lesson for revision – transmission into writing, summarizing the lesson, writing a composition as a homework.

Thus the goal of the lesson determines the character of homework, because well formulated goal of the lesson is the result and the homework proposes only what we teach during the lesson. The goal also determines the selection of tasks and activities. Exercises are built on the principle “from simplicity to complicity”. Besides the lesson content should be realized on the basis of the interrelation principle with the different subject matters.

A successful lesson depends on the kinds of interactions a teacher creates during the lesson. This can include opportunities for interactions between the teacher and the class as well as interactions among the students themselves. There are four possible ways to arrange a class, with each offering different learning potentials: whole-class teaching, individual work, group work, and pair work (See Table 22). A lesson may begin with a whole-class activity and then move to pair, group, or individual work. When planning a teacher needs to consider when the whole-class teaching is appropriate and when the teacher should make the transition to other types of learning in order to promote student-to-student interaction and allow students to work on tasks at their own pace.

Table 22. Forms of interaction

Whole-class teaching. This mode of teaching involves teaching all the students together. Arrangement of a lesson for whole-class teaching depends on the type of a lesson a teacher is teaching and on the particular stage of the lesson. Whole-class, teacher-fronted teaching can serve to focus students' attention quickly on a learning task. When carefully carried out, it can lead to the quick and effective achievement of lesson objectives, since time management is maximally under the teacher's control.

Individual work It is necessary to point out at a lesson where students can best work individually, such as when they are reading or listening to a text, or completing written exercises in a textbook or workbook. Individual work allows students to work at their own

pace and to work on activities suited to their proficiency level or interests; having learners work on their own also allows a teacher to provide them with individual support and/or assistance. In planning individual work, a teacher needs to consider how well students understand what is expected of them and whether the task provides adequate challenge, support, and motivation to sustain their interests.

Pair work Pair work provides opportunities for sustained interaction and has long been recommended as a key means of promoting both accuracy and fluency in language use. Grouping students in pairs can take into consideration their ability level, language and cultural background, and other factors that will facilitate a positive approach to learning. Students who are not familiar with this learning arrangement may need careful orientation and preparation for pair-work activities.

Group work Group-based learning is widely used in all forms of teaching and significantly changes the interactional dynamics of the classroom. In language classes, it increases students' talking time, helps promote self-esteem, and can increase student motivation by providing a risk-free environment for language practice.

The modern requirements to the EL lesson are shown in the Table 23.

Table 23. The modern requirements to the EL lesson

Requirements	Interpretation
1. Goal-oriented	Each of the lessons must provide achievement of educational, practical, bringing up and development aims through solving the certain objectives.
2. Content-value	Selecting of the meaningful and relevant teaching material, adequacy of techniques and exercises to the teaching objectives and optimal correlation of practice and production
3. Activity of students during the lesson	The inner and outer activity of students during the lesson must take the form of speech-mental activity related to the speech initiative.
4. Motivation-provided	Understanding the success of ELL by students and seeing their dynamic progress in ELL.
5. Variety of used stimulus at the lesson	Using different verbal and visual stimulus for involving students into communication. The preference is given to the real-life activities with audio-visual supporters.
6. Correspondence of verbal and non-verbal behavior to the teaching goal, content and conditions.	From the position of verbal behavior the teacher carries out the function of the important means of teaching EL, quasi-bringer of the EL. From the position of non-verbal behavior the teacher plays the role of an organizer, instructor, producer, actor, designer, operator, etc.
7. Using up-to-date technologies	The teacher must organize the teaching process on the basis of different up-to-date technologies (interactive, information-telecommunication technologies and others).
8. Achievement of the result.	The goal and objectives put at the beginning of the lesson must be achieved at the end of the lesson.

Pedagogical mastering is seen in the careful and hard preparation to the lesson and deep self-analysis of his/her activity, study and summarizing of teaching experience and implementation the progressive experience into practice of ELT. For this the teacher needs a guider and assessor which helps him/her evaluate own and others' lessons. That's why the above requirements can be put into the scheme of the analysis of the EL lesson.

1.2. The structure of the EL lesson and types of lessons

There is no general scheme of the lesson structure which can be obligatory for all lessons. **Some of the stages of a lesson are constant, others can be varied. A constant stage of a lesson is an involving into language atmosphere. This stage includes various tasks or activities. One of them is a phonetic drill. The atmosphere of communication created at the beginning of the lesson lasts during the whole lesson. The dominant place is given to the teacher's communicative action related to motivation, instructions, control and evaluation.**

These stages are considered as reasonable from methodical point of view:

1. **Involving** into the language atmosphere;
2. **Explanation of the new material** and algorithm of operations and actions with it;
3. **Doing exercises** as practicing and activating the new material;
4. **Writing down and explanation of the homework**, summarizing the lesson's results and marking.

In the domestic methodology the following types of the lesson are distinguished¹¹⁶:

¹¹⁶ Jalalov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign Language Teaching Methodology. - T.: O'qituvchi, 2012. - P321- 322.

- 1) The lessons are directed to acquire a) language elements on lexical, phonetic and grammatical levels and language use as a result of this type of a lesson is obtaining the linguistic competence.
- 2) The lessons are directed to acquire communicative activity. The aim of this type of a lesson is forming or developing listening, reading, speaking and writing skills.
- 3) The lessons which combine previous types of lessons are directed to acquire knowledge, language sub-skills and communicative skills. In the practice of teaching the preference is given more to this type of a lesson.

Besides in methodology of FLT the different lesson organization approaches as teaching models are used: 1) Presentation -> Practice -> Production (PPP); 2) Engage -> Study -> Activate (ESA); Test -> Teach -> Test (TTT); 4) Task-based approach (TBA).

1. PPP works through the progression of three sequential stages. **Presentation stage** represents the introduction to a lesson, and necessarily requires the creation of a realistic (or realistic-feeling) "situation" requiring the target language to be learned that can be achieved through using pictures, dialogues, imagination or actual "classroom situations". The teacher checks to see that the students understand the nature of the situation and then he/ she builds the "concept" underlying the language to be learned using small chunks of the language that the students already know. Having understood the concept, students are then given the language "model" and engage in choral drills to learn statement, answer and question forms for the target language. This is a very teacher-orientated stage where error correction is important.

It is necessary to take into consideration that at the presentation stage of the lesson *eliciting* is a useful way of involving the class by focusing students' attention and making them think; it establishes what students know

and what they do not know, and it encourages students to make guesses and to work out rules for themselves. For example, eliciting can be organized on the basis of a picture, or a headline of the text as a pre-reading activity.

The second stage – Practice usually begins with what is termed "mechanical practice" - open and closed pair-work. Students gradually move into more "communicative practice" involving procedures like information gap activities, dialogue creation and controlled role-plays. Practice is seen as the frequency device to create familiarity and confidence with the new language, and a measuring stick for accuracy. Thus, learners have **practice** making sentences with new words and structures. The teacher still directs and corrects at this stage, but the classroom is beginning to become more learner-centered.

The third stage – Production is seen as the culmination of the language learning process, whereby the learners have started to become independent *users* of the language rather than *students* of the language. The teacher's role here is to somehow facilitate a realistic situation or activity where the students instinctively feel the need to actively apply the language they have been practicing. The teacher does not correct or become involved unless students directly appeal to him/her to do so. At the stage of **production** learners talk more freely about the known and unknown information/ situation. This model is effective for teaching a simple language at low levels.

The PPP approach is relatively straight forward, and structured enough to be easily understood by both students and new or emerging teachers. It is a good place to start in terms of applying good communicative language teaching in the classroom. It has also been criticized considerably for the very characteristic that makes it the easiest method for 'beginner' teachers, that is, that it is far too teacher-oriented and over controlled.

2. A nice alternative to 'PPP' is Harmer's 'ESA' (Engage ->Study->

Activate) based on surveys which have shown that the conditions for successful LL are motivation, exposure to language and chances to use it.

In the **Engage** stage, a teacher motivate learners and arise their interest by involving their emotion through using games, music, discussions, stimulating pictures, dramatic stories, anecdotes, etc. Other ways of encouraging the learners are: asking them what they think about a topic (predicting, guessing) before reading the text. If learners are engaged they learn better.

In the **Study** stage a teacher focuses on vocabulary and constructions or information. Successful language teaching/ learning depends on the degree of quality language acquisition (getting language knowledge or skills through listening and reading), for example, and study activities organized by a teacher.

Activate is the stage where learners use the language knowledge and skills in given situations. These three stages can be varied, they are not constant. Variation is even recommended for effective teaching/ learning EL.

3. Model “Test -> Teach -> Test”. TTT is a frequently used alternative to the PPP method, wherein the production phase is sequentially (кeтma-кeт) moved to the first part of the lesson. During the (first) **test phase** that corresponds to the production phase in the PPP approach, learners are more or less abruptly (тycaтдaн) asked to communicatively produce a language concept based on their existing knowledge and without any prior guidance from the teacher. The teacher will then assess the students' level of competency in the particular language area, determine their needs, and proceed with the teach phase (which corresponds to the presentation phase in the PPP approach) based on an overall assessment. **The teach phase** allows to discuss problem areas and guide learners towards the correct use of the language concept.

The final stage of the TTT approach is the **second test** that aims to check

how students have absorbed the new inputs from the teacher. The logic of this sequencing is for students to learn the new language concepts better by differentiating its invalid uses (most likely to be committed during the first test phase) from correct usage (likely to be accomplished after the teacher presented the language concept during the teach phase).

In general, the TTT approach is a good way for teachers to determine the specific needs of students in different language areas. With this knowledge, educators can optimize their teaching strategies to produce optimum learning outcomes. It is best used at intermediate and higher competency levels, as well as in classes where the students have mixed language proficiencies. However, one consistent criticism about the TTT approach is that it has an element of randomness since several unexpected learners' needs may arise that is beyond the scope of the intended lesson. Despite this disruptive possibility, the TTT approach is still being adopted by many educators because it is very "economical" and "focused" in the sense that valuable time need not be wasted on teaching language areas students are already proficient with.

4. Task-based model / approach. TBA is a good alternative to either the PPP approach or the TTT method. In TBA-structured classes, teachers do not pre-determine the language specifics to study but base their lesson strategies on how a central task is completed by the learners. Similar to the other two approaches, TBA follows a sequential progression: 1) a pre-task introduction to be conducted by the teacher; 2) the learners' completion of a central task involving a particular language aspect; 3) reporting, analysis and feedback to be performed by the teacher concerning how the learners accomplished the central task; and 4) practice sessions to hone learner proficiencies in the language area.

The task-based approach is advocated by many educators because of several clear advantages. For one thing, TBA allows learners to employ all

their language resources towards the completion of a task and not just pre-selected language areas as in the case of PPP. In addition, TBA utilizes natural, real-life language contexts that are highly relevant to learners. Hence, language exploration and learning directly arises from students' actual needs and not as suggested in textbooks. TBA is also based on the premise that a holistic exposure to language – as opposed to incremental exposures common to PPP – is a better way of learning a new language.

A good EL lesson consists of much more than a series of activities and exercises that the teacher has strung together to occupy classroom time – and it involves much more than simply presenting the material in the current EL textbook. EL teaching is not only a field of practical activity but also a discipline that draws on a considerable body of knowledge and practice. Every lesson of a teacher should reflect a solid understanding of the nature of the language, of the EL learning and teaching, and of his/ her learners – taking into account their needs as well as their learning styles and preferences.

1.3. EL lesson planning

The important condition of effectiveness of ELT is planning of teachers and students activity for a lesson and a system of lessons. In the practice of teaching EL at the lesson, thematic and perspective planning are distinguished.

The aim of EL *lesson planning* is to define the content of the lesson and algorithm of operation and actions of the teacher and learners.

Thematic plan is enveloped as a serial number of lessons. As a rule, it is one of the themes of communication, which includes itself also vocabulary, grammar and country- study material.

Perspective planning defines the system of a teacher and students activity for the whole stage of ELT.

There are different principles of lesson planning. The most important among them are variety, flexibility, examining the subject matter from the learners' point of view, considering individual differences, language backgrounds and past experience¹¹⁷.

1. *Variety* means involving learners in a number of different types of activities and using a wide selection of material to motivate learners.

2. *Flexibility* comes into play, when dealing with the plan in the classroom, for a number of reasons a teacher should have an opportunity to change the plan in accordance with the situation which can take place during teaching.

3. *Examination of* the subject matter from the learners' point of view – the teacher should examine teaching material and reveal its appropriateness to learners and difficulties for acquiring this material by learners. During planning a teacher adapts material and defines ways of overcoming these difficulties.

4. *Consideration of* individual differences presupposes that learners have different abilities to learn the language under apparently the same conditions of learning. This fact should be taken into consideration in planning. This principle is known in the domestic methodology as individualization and differentiation of teaching.

5. Language backgrounds and past experience – before designing a teacher should reveal what prior knowledge, abilities and skills the learners have.

Designing the lesson and outlining its plan is an essential part of the teaching process. All EL teachers – regardless of training, experience, or competency – need a carefully drawn lesson plan in order to assist their learners in attaining learning objectives, both on a daily basis as well as the long-term. Having a lesson plan is like having a complete and clear

¹¹⁷ See: Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. - Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P. 83- 84.

visualization of how a learning session is to take place and how learners are able to grasp and retain the lesson concepts.

The importance of lesson plans in EL education is difficult to overstate. EL teachers simply need to visualize daily lessons in advance and build the most appropriate teaching strategies into a comprehensive lesson plan. Otherwise, going to class without an adequate preparation will most likely be detrimental to both the teachers and their learners. Having a lesson plan and effectively using it as a guide for daily teaching will reflect a teacher's professionalism and reliability. Teachers also present themselves as good role models for their learners who will come to appreciate the value of coming to class prepared and primed to achieve the lesson targets.

If a teacher is new to teaching, a lesson plan is basically just a step-by-step guide on how the teacher intends to present a lesson and the ways by which learners are expected to learn and appreciate the lesson's various concepts. An excellent lesson plan is one that can be easily and effectively used by another teacher in a job place. This means that the ideal lesson plan is both clear and comprehensive.

1.4. Structure of the EL lesson plan

The details and elements of lesson plans vary, depending on the specific format mandated by a school, lyceum and college. However, the common components of a good lesson plan include the following items:

Lesson's Theme.
The period of time (in minutes, hours, days, or weeks) necessary to complete the lesson.
Class details (class name or section, age, skill level, etc.)
The lesson objectives.
Instructional approach(es) to be used (this section describes the sequence of learning events as well as the techniques the teacher will use in helping students achieve the lesson objectives).
Instructional materials (such as a film, an image gallery, a music video, etc.).

Summary of and derived conclusions from the lesson.
Methods for practicing the lesson concepts.
Evaluation and testing methods to be used.
Contingency plans or elements (This section describes subsidiary topics or additional techniques and materials that can be used to either fortify the learning gains generated during the session or productively fill up excess time. Fun and engaging, seat work, dialogues, and other activities are ideal for this section).

Unless a specific lesson plan format is required by the learning type of institution, most EL practitioners tailor their lesson plans according to the teaching philosophies or techniques they believe in or are most comfortable with. In general, however, excellent EL lesson plans have common characteristics that a teacher should integrate in his/her own teaching strategies:

- 1) Ideal lesson plans have a concise summary that fits on a single page. The detailed plan proper may – and often – exceeds this number, but the idea is to allow anyone to have a quick overview of the lesson.
- 2) Great lesson plans are organized in a way that is easy and a delight to follow
- 3) Lesson plans should be strongly aligned with the needs and learning competencies of their intended audience.
- 4) Each individual lesson plan should add here to a continuity of lesson concepts and should not only fit in the curriculum but also reflect the overall vision of the subject.
- 5) EL Lesson plans should establish platforms for learners to apply language learning to real-world situations.

In EL education lesson plans are crucial even in purely conversational classes. In order to establish an environment that encourages high quality learning and draws non-native speakers to articulate themselves extensively, adequate preparation is of paramount importance. Having a haphazardly designed plan is also inexcusable.

The most important for teachers is to define aims and objectives of a

lesson. At the beginning of the lesson planning a teacher should answer the following questions: 1) What language and speech material will students learn within this lesson? 2) What do they know and are able or unable to do before the beginning of the lesson and what results they are able to achieve at the end of the lesson?

Answering the first question a teacher formulates the aim of the lesson, whereas the answer to the second question gives a teacher the objectives.

Teacher should answer the following questions¹¹⁸:

1. What kind of language-learning opportunities does the lesson provide?
2. How many opportunities are there for learners to practice meaningful use of the language?
3. Who has most of the opportunities for language use during the lesson – the teacher or the students?
4. Do all of the students participate in the lesson, or will some students have more opportunities for participation and practice than others?

The structure of a lesson is determined by how a teacher deals with three essential stages of a lesson: opening, sequencing, and closings¹¹⁹.

1. Opening. This phase of the lesson serves primarily to focus the learners' attention on the aims of the lesson, to make links to previous learning, to arouse interest in the lesson, to activate background knowledge, or to preview language or strategies learners may need to understand in order to complete activities at the lesson.

2. Sequencing. A lesson is normally devoted to more than one type of activity, and teachers often have a “script” or preferred sequence that they follow

¹¹⁸ Richards J.C., Bohlke D. Creative effective language Lessons. - CUP, 2011. // www.cambridge.org/ojjer_files5/

¹¹⁹ See in detail: Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. . In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. - Romania: Polirom, 2003; Richards J.C., Bohlke D. Creative effective language Lessons. - CUP, 2011. // www.cambridge.org/ojjer_files5/

when teaching a particular type of a lesson (speaking, listening, reading or writing lessons). A common lesson sequence found in many traditional language classes consists of a sequence of activities referred to as PPP and other approaches.

In communicative language teaching lessons often begin with *accuracy-based activities* and move toward *fluency-based activities*.

Reading lessons often follow a format consisting of *Pre-reading*, *While-reading*, and *Post-reading* activities.

Listening lessons follow a similar format.

Conversation lessons often begin with controlled practice activities, such as dialogue practice, and move toward open-ended activities, such as role plays. Lessons based on a task-based approach often follow a sequence consisting of *Pre-task activities*, a *task cycle*, the *language focus*, and a *Follow up task*

The lesson sequence depends on principles such as “easier before more difficult activities,” “receptive before productive skills,” or “accuracy activities before fluency activities.” Planning a lesson a teacher should handle the transitions between the different sequences of the lesson.

3. Closing. The closing phase of a lesson is also an important part of a lesson sequence. Ideally, it should leave the students with a feeling that they have successfully achieved the goal they set for themselves or that had been established for the lesson, and that the lesson was worthwhile and meaningful. At the end of a lesson, it is usually valuable to summarize what the lesson has tried to achieve, to reinforce the points of the lesson, to suggest a follow up work as appropriate, and to prepare students for what will follow. It is always important to praise the students for their effort and performance. During the closing stage, students may raise issues or problems that they would like to discuss or resolve; at this time, a teacher may also encourage them to ask

him/ her for suggestions concerning how they can improve.

Planning for transitions involves thinking about how the momentum of the lesson will be maintained during a transition – for example, while moving from a whole-class activity to a group-work activity; another issue that teachers need to consider is what students should do between transitions – for example, if some students complete an activity before the others.

Teachers generally enjoy their time in the classroom, and teaching from one perspective is a kind of performance. However, according to R. Senior¹²⁰ it is important to remember that “performing” is not the key goal of teaching. Facilitating students’ performance is a more important goal. One way of increasing the amount of students’ participation during a lesson is to vary the grouping arrangements that a teacher uses; in this way, the teacher does not always dominate the lesson. The use of pair work and group work is one method that has been shown to ensure that students participate actively at a lesson.

1.5. Independent work and learning

Nowadays the role of an independent work (learning) at all stages of education is increasing. One of the organizational forms of teaching is independent work (self-study) run out of direct contact with a teacher (homework, laboratory work) or run under control of the teacher and run through teaching material and monitoring by the teacher (distance learning). Independent work is the important part in ELT, because 30 % of teaching and learning time is given to the independent work. The teacher must 1) understand the goal of independent work and the final result of ELT at a certain level; 2) know the procedure of independent work. Independent work can be conducted in the classroom and out-of-classroom in the written and oral form. Independent work can be organized as an individual work, or pair

¹²⁰ Senior R. The experience of language teaching. - New York: Cambridge University Press, 2006.

and group work.

It is known that independent work activates students' cognitive activity making learning process more successful and developing self-learning abilities of learners.

J. Rubin investigated what 'good language learners' did to facilitate their learning and identified some of their learning strategies, 'the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge'¹²¹. The teacher's job is not only to teach EL, but to teach learning, because students need training in learning strategies.

The aim of the teacher is 1) to select the content of ELT, 2) to provide rational organization of students' self-learning, 3) to develop students' self-learning strategies. Each student uses the source of information depending on his/ her needs and capabilities, he/ she works in own tempo to come to some result. That's why an independent work shapes flexible form of organization and contributes increasing responsibility of each student for the results of education.

Independent work correlates with learners' autonomy as ability to take charge of one's own learning. Autonomous learners understand the purpose and process of learning and are able to choose from available tools and resources to create a productive learning environment. We should promote learner autonomy for the purpose of transforming dependent and passive learners. For this aim teachers should encourage students to be more self-motivated and continue learning outside the classroom so they can be personally responsible for acquiring English. The teacher promotes autonomous behavior by suggesting curricular and extracurricular activities, focusing first on those that students are already engaged in. For example, the teacher may ask students to try such English activities as writing a letter

¹²¹ Rubin J. What the "good language learner" can teach us.// TESOL Quarterly 9. - P. 43.

to pen pals, reading newspapers, magazines; listening to the radio; watching movies, surfing the Internet; talking with foreigners, practicing conversation with friends, studying in groups, attendance of English clubs.

It is necessary for development students' independent learning:

- to become aware of the purpose of activity and all tasks;
- to know the procedure of tasks doing;
- to be able to use different aids for tasks doing;
- to be able to see the visual and verbal supporters in the material of the task to overcome the difficulties;
- to provide the appropriate conditions for task doing.

Teachers can train students to take charge of every stage of their independent learning, which includes:

- setting goals;
- identifying and developing strategies to achieve such goals;
- developing study plans;
- reflecting on learning (which includes identifying problem areas and the means of addressing these problems);
- identifying and selecting relevant resources and support;
- assessing one's own progress (which includes a certain criteria for evaluating performance and learning).

Independent work can be organized as individual work, in pair work, small group and with whole class. These organizational forms call upon to create and develop a set of organizational, information, cognitive and communicative skills which provide moving to language proficiency and learning strategies integratively.

Questions:

1. What features of EL lesson can you say about?

2. What do we mean by the cycle of lessons?
3. What are requirements claimed to the FL lesson organization?
4. Name the forms of interaction. What forms of interaction are more successful in communicative language learning?
5. Does the lesson plan help you to organize effectively teaching process?
6. How much better will be your lesson if you use visual aids?

Tasks:

1. Work in pair. Analyse the given teaching models (approaches for lesson organization)?
2. Discuss in the small group students' errors, repetition drills, explaining grammar rules and using English in the classroom
3. Imagine that you are a teacher. Do you give students a chance to practice the correct forms?
4. Think of one good student and one weaker student in the class. What do you do to challenge a weak student language performance?
5. Read and think why the given items are essential for teachers and learners from the position of planning¹²².

For a teacher	For learners
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ensures efficient language teaching; - helps avoid inadequate, improvise or useless activities; - gives a picture of how much you have done and how much remains to be done; - tells what changes you should make when you teach the lesson again a year later or the same year, to another class of learners; - enriches experience in organization and administration. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - encourages them to progress gradually; - avoids boredom or lack of interest; - avoids wasting time and effort; - contributes significantly to their systematic knowledge, linguistic ability and their maturity; - ensures development in the time available.

6. Analyze one of the EL text books used at school, lyceum and college, and

¹²² The items taken from the book: Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. . In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. - Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P. 79.

describe the following items: a) the aim of the lesson, b) the main stages of the lesson, c) the system of exercises.

Independent work:

1. Taking into consideration the age group abilities and class/ course at school, or lyceum, or college work out a project of the lesson according to the following stages: 1) Introduction, 2) Reading; 3) Presentation; 4) Practice, 5) Production.

There are different activities in the table below. Write in the second column classes at school or courses at lyceum or college where we can use each activity thinking about its success and appropriateness to this age group. Choose the given activities for your lesson.

Activities	Classes or courses at school, lyceum and college
1. Learning activity done in class	1.
2. Listening a text	2.
3. Answering questions to a text	3.
4. Reading aloud	4.
5. Silent reading	5.
6. Repetition drill	6.
7. Substitution drills	7.
8. Question/ answer practice (whole class)	8.
9. Oral practice in pair	9.
10. Guessing games	10.
11. Copying words/ sentences	11.
12. Dictations	12.
13. Paragraph writing	13.
14. Role play	14.
15. Free discussion	15.
16. Correction of each other's work	16.

2. There are three views of the learning process: 1) learning by heart, 2) forming habits by drilling and repetition, 3) acquiring rules naturally through attempts to communicate. Read this information and think about their effectiveness in the EL teaching and learning process.

Learning by heart. A traditional approach to learning by heart and a lot of people attempt to learn languages by learning set sentences, dialogues, and texts by heart. Learning by heart is likely to be most useful in learning things which are fixed and limited, and it is often found to be a useful way of mastering certain fixed items in a language, such as numerals or irregular past tense forms. The problem with learning by heart as a strategy for learning the whole of a language is that language is not something which is limited and finite; using a language involves understanding and producing an infinite variety of sentences. Having learned only a dialogue wouldn't be useful for language practice for pragmatic aims. Learning set sentences by heart may enable us to give a few fixed responses, but it is not likely to prepare us for this great variety of language acquisition what we need to understand and use. It seems clear that language is not something that we can "learn" in the same way that we might learn a poem or a set of instructions; it is not a body of knowledge but a set of skills, so 'learning a language' must mean learning to use those skills.

Forming habits. Another view of how language is learnt is to see it as developing a set of 'habits' which we learn by imitation and which gradually become automatic; in this view, language is seen as similar to more mechanical activities such as eating or swimming. Central to this view is the belief that children learn their first language by imitating their parents and by reinforcement on the part of the parents (the parents "reward" correct sentences by responding positively to them). This view of language learning is associated with the behaviorist school of psychology and is reflected in the audio-lingual approach to LT, which was popular in the 1950s and 1960s. Applied to learning a FL, it emphasizes the importance of repetition and drilling; and as language is thought to be learnt by repeating correct sentences, it is considered important for students to avoid making errors.

Acquiring rules. This view sees language as a system of rules. Learning a language involves being exposed to samples of language that we can understand; from this we can acquire the rules of the language and apply them to make an unlimited number of original sentences. During the process of learning either our L1 or FL, the rules we apply will often be incomplete or slightly different from the actual rules of the language, and this will lead to errors. In this view, therefore, errors are a natural part of the acquisition process, and need not be completely avoided. It is important to clarify what we mean by ‘acquiring the rules’ of a language. It means being able to *apply* the rules (in other words, to understand and use the language correctly); it does not necessarily mean knowing how to explain the rules (in other words, to talk about the language). All native speakers of English ‘know’ the differences between the Present Perfect and Past Tenses, in the sense that they use them correctly, but very few would be able to explain the differences; by contrast, some learners of English can explain the differences between the two tenses (they ‘know’ the rule) but they can not use the tenses correctly. It is, of course, applying the rules that are important in language this is an entirely subconscious process. It may be that in learning a FL too the best way to acquire rules is subconsciously, by reading and listening to language, rather than by consciously ‘learning grammar’. All these are valid views of the ways in which language skills can be developed although the third is the most powerful. Demonstration and habit formation undoubtedly have a role to play if our aim is to develop the skills to communicate in unpredicted circumstances then we have to provide our learners with the opportunity to acquire the underlying rules of the language themselves.

3. To design a cycle of lessons on the environmental problems (animals) for vocational college a teacher can use the given macro- strategies in the box

This topic is an umbrella to focus students on vocabulary, information and its issues, discussion, learning about oral summaries (genre), using information from the oral summaries to become a participant in a simulated meeting designed to encourage problem-solving and negotiation for conflict resolution. Study the table and create the cycle of lessons. In the cycle of lessons news information about animals and movie fragments from “Free Willy” should be used.

Macro-strategies	Explanation
1. Maximize learning opportunities	At this lesson learning opportunities are maximized by organization of a number of learning tasks, organized from easiest to most difficult across the lesson.
2. Facilitate negotiated interaction.	At this lesson, negotiated interaction occurs in the homework (summary writing) check, group quiz, discussions, summary check, simulation and debriefing.
3. Minimize perceptual mismatches	At this lesson perceptual mismatches are minimized in initial stage through language-focus activities, building shares knowledge, and sharing of unique knowledge. However, for the students activity to minimize perceptual mismatches can be conducted through problem-solving and negotiation techniques, and finally through the debriefing and reflection process.
4. Activate intuitive heuristics	At this lesson students are able to notice the differences in structural and genre choices in the new movie fragment (video), newspaper report, and the written piece which they summarize. Although all are dealing with the same topic they do it in different ways for different purposes.
5. Foster language awareness	At this lesson fostering language awareness is achieved through vocabulary including idiom work, as well as through genre awareness work.
6. Contextualize linguistic input	At this lesson linguistic input is contextualized initially through the topic represented by the video and then through simulation. It is also contextualized macro-linguistically through reference to genre.
7. Integrate language skills.	At this lesson language skills are integrated but also graded from easiest to most challenging. In terms of language outcomes students write definitions in English; use new words and idioms in sentences; record what they have seen; record what they have heard; answer comprehension questions; discuss; read and summarize; present their summaries orally to a group; listen to summaries; use the information gained from the summaries in a meeting format, negotiating until a solution is reached; reflect orally on their meeting experience and write about their reflections of that experience, as well as encountering several genres.

8. Promote learner's autonomy.	This lesson attempts to promote learner's autonomy through language awareness activities; raising critical awareness abilities; exploring critical listening and explanatory abilities and awareness of conflict resolution skills.
9. Raise cultural consciousness.	At this lesson students are exposed to the real-life drama of a movie star they know; they follow the story of the rehabilitation of a captured marine animal and understand the debate which has arisen world-wide about the capture and release of these animals and they are confronted with morality of keeping animals for commercial purposes.

2. Extracurricular activities in English

Questions to be discussed

2.1. Specifics of extracurricular activities

2.2. The principles of work in extracurricular activities

2.3. Work strategies in extracurricular activities

2.4. The content and process of organization

extra-curricular work at school, lyceum and college

Key words: extracurricular activities, contemporary strategies, active learning, leaders of extracurricular activities.

2.1. Specifics of extracurricular activities at school, lyceum, college

The issue of the successfulness of the educational process is not an issue that pertains solely to the 21st century. The reforms and orientations have contributed towards scholarly pluralism and offered new learning forms, methods and contents, thus contributing to the specific structure of education (Robinson, 2003), and particularly its practical characteristics.

An optimal organization of lessons and a selection of successful methods influence the activity of students, while the contemporariness of teaching materials and methods leads to easier, faster, clearer and more rational, economic and productive learning and teaching. It is precisely the skill of successfully preparing and leading, and of utilizing appropriate procedures, methods, forms of interaction, media and technology that distinguish a modern and open institutional education. Such an education leads towards a quality school and a society of knowledge, empowers both the individual and the group and leads to the formation of

professional and innovative, humane and socially oriented community members. Through various activities and materials, the use of modern media and teaching strategies that correspond with global cultural and civilization development, the creativity of pupils is also stimulated. For the reasons stated, we can conclude that a quality school merges a contemporary approach to lessons with learning topics adapted to contemporary knowledge and revelations, thus allowing participants in education a holistic development and continuous personal improvement (Bartlett, 2003).

The contemporary school has continued with the tendencies and the intentions of reformative orientations in pedagogy that stimulated the opening of schools to the needs of youth and the expansion of its educational values to the extracurricular, leisure time of young people, as well. Thus, students gather according to various activities: sport, music, science, research etc. This means that the school has offered its students the option to spend their free time in the quality and learning environment of extracurricular activities, with the aim of individual educational development.

The successfulness of a contemporary school is reflected precisely in the manner in which it establishes connections between its pupils, its teachers and its educational content (Baker, 2002); this influences the students' progress, enriches their knowledge and develops their skills – therefore, preparing them for life.

We maintain that the right means for the targeted development of pupils are none other than extracurricular activities, as they optimally organize the free time that students have after regular classes. Let us also mention that students independently select how to spend their leisure time and which activities to join, actively participating in the work and impelling themselves to innovativeness and creativity. In this manner, they develop their

personalities, acquire knowledge and develop their skills while experiencing, perceiving and evaluating mankind's cultural, scientific, technical and sports achievements. They become familiar with the quality and aesthetically valuable attainments of our civilization, which influences their general knowledge. In addition, they acquire the culture of using their leisure time well.

Extracurricular activities are efficient site upon which contemporary educational goals can be realized, and a site upon which teaching strategies that facilitate learning are successfully implemented. Through variously themed activities, students have the opportunity to use strategies of spotting differences and similarities, of summarization and notation, of increasing effort and giving recognition, of practicing, reviewing, cooperative learning, giving feedback, creating and testing hypotheses and of forming questions. Therefore, it is important to raise consciousness on the role and value of extracurricular activities and the possibilities they offer, and to stimulate their organization and implementation.

The value of the successful implementation of the aforementioned is also reflected in the fact that extracurricular activities enrich the life of a school, often giving it a distinctiveness that makes it recognizable within its environment.

2.2. The principles of work in extracurricular activities

Extracurricular activities represent planned educational endeavors that are executed within the framework of the school, outside regular lessons, and which provide an area of interest and, in addition, an all-round affirmation of a pupil's personality. To the teacher, they provide an expanded educational influence on the school audience.

We can view extracurricular activities from two perspectives: a

narrower and a broader one. From a narrower point of view, extracurricular activities are part of the "school package" occurring after regular lessons, while a broader perspective relates to the possibility of opening the school towards the wider community. A narrower understanding of extracurricular activities, one oriented towards the school, can be found in Pedagogical Encyclopedia I (1989, 299), where it is stated that "extracurricular work encompasses the various activities of pupils within the school and organized by the school, but outside the curriculum and the programme of regular lessons". It is evident that the educational work of the school is continued through them, only during the pupils' free time and, which is exceptionally important, with the implementation of special work strategies. On the other hand, thanks to the enthusiasm of education workers – the bearers of these activities – and an interested group of students, the school opens its doors to everything that surrounds it: other schools, students, teachers, professionals and professional associations.

Considering the equal importance of both education and upbringing in the shaping of a contemporary individual, let us also mention that educational work in extracurricular activities, in addition, offers the opportunity of continuously applying child rearing principles in work. Although activity leaders have to invest maximum effort, knowledge, patience and will for a change to occur in the pupil, a lot also depends on the pupil himself. The success of educational work is the fruit of a mutual, cooperative relationship. In this sense, the efficacy of education and rearing is manifested in the use of the principles of uniqueness in work, in a respect for differences between students, the recognition and satisfaction of basic needs and the use of varied work methods and tools, while activating pupils through work and a cooperation

that aims towards the self-rearing of the child. All of these principles are equally important and useful. There is no hierarchical relationship between them. Differences may occur only in relation to the situation at hand. It is wrong to think that a principle can perform the job of educating all by itself, without concrete activities planned by the teachers and students.

Let us stress that a teacher's enthusiasm is not sufficient for good educational work and management of extracurricular activities, as teachers also need to be qualified for this work – professional knowledge and methodical preparation are necessary. The students' creative productivity largely depends on the teacher's professional competences, actions, work methods and his relationship with his students. The teacher's knowledge, abilities and experience are brought forward in his work on informing, orienting, planning, organizing and conducting extracurricular activities with students. The pedagogical role of a teacher involved in extracurricular activities is manifested in assisting, inciting, coordinating, counseling, teaching and directing pupils towards a correct, cultured and rational usage of leisure time.

In everyday life and, in particular, in the area of education, the importance of giving significance to lifelong learning and development is incessantly stressed. Professional development is based on the constructivist learning theory model. It is a continuous, long-term process tuned to the needs of everyday lessons and learning. This process presupposes continuous support from the system and the self-evaluation of teachers who explore their own practice and deliberate upon it.

A professional teacher, an interested group of students, a classroom equipped with adequate means and aids, investing effort into an activity, and also the support and understanding of the school and the environment are all prerequisites for the quality implementation of

extracurricular activities and the enrichment of students' experiences.

2.3. Work strategies in extracurricular activities

The programme of every activity ought to respect not only the needs of the pupils, but also the needs of the school and the community. The affinities of pupils and teachers, planned activities, the manner in which activities are conducted, the needs and the culture of the social environment – these are but few of the factors with which the teacher ought to be acquainted with when organizing extracurricular activities. Planning extracurricular work demands an excellent knowledge of the social, psychological, pedagogical, didactical and professional dimensions of teaching.

In planning his work in extracurricular activities, the teacher is led by the goal and the purpose of every single activity. In this manner, he allows pupils to acquire new knowledge and skills and promotes a general culture of communication, raising awareness on the need for better interaction and socialization.

There are several basic prerequisites necessary for the quality management of extracurricular programme. These relate to a free selection of activities, the professionalism of their leaders and the use of contemporary forms, methods, programme and organization. Therefore, the students ought to have the option of freely selecting from a diverse array of quality extracurricular activities at the beginning of the school year. Furthermore, leaders of extracurricular activities should possess professional knowledge and an affinity towards the area they are leading, while also systematically pursuing the latter. The material, technical and other conditions necessary for the satisfactory conduction of extracurricular programme also ought to be ensured; it is necessary to use diverse forms, methods and procedures. The creative

capabilities of each student should be stimulated and developed with a quality programme, one with many diverse approaches to the implementation and execution of the same.

In discussing the issue of extracurricular activities, what does the term of contemporary strategy specifically presuppose? Here we are not implying only the preparation and organization of the same activities, but also the contemporariness (quality) of the programme, content, forms and work methods that are being executed.

The manners and methods of execution ought to take the form of a workshop, project, group research or independent research; as such a method of work contributes to the contemporariness of education. Work should be free, open, unhampered, dynamic and varied. The students' interests and their wishes, affinities and talents ought to represent an important starting point.

Such a process of "active learning" presupposes various activities of pupils who learn together with those who teach them. It can be viewed from two angles: that of the student and that of the teacher, while its key feature is its shifting of focus to the students as an active, participatory constructor of his own knowledge. The achievement of higher levels of understanding and motivation through such active learning satisfies the demands of constructivism, whose teachings are based on: the importance of previous knowledge, immediate experiences in reality, and the holistic nature of experience, the reflexivity of learning and teaching, students' creativity, inner motivation, the role of the teacher, the method of holistic teaching. Considering that the student is involved immediately and focused on carefully selected activities, he is in the position to deliberate on what he is doing. In this manner, he constructs a system of logically connected knowledge that he will be able to utilize in

various situations in life. By using creative teaching as a starting point, utilizing strategies and methods that stimulate the development of active learning and critical thinking and by introducing cooperative and experiential learning models specific interests are developed, while the students' understanding and application of acquired knowledge is also improved. In order to achieve this, it is essential to include elements of "positive co-dependence, individual and group responsibility, the stimulation face to face interaction, social skills as well as group processing" (Cota Bekavac, 2001, 32) in cooperative activities.

Let us also mention the following. By using contemporary work strategies in extracurricular activities, the work of gifted students can be discovered, stimulated and monitored, and it is also easier and faster to discover and guide such students in these circumstances; contemporary work strategies are an opportunity for a better social integration, the foundation for spending leisure time in a quality manner, they enable a permanent education of its participants and act as prevention against negative influences from the environment.

Extracurricular activities should realize goals and tasks that cannot be realized within regular lessons. One should aim towards offering activities that are in tune with current events, and thus contribute to the broadening of the pupils' horizons. In this manner, a possibility is opened for extracurricular activities to become a valuable and important area for nurturing and fostering a child's positive qualities, and for stimulating and developing individual abilities and the corresponding skills.

With the introduction of extracurricular activities into schools, new opportunities for the additional involvement of young people are opened, as is the opportunity for their versatile development and education. Contemporary strategies organize students' activities in a freer fashion, according to their

interests and affinities, in order for them to expand and deepen the knowledge they have acquired by connecting theory and practice, and to deepen their need for cultural events in their leisure time. The students' enthusiasm for further work, activity and effort stems from the fact that the activity was voluntarily chosen, is flexible in its tasks, has an open approach and is held in a comfortable environment. In respect of the aforementioned, students are motivated for work and for studying a certain topic or area which, therefore, immediately affects their development.

It is important to stress that teachers (and students) have the option of suggesting topics and activities according to their area of interest, which we consider a great organizational advantage. In accordance with this, and depending on the area of interest, work conditions, the needs of the school and the wider community, new activities, contemporary forms, methods and strategies of work are brought into the programmes of extracurricular activities as new means of achieving planned goals and tasks.

In order to make the aforementioned feasible, not only is the teacher necessary as an initiator and a companion, but also the student, who acquires an important role in decision making. The selection of topics and activities should be based precisely on the students' inclinations, interests, abilities, capabilities and affinities, on the stimulation of creativity and on the applicability of the activities in practical, everyday life.

Due to all of the stated reasons, we can conclude that extracurricular activities ought to be viewed as a mode of active learning, and that effort should be made so that, using previous good experiences of implementing and executing extracurricular activities as a foundation, they may reach a higher level and

attain a contemporary developmental direction with the use of new proposals and stimulating measures.

2.4. The content and process of organization of extra-curricular work at school, lyceum and college

A similar classification by M. Andreeva (1958) subdivides all the ECAs into 3 major groups plus two combined forms of extracurricular activities:

1. Academic and common interests circles These are a very important part of student's life. Teachers believe these circles develop personalities of students and broaden their scope of vision. The requirements for the circles' meetings are clearly defined. The topics are useful for everyday life of students, complement the material studied in class at particular moment and are chosen in regards with students' queries and their age group. The aim of circles is to broaden the topics previously covered in class and study them in depth. The types of circles included: extracurricular home reading, translation and interpretation, Communication, Drama, Choir, Hometown studies, and Game circles.

2. Mass events

Examples of these extracurricular activities are song or poetry recital contests in the EL; theme parties or evenings, theatre performances in the EL or performances of companies staging dramas in foreign languages, holding conferences in foreign languages, having debates and meetings in English.

3. Individual work

This type of extracurricular activities could include: preparing for conference presentations, preparing for reports in class, and writing articles for school newspapers or magazines.

4. Another type of extracurricular activities is correspondence with students from other countries – it can be classified as both individual work (when a student has a pen-friend) and mass work when students keep correspondence between their circle and a group of students in another country with similar interests.

5. Language clubs – yet another form of extracurricular activities in schools - basically combined various above listed language-oriented extracurricular organized in all educational stages.

Nowadays most schools, lyceums and colleges have changed their attitudes to extracurricular activities again, and started encouraging their faculty and students to organize different kinds of extracurricular activities. The teaching materials and methods are being modernized and updated according to the present day academic needs and technical opportunities.

Questions:

1. What is the extracurricular work?
2. What is the role of extracurricular work in ELT?
3. How does extracurricular work stimulate students' desire to learn English?
4. Give the examples of interrelations of the extra-curricular and EL classwork.
5. Do you agree with that extracurricular work permits the teacher to get to know his students more intimately thereby creating more favorable conditions for classwork? Support your answer with some examples.

Tasks:

1. Extend the information about extracurricular work and make the

cluster with the word “extracurricular work”.

2. Extracurricular activities provide excellent grounds for the cultural upbringing of students. Give some examples to illustrate it.

3. You are organizing a role play within extracurricular work. You want students to act out a conversation based on the situation. How would you explain the situation:

- using English only?
- using English and your own language.

Independent work

1. If you had to conduct extracurricular work, how would you begin? Design a plan of extracurricular work for students of school, lyceum and college.

2. At the beginning level students the drama circle can be conducted. Create a program for organizing drama circle for the children. Think at first what drama can you suggest to children.

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GLOSSARY

(English- Russian- Uzbek)

A	отличная, высшая оценка (UK, US). Её возможные категории A, A-, A=	a'lo, yuqori baho(UK, US). Mumkin bo'lgan toifalari A, A-, A=
abbreviation	сокращение	qisqartirish
ability	способность	qobiliyat
ABC	азбука	alifbo
abridged	сокращенный, краткое	qisqartirilgan, qisqa
absorb	поглощать, впитывать (знания)	(bilimni) egallamoq, yutmoq
abstract	резюме; отрывок из книги; отвлеченное понятие	abstrakt
abstraction	абстракция	ma'xumot, xayoliy, ma'xum narsa
academic	учебный, академический, теоретический, ученый	akademik
academic adviser	научный руководитель	ilmiy rahbar
acceleration	акселерация, скорость обучения или развития, практика	akseleratsiya, o'qish yoki rivojlanish tezligi, tajriba
accent	акцент	aksent
accomplish	выполнять, достигать совершенства	bajarmoq, mukammalikka erishmoq
accordance	соответствие	moslik
acculturation	аккультурация	akkulturasiya
achievement	успеваемость, обученность	o'zlashtirishlik, ma'lumotlilik
acknowledge	подтверждать, признавать	tasdiqlamoq, tan olmoq
acoustic	акустик, звуковой	akustik, ovoqli
acquire	приобретать	egallash

acquaintance	знакомство	t anishuv
act	акт	akt, ijro
active	активный	aktiv, faol
activation	активизация	aktivizat siya
action	действие, движение	harakat, faoliyat
actualization	актуализация	akt ualizat siya
adaptation	адаптация	moslashtirish, adaptat siya
adaptive program(me)	адаптивная (гибкая) программа	moslashuvchan dastur
add (to smth.)	прибавлять (к), расширять знания	qo'shmoq, (bilimni) kengaytirmoq
administrate	управлять	boshqarish
advance	упреждение, вероятностное прогнозирование	oldindan chorasini ko'rish
advancement	продвижение	ilgarilash
affixation	аффиксация	affixat siya
aim	цель	maqsad, tasavvuridagi natija
algorithm	алгоритм	algorit m
algorithmization	алгоритмизация	algorit mizat siya, algorit mlash
algorithmizing		algorit mlash
A-level	повышенный уровень (Великобритания)	yuqori daraja(li) (Buyuk Britaniya)
alternative	альтернативный	alternativ
altruism	альтруизм	alt ruizm
analysis	анализ	analiz, tahlil
analytic	аналитический	analit ik, tahliliy
analytic-synthetic	аналитико-синтетический	analit ik- sint et ik

(to) analyze	анализировать	tahlil qilmoq
analysed	анализированный	tahliliy
analogy	аналогия	analogiya, moslik, monandlik, o'xshashlik, munosiblik
analyzer	анализатор	analizat or
annotation	аннотация	annot at siya, asar haqida qisqacha ma'lumot
announce	объявлять	bildirish
answer	ответ	javob
anticipation	антиципация	ant isipat siya, harakat natijasini, predmet ni, hodisani oldindan sezish qobiliyat i
antonym	антоним	ant onym, t eskari/ zid ma'noli til hodisasi
apperception	апперцепция	appersepsiya, idrokningavvalgit ajribaga, psixikf aoliyat ga, individualxususiyat gabog'liqligi (idrokqilinayot ganobyekt (- narsayokihodisa) odamt ajribasigaqarabf ahml anadi
apprentice	ученик, подмастерье	o'quvchi, shogird
applied linguistics	прикладная лингвистика	amaliy tilshunoslik
application	апликация	applikat siya, rasm yopisht irish (chet til o'qit ishda qo'llanadigan metodik vositalardan), magnit taxt asi yoki f lanelegraf ga yopisht iriladigan material
approach	подход	yondashuv, til o'rgat ish yondashuvlari
approximation	аппроксимация	approksimat siya, taqribiy

aptitude	потенциальные специальные способности индивида; приобретать знания и умения; пригодность к деятельности	shaxsning bilim va malaka egallashga bo'lgan maxsus ishtiyoq; faoliyatga iqtidor, qobiliyat
articulating	артикуляционный	artikulation
articulation	артикуляция	artikulation
artificial	искусственный	sun'iy
arts	гуманитарные науки; классические науки	gumanitar fanlar
ask	спрашивать	so'rash
assessment	оценка	baholash
assign	поручать, давать задание	topshiriq/ vazifa bermoc,
assignment	задание	vazifa/ topshiriq
assimilate	ассимилировать, усваивать (новые идеи, содержание)	(yangi g'oya, mazmuni) o'zlashtirmoc, egallamoc
associative	ассоциативный	assotiativ
association	ассоциация	assotiatiya
attainment	усвояемость, обученность	o'zlashtirishlik, ma'lumotlilik
attendance	посещение	davomat
attention	внимание	diqqat
attention span	объем/ время внимания	diqqat hajmi/ muddati
authentic	аутентичный	asl
auding	аудирование	tinglash, tinglash hamda tushunish, tinglab tushunish
audio	аудио	audio...
audio information	аудиоинформация	audioaxborot
audio-lingual	аудиолингвальный	audiolingval
audio-exercise	аудиоупражнение	audiomashq
audio-text	аудиотекст	audiomatn, audiotekst

audio- aids	аудиоматериалы	audiomat eriallar
audio- mat erials	аудиоматериалы	audiomat eriallar
audio- visual	аудиовизуал	audiovisual
audio- news	аудионо́вости	audioxabar
audit ion	слух; слу́шание, аудиро́вание	eshit ish; tinglash
audit ive	ауди́тив	audit iv, tinglashga mo'ljallangan
audit or	ауди́тор, слу́шатель	audit or, tinglovchi
audit orium	ауди́тория	audit oriya
audit ory pronunciat ion	слухопрóизносительный	eshit ib t alaf f uz qilishga oid
aut hent ic	ау́тентичный	aut ent ik
aut hor	автор	muallif
aut omat izat ion	автоматиза́ция	avt omat lashuv
aut omat ism	автоматизм	avt omat izm
aut onomy	автоно́мия	avt onomiya, mustaqillik
aut osuggest ion	самовну́шение	ixlos qilish, ko'ngilga tugish
(be) aware	знать	bilish
B	хоро́шая или удо́влетворительна́я о́ценка. В зависимости от категории В++, В+, В-, В=	yaxshi yoki qoniqarli baho (UK, US). В++, В+, В-, В= toif asiga qarab
baccalaureat e	бакалаври́ат	bakalavriat
bachelor	бакалавр	bakalavr
barrier	барье́р	t af ovut, t o'siq
base	база	baza, asos
basic	базовый	asosiy
basic course	основной учебный курс или предмет	asosiy o'quv kursi yoki f ani
be based	основыва́ться	t ayanish

behaviorism	бихевиоризм	bixeviorizm
bicult uralism	бикультурность	ikkimadaniylik
bilingual	билингв, двуязыный	zulli'nayn, bilingv, ikki t illi, qo'shzabon, ikki t ilni biluvchi
book	книга	kit ob
brainst orming	мозговая атака	aqliy hujum
branched (program)	разветвленная (программа)	t armoqli (dast ur)
broadcast	радиопередача	radioeshit tirish
C	удовлетворительная, или менее чем удовлетворительная оценка (UK, US). В зависимости от категории: C ++, C+, C-, C=	qoniqarli, yoki qoniqarsiz roq baho (UK, US). C ++, C+, C-, C= t oif asiga qarab
calendar	календарь	kalendar
calligraphy	чистописание, каллиграфия	husnixat, kalligraf iya
card	карточка	qalin qog'ozdan kesilgan varaqcha
case	событие	hodisa
case- study	кейс- стади, методика ситуативного обучения	keys- st adi
case- technology	кейс- технология	keys- texnologiya
cent ric	центрированный	markazlashgan
chat	чат	chaqchaqlashish
cit ation	цитата	iqtibos
cert ificat e	сертификат	sert if ikat
cert ificat ion	сертификационный	sert if ikat lasht iruvchi
class	занятие, урок	mashg'ulot, dars, saboq, leksiya
classif icat ion	классификация	klassif ikat siya, tasnif, guruhlash, t urlarga ajrat ish,

		tipologiya
cliché	КЛИШЕ	klishe
climate	КЛИМАТ	muhit
close- test	КЛЮЗ- ТЕСТ, ТЕСТ ДЛЯ ОПРЕДЕЛЕНИЯ ТРУДНОСТЕЙ ТЕКСТА ПРИ ЧТЕНИИ И ПОНИМАНИИ ЕГО СОДЕРЖАНИЯ	klouz- test, matnni o'qish va mazmunini tushunish qiyinligini aniqlashga qaratilgan test
clues	КЛЮЧЕВОЙ	kalit, kalit so'zlar yoki stimullar
cluster	КЛАСТЕРНЫЙ	klasterga oid
coach	РЕПЕТИТОР	repetitor
coaching	КОУЧИНГ	imtihonga tayyorlash
code	КОД	kod, shartli belgi
cognitive	КОГНИТИВНЫЙ, ПОЗНАВАТЕЛЬНЫЙ	bilishga oid, bildiradigan
cognizant	КОГНИЗАНТ	kognizant, bilimdon, oqil, onilkor
colloquial	РАЗГОВОРНЫЙ	so'zlashuvga oid
communicant	СОБЕСЕДНИК	suhbatdosh, o'zarosozlashuvchi ikkivaund anortiqkishi, kommunikant, nutq faoliyatini urituvchi
communicative	КОММУНИКАТИВНЫЙ	kommunikativ, muloqotchan, kommunikatsiya bilan bog'liq
communication	КОММУНИКАЦИЯ	kommunikatsiya, nutqiy aloqa, fikr almashuv, muloqot
comparative	КОМПАРАТИВНЫЙ, СРАВНИТЕЛЬНЫЙ	komparativ, qiyoslash, qiyosiy
compare	СРАВНИВАТЬ, СОПОСТАВЛЯТЬ	qiyos(lash), taqqoslash, muqoyasa, chog'ishtirish, solishtirish
competence	КОМПЕТЕНЦИЯ	kompetensiya

competition	олимпиада, конкурс	olimpiada, musobaqa, konkurs, ko'rik, tanlov
compile	составлять (учебник, пособие)	(darslik, qo'llanma) tuzmoq
complete	комплект	komplekt
complex	комплекс	kompleks, birga qo'shilgan, bir butun
component	компонент	komponent, tarkib, qism, tarkibiy qism
compose	составлять, составить	tuzish
comprehend	понимать; охватывать содержание	tushunmoq; mazmunni anglamoq
compression	компрессия	kompressiya, zichlashtirish, ixchamlashtirish, minimizatsiya
compulsory	обязательный	majburiy
computer	компьютер	kompyuter, elekt r hisoblash mashinasi
computer-assisted	с помощью компьютера	kompyuter yordamida
concent re	концентрироваться	konsent r
concent ric	концентрический	consent rik, yondashish
concent rism	концентризм	konsent rizm
concept	концепт	kont sept
concept ion	концепция	konsepsiya , ilmiy g'oya(lar)
concise	сжатый, краткий	qisqa, qisqartirilgan, siqilgan
condit ion	условие	sharoit, holat, vaziyat
connot at ion	коннотация	so'zning majoziy ma'nosi
conscious	сознательный	ongli
conscious-comparat ive	сознательно-сопоставительный	ongli- qiyosiy

consciousness	СОЗНАНИЕ, СОЗНАТЕЛЬНОСТЬ	ong, onglilik
conscious-practical	СОЗНАТЕЛЬНО- ПРАКТИЧЕСКИЙ	ongli- amaliy
constant	ПОСТОЯННЫЙ	doimiy
consultation	КОНСУЛЬТАЦИЯ	konsultat siya, o'quvchilarga ko'rsatiladigan yordam
contact	КОНТАКТ	kontakt, o'zaro aloqada bo'lish
contemporary	СОВРЕМЕННЫЙ	zamonaviy
content	СОДЕРЖАНИЕ	mazmun, tarkib
content of teaching grammar (CTG)	СОДЕРЖАНИЕ ОБУЧЕНИЯ ГРАММАТИКИ (СОГ)	ГОМ (grammatikani o'rgatish mazmuni)
content of teaching pronunciation (CTP)	СОДЕРЖАНИЕ ОБУЧЕНИЯ ПРОИЗНОШЕНИЯ (СОП)	ТОМ— talaffuzni o'rgatish mazmuni
content of teaching vocabulary (CNV)	СОДЕРЖАНИЕ ОБУЧЕНИЕ ЛЕКСИКЕ (СОЛ)	ЛОМ— leksikani o'rgatish mazmuni
contest	КОНКУРС, ОЛИМПИАДА	olimpiada, musobaqa, konkurs, ko'rik
context	КОНТЕКСТ	kontekst, so'z, so'z birikmasi, ibora ma'nosini ochib beradigan yozma yoki og'zaki nutq parchasi
contextual	КОНТЕКСТУАЛЬНЫЙ	kontekstual, kontekst bilan bog'liq
contrastive	КОНТРАСТИВНЫЙ	kontrastiv
control	КОНТРОЛЬ	nazorat, tekshiruv, kontrol
control panel	ПУЛЬТ	pult
conversation	РАЗГОВОР	suhbat, so'zlashish, musohaba, gurung, juf tnutq

		(- dialog), guruhnut q (- polilog)
correction	исправление (ошибки); поправка	(xato) to'g'rilash; tuzatish
corrective	коррективный	korrektiv
correlation	корреляция	korrelatsiya, chettilta'lim mazmunining ma vjudsharoit hamda qo'yilgan m aqsadga ko'z qarur, yetarlidarajadatanlanishih mdao'rgatilishi
country study	страноведение	mamlakatshunoslik
course	курс	kurs
cramming	зубрёжка	(tushunmasdan) yod olish
creative	творческий, созидательный	ijodiy, ijodkor
creativity	креативность, творчество	ijod, ijodkorlik
criterion (<i>pl.</i> - ia)	критерий	mezon, kriteriya, o'lchov, prinsip
critical	критический	tanqidiy
culture	культура	madaniyat
culture shock	культурный шок	madaniy zarba
culturology	культурология	madaniyatshunoslik
cumulative	кумулятивный	kumulativ
cybernetics	кибернетика	kibernetika, axborotni olish, saqlash, yetkazish hamda qayt a ishlash haqidagi fan
cyclicit y	цикличность	sikllilik, davrlilik
D	неудовлетворительная оценка, близкая к категориям C- , C=(UK, US)	C- , C= toifalariga yaqin qoniqarsiz baho (UK, US)
data (<i>sing.</i> - datum)	данные, факты	ma'lumotlar, dalillar

deaf - and- dumb pedagogy	сурдопедагогика	surdopedagogika
deautomatization	деавтоматизация	deavtomatizatsiya
deduction	дедукция	dedukt siya
deductive	дедуктивный	deduktiv
deficit	недочёты	kamchiliklar
definition	определение	t a'rif , <i>definit siya</i>
demonstration	демонстрация	namoyish, demonstratsiya, ko'rsatish
demonstration	демонстрация	demonstratsiya
denotatum	денотат	
deprefixation	депрефиксация	depreksatsiya
desemantization	десемантизация	desemantizatsiya
desuffixation	десуффиксация	desufksatsiya
desaffixation	дезаффиксация	dezafksatsiya
develop	развивать	rivojlantirish
developing	развивающий	rivojlantiruvchi
dialogue	диалог	juf tnut q, dialog, suhbat, muloqot, so'zlashish; yakkanut q
dialogic	диалогический	dialogik
didactic	дидактический	didaktik
Didactics	дидактика, теория образования	t a'limshunoslik, <i>didaktika, o'qitish (- ta'lim) naza-riyasi</i>
didactics	дидактика	didaktika
differentiation	дифференциация	tabaqalash, differentsiat siya, individualizatsiya
difficult	трудный	qiyin, mushkul, murakkab
difficulty	трудность	qiyinchilik, lisoniy taf ovut hosilasi

dictation	диктант	diktant
dictate	диктовка	tinglovchi yozib olishi uchun ovoz chiqarib aytish
differentiation	дифференцирование, дифференциация, разграничение, различение, разделение, видоизменение	farqlash, ajratish
direct	прямой	tog'ri
direction	направление, указание, установка	ko'rsatma, yo'nalish
diploma	диплом	diplom
discourse	дискурс	diskurs, nutqiy vaziyat dagi matn
discursive	дискурсивный	diskursiv
discursively	дискурсивность	diskursivlik
distinction	различие, отличие, разграничение, различение, разница	farq
distribution	организация	taqsimot, distribut siya, taqsimlash, tashkil etish
distributive	распределительный	taqsimlovchi
dramatization	инсценировка	inssenirovka, nasriy yoki she'riy asarni teatr talabiga moslashtirish
drill	тренировка	ma'noyokimazmunga e'tibor bermasdan, g'ayrihuuriy tarzda, mexanik bajariladigan mashq
drilling	зарядка	zaryadka, mashq, shug'ullanish (- odatda dars boshlanishida bajariladigan

		nut qiy/ til materiali bilan bog'liq mashg'ulot)
durability	прочность	mustahkamlik
dynamic	динамический	dinamik
easy	легкий	oson, o'zlashtirish uchun kam kuch hamda vaqt talab qiladigan
education	образование, просвещение	t'a'lim, o'qitish, o'rgatish , maorif, ma'rifat
educational	образовательный	t'a'limiy, t'a'linga oid
educator	учитель	o'qituvchi, muallim, domla, t'a'lim- tarbiyaberuvchi
efficiency	работоспособность	ish (ishlash) qobiliyati, layoqati
egocentrism	эгоцентризм	egosentrizm, o'ta ketgan manmanlik
elective	элективный (предмет, курс, учебник)	qo'shimcha, t'oldiruvchi (fan, darslik)
emotion	эмоция	emotsiya
environment	атмосфера	atmosfera, muhit
epi- project or	эпипроектор	svetotexnik t'a'lim vositalaridan biri
epistemology	гносеология	gnoseologiya
epistolary	эпистолярный	epistolar, maktubiy, xatga oid
ergonomics	эргономика	ergonomika
error	(грубая) ошибка	(qo'pol) xat o, nut qda til materialini notog'ri qo'llash, lisoniy yoki boshqa qiyinchilik oqibat i
erudition	начитанность	o'qimishlilik
essay	изложение	insho

ethnopsychology	ЭТНОПСИХОЛОГИЯ	etnopsixologiya
etiquette	ЭТИКЕТ	etiket, odob
etude	ЭТЮД	etyud, xomaki namuna
etymology	ЭТИМОЛОГИЯ	etimologiya
European language portfolio	европейский языковой портфель	yevropa lisoniy port f eli
exam	экзамен, проверка	sinov, test, imtihon, zachot, tekshirish, <i>nazorat</i> , <i>kontrol</i>
exercise	упражнение	mashq, chet tilda bajariladigan o'quv amali
experience	опыт	tajriba
experiment	эксперимент	eksperiment, tajriba
experimental	экспериментальный	eksperimental
	экспериментатор	eksperimentator
explain	объяснять	tushuntirish
express- method	экспресс- метод	ekspres- metodi
exposition	экспозиция	ekspozitsiya
exprompt	экспромт	eksprom(p)t
extensive	экстенсивный	ekstensiv
exteriorization	экстериоризация	eksteriorizatsiya
exteriorization of speech	экстериоризация речи	tashqinut q (og'zaki, yozma)
extralinguistical	экстралингвистический	nolisoniy, haqiqiy f aoliyat ga oid bo'lgan
extravert	экстраверт	ekstravert, muloqotchan, ochiq ko'ngil
extraversion	экстраверсия	ekstraversiya, introversiyaga zid hususiyat, tashqi olamga ochiqlik

f acult at ive	ф акультативный	f akult at iv
	активность	f aollik
f acilit at ion	ф асимиляция	f asilit at siya, yordam, yengillasht irish
f ilm	ф ильм	f ilm
f ilm lesson	киноурок	kinodars
f ilm exercise	киноупражнение	kinomashq, kino namoyish qilib bajariladigan mashq
f ilm fragment	кинокадр	kinokadr, kinoparcha, kinof ragment kinolavha
f ilmstrips	диафильм	diafilm
f inal	заключительный	yakuniy
f lanelegraph	ф ланелеграф	f lanelegraf
f luent	свободный	ravon
f oreign	иностранный	ajnabiy, xorijiy, chet
f oreign	иностранный язык	chet (chett il), xorijiy, ajnabiytil; makt abdao'qit iladigan chet ti llar (- ingliz, ispan, nemis, fransuz, rus — Yevropat illari hamda arab, turk, fors, xit oy, koreys, hind, urdu — Sharq t illari)
f oreign language teacher's port folio	портфель учителя иностранного языка	chet l tli o'qit uvchisi port f eli
f oreigner	иностранец	xorij zaban, chet tilda so'zlashuvchi, chet t il biladigan
f orm	ф орма	f orma, shakl, yasalish
f ormal	ф ормальный	f ormal, f orma bilan bog'liq
f ormation	ф ормирование	yasalish, shakl, f orma
f orming	ф ормирующий	shakllant iruvchi

forum	форум	forum
frontal	фронтальный	frontal, yoppasiga, ommaviy
functional	функциональный	funksional
function	функция	qo'llanilish, funksiya, ishlatilish, qo'llanish, ya'nireroduktiv hamda reseptiv ma'nolarini jassamlashgan
gender	гендерный	gender
generalization	обобщение	umunlashma, qoida, mavhumot, sodda ta'rif
generalize	обобщать	umunlashtirish, tajriba
general education	общее образование	umum ta'limiy
genetic	генетический	genetik, irsiy
global	глобальный	global
gnosiology	гносология	gnoseologiya
grade	класс	sinf, yagona o'quvdasturibo'yicha o'quyilidavomidashug'ullanadigan o'quvchilar jamoasi
graduated	градуированный	ma'lumotli
grammar	грамматика	grammatik, grammatika
grapheme	графема	grafema
graphic	графический	grafik
graphic	графика	grafika
group	группа	gruppa, guruh, tabaqa, toifa
group	групповой	gruppaviy, guruhiy
grouping	группирование	guruhlash
guidance	руководство	dasturamal, qo'llanma, dastur, darslik
guess-work	догадка	topqirlik

handbook	учебное пособие, руководство	qo'llanma, dast uramal
handout	раздаточный	tarqatma
hand(writing)	почерк	husnixat
hear	слышать	eshitish
hearing	слуховой	eshituv
hesitation	гезитация	ikkilanish
heuristic	эвристический	evristikaga oid, evristik
hierarchy	иерархия	iyerarxiya
historical	исторический	tarixiy
home	домашний	uy
homophone	омофон	omofon, ayt ilishda o'xshash, ma'nosi turlicha so'zlar
homograph	омограф	omograf, yozivdao'xshash, biroqt urlima'nodagiso'z
homonym	омоним	shakldosh, omonim, ma'nodosh
hyperactivity	гиперактивность	o'ta fadl
hypnopedia	гипнопедия	gipnopediya
i-conception	представление	tasavvur, ongdagi psixik jarayon
idea		
illustration	иллюстрация	rasm, surat
imitation	имитация	imitatsiya
imitate	имитировать	<i>taqlid qilish, o'xshatish</i>
imitative	имитативный	taqlidan, taqlidiy yo'l bilan, o'xshatib, taqlidiy
immanent	имманентный	bevosita
implementation	выполнение	bajarish
implicit	имплицитный, подразумеваемый	yashirin, nazarda tutiladigan, anglashiladigan

	невъраженный	
imprinting	импринтинг, запечатление	t aasurot, xot iradagi iz
improvement of (professional skill)	повышение (квалификации)	(malaka) oshirish
improving	совершенствующий	t akomillasht iruvchi
improvisation	импровизация	badiha
improvised	импровизированный, случайный	t ayyorlanmagan
independent	самостоятельный	must aqil
indicative	ориентировочный	oriyentir
individual	индивид	individual
individualization	индивидуализация	individualizat siya
induction	индукция	indikt siya
inductive	индуктивный	induktiv
influence	влияние	t a'sir
informative	информативный	informativ
information	информация	axborot, informat siya
informational	информационный	informat sion
insistence	настойчивость	t irishqoqlik, turg'unlik
inspiration	прощрение	rag'bat, stimul, undash
initial	начальный, пороговый	dastlabki, boshlang'ich
initiative	инициативный	init siativ
integral	интегральный, цельй, цельный, неотъемлемый	butun, ajralmas
integrated	интегрированный	birlashtirilgan, qo'shilgan
integrative	интегративный	umunlashtiruvchi, bir butun qiluvchi
integrity	целостность	butunlik, daxlsizlik

integration	интеграция	integratsiya
intellect	разум	idrok
intellectual	интеллектуальный	intellektual
intensification	интенсификация	jadallashtirish, intensifikatsiya
intensifying	активизация	aktivlashtirish, kuchaytirish, follashtirish
intensive	интенсивный	kuchli, jadal, intensiv
intention	интенция, направленность	maqsad
interaction	интеракция	o'zaro ta'sir
interactive	интерактивный	interfazol
interest	интерес	qiziqish
intercultural	межкультурный	madaniyatlararo
interface	интерфейс	interfays
interferential	интерференционный	interferension
interference	интерференция	interferensiya
interiorization	интериоризация	interiorizatsiya
interlingua	язык-посредник	vosit tili
international	интернациональный	internatsional, xalqaro, baynalmilal
internationalism	интернационализм	internatsionalizm
internet	интернет	internet
interval	промежуток	oraliq
interview	интервью	intervyu, musohaba
in-textual (exercises)	притекстовые (упражнения)	matn-ichi (mashqlari)
intonation	интонация	intonatsiya, ohang
introduction	введение	kirish

introspection	самонаблюдение	o'z- o'zini kuzatish
introversi on	интроверсия, сосредоточенность на самом себе	introversiya, o'ziga berilganlik
introvert	интроверт, человек сосредоточенный на своем внутреннем мире	introvert, o'z ichki olamiga berilgan odam
introvert	интроверт	introvert
intuitive	интуитивный	intuitiv
intuition	интуиция	ichki his, sezgilik
International Friendship Club (IFK)	международный клуб дружбы	BDK (Baynalmilal do'stlik klubi)
issue	проблема	muammo, masala, problema
judgment	суждение	fikr, muhokama, mulohaza
keyword	ключевое/ опорное слово	tayanch, til o'rganishga yordam ko'rsatadigan lisoniy birlik
kinesthetic	кинестетик	kinestetik
know	знать	bilish
knowledge	знание	bilim
laboratory	лаборатория	laboratoriya, mashg'ulot o'tadigan xona
lacuna	лакуна, пробел, пропуск, отсутствие лексического эквивалента в одном из языков	lakuna, oraliq, tillarning birida leksik ekvivalentning yo'qligi
language	язык	til, lison
language portfolio	портфель языковой, языковой портфель	lisoniy portfel
latent	скрытый, латентный	latent, til birligining "yashirin qo'llanish"iga bog'liq

learner- cent red	лично- стно- деятельностный	markazda o'quvchi t uruvchi
lect ure	лекция	leksiya, oliyo'quvyurt idat egishlimavz uyuzasidanog'zakisist ematik bayoni
lett er	буква	harf
lexical	лексический	leksik, leksikaga oid
lexicon	лексикон, толковый словарь	izohli lug'at
lesson	урок	mashg'ulot, dars, saboq, leksiya
lingaphone	лингафон	lingaf on
linguadidact ics	лингводидактика	lingvodidakt ika, lingvot a'limshunoslik
linguacult urology	линвокультурология	lingvakult urologiya, lisoniy madaniyat shunoslik
lingua- count ry st udy	лингвострановедение	lingvomamlakat shunoslik
lingual	лингвистический	lisoniy, tilga oid
linguamet hods	лингвометодика	lingvamet odika, til o'qit ish uslubiyoti
linguaphysiology	линвофизиология	lingvof iziologiya, nut q f iziologiyasi
linguapsychology	Линвопсихология	linvapsixologiya, til o'rgat ish ruhshunosligi
lingua- st ylist ics	лингвостилистика	lingvost ilist ika
linguist	лингвист	tilshunos, lingvist
linguist ic	лингвистический	filologik
linguist ics	лингвистика	tilshunoslik, lingvist ika, til haqidagi f an
linked	прикрепленный	bog'lanma
(be) linked	относиться, связываться, прикрепляться	bog'lanish

linking	прикрепляемый	bogʻlanishli
listening comprehension	слушание, аудирование	tinglab tushunish
literal	буквальный	harf iy
literary	литературный	adabiy
live	живой	jonli
localization	локализация	lokalizatsiya, mahalliy sharoit ga moslashtirish
logics	логика	mantiq
macro text	макротекст	makromatn, makrot ekst
master	магистр	magistr
master- class	мастер- класс	malakali mut axassis darsi
material	материал	material
means	средство	vosita
mechanic	механический	mexanik
mechanism	механизм	mexanizm
media- education	медиаобразование	mediat a'lim
mediate	медiateка	mediat eka
mediation	медиация	vosit achilik
memorize	запоминание	yodlash, xot irada saqlash, eslab qolish
memory	память	xot ira
mentality	менталитет, ментальность	ment alitet
mentally	мысленно	f ikran
meta language	мета язык	met atil, asos til
method	метод	met od, maqsadga erishish yoki vazif ani o't ash usuli, t adris, dars berish (o'qit ish) tizimi, uslubiyot

method	МЕТОД, ПРИЁМ	met od, uslub
methodical	МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ	uslubiy, met odik
methodologist	МЕТОДИСТ	met odist, ta'lim met odikasi mut axassisi, uslubchi
methodology	МЕТОДОЛОГИЯ	met odologiya ilmiy met od haqidagi ta'limot
methodologist	МЕТОДИСТ	uslubchi, met odist (- o'qit ish uslubiyoti mut axassisi)
methods	МЕТОДИКА	uslubiyot, met odika, t adris
micro text	МИКОТЕКСТ	mikromat n, mikrot ekst, jumla(lar)ga teng mat n
micro dialogue	МИКОДИАЛОГ	mikrosuhbat, qisqasuhbat, muxt asarjuf t nut q
mind- map	(МЕТОД) КАРТА- ПАМЯТИ	xot ira xarit asi
minimizat ion	МИНИМИЗАЦИЯ	minimizat siya, o'rganiladigan til mat erialini minimum miqdoriga kelt irish
minimum	МИНИМУМ	minimum, o'rganilayot gan til makrosist emasidan ta'lim maqsadlariga ko'ra t anlanadigan lisoniy mikrosist ema
mist ake	ОШИБКА	xato, nut qda til mat erialini not o'g'ri qo'llash, lisoniy yoki boshqa qiyinchilik oqibat i
mixed	СМЕШАННЫЙ	aralash
mnemonic activity	МНЕМИЧЕСКАЯ (ДЕЯТЕЛЬНОСТЬ), ВИД ДЕЯТЕЛЬНОСТИ, ОСНОВАННЫЙ НА ПАМЯТИ И ВООБРАЖЕНИЯ	xot ira va tasavvurga asoslangan f aoliyat
mnemonics	МНЕМОНИКА, ИСКУССТВО ЗАПОМИНАНИЯ	mnemonika, eslab qolish san'ati
modality	МОДАЛЬНОСТЬ	modallik
model	МОДЕЛЬ, ЭТАЛОН	model, namuna, nusxa, qolip, etalon, klishe, tayyor jumla

module	МОДУЛЬНЫЙ	modulli
monolingual	МОНОЛИНГВ	yakzabon, bir tilli, bir tilda so'zlashuvchi, monolingv (- bir tilni biladigan)
monologue	МОНОЛОГ	monolog, yakkanut q
motivation	МОТИВАЦИЯ	motivat siya, moyillik, shaylik, nut qiyf aoliyat ko'rsat ishgam oyillik
motivational	МОТИВАЦИОННЫЙ	motivat sion
motive	МОТИВ	motiv, undovchi sabab, ichki va tashqi turtki
motor	МОТОР	motor
moral	МОРАЛЬНЫЙ	ma'naviy, axloqiy, ichki (ruhiy) holat gaoid
movie	КИНОФИЛЬМ	kinofilm
multicultural	МУЛЬТИКУЛЬТУРНЫЙ	ko'pmadaniy
multimedia	МУЛЬТИМЕДИЯ	multimedia; matn, audio-, video- va animatsion elementlardan iborat ta'lim vositasi
natural	НАТУРАЛЬНЫЙ	tabiiy
negative	НЕГАТИВНЫЙ	salbiy, <i>ijobiy emas, nomaqbul</i>
neobehaviorism	НЕОБИХЕВИОРИЗМ	neobixeviorizm, Amerika ruhshunoslarining qator yo'nalishlarini jamlovchi ifoda
net	СЕТЕВОЙ	tarmoqqa oid
neutral	НЕЙТРАЛЬНЫЙ	betaraf, neytral, xolis
neutralization	НЕЙТРАЛИЗАЦИЯ	neytralizatsiya, bartaraf etish
neurolinguistics	НЕЙРОЛИНГВИСТИКА	neyrolingvistika
neuropsychology	НЕЙРОПСИХОЛОГИЯ	neyropsixologiya

nomenclature	НОМЕНКЛАТУРА	sohalarda qo'llanadigan atamalar majmui
nomination	НОМИНАЦИЯ	nomzodlikka qo'yish
norm	НОРМА	norma, me'yor
normal	НОРМАЛЬНЫЙ	mo'tadil, normal, norma doirasidagi
note	КОНСПЕКТ	konspekt, dars rejasi
notion	ПОНЯТИЕ	tushuncha, fikr formasi, psixik hosila
objective	ПРЕДМЕТНЫЙ	ashyoviy, narsa (predmet)ga oid
observe	НАБЛЮДАТЬ	kuzatish
observation	НАБЛЮДЕНИЕ	kuzatuv
ontogenesis	ОНТОГЕНЕЗ	ontogenez (har bir organizmning avvalidan oxirigacha bo'lgan hayoti va hayotiy jarayonlari)
operative	ОПЕРАТИВ	operativ
operating	ОПЕРАЦИОН	operatsion
operation	ОПЕРАЦИЯ	operatsiya, faoliyat birligi, harakat qilish usuli
opposition	ОППОЗИЦИОН	oppozitsion
optimization	ОПТИМИЗАЦИЯ	optimizatsiya, yengillashtirish, smaradorlik
opinion	МНЕНИЕ	fikr
oral	УСТНЫЙ	og'zaki
oral-advance principle	(ПРИНЦИП) УСТНОГО ОПЕРЕЖЕНИЯ	og'zaki o'zib ketish (pintisipi)
organizational	ОРГАНИЗАЦИОННЫЙ	tashkiliy
<i>organization</i>	ОРГАНИЗАЦИЯ	tashkilot, til materialini taqsimlash, <i>taqsimot</i>

orient at ion	ориентировка	mo'ljallash, chamalash
orient ing	ориентирующий	yo'llovchi
orient ed	ориентированный	yo'nalganlik
original	оригинал	asil, sof , original, asliyat , asl nusxa, qo'l yozma
originality	оригинальность	asliyat
ort hogram	орфограмма	orf ogramma
ort hography	орфография	orf ograf iya, imlo, yozish qoidasi
paper	реферат	ref erat, o'qilgan mat n/ asarning qisqach yozma bayoni
paradigm	парадигма	pradigma, so'zning turlanish, t uslanish t art ibot i, bir-biriga qarshi ma'noli lisoniy birliklarni umumiy belgilari asosida jamlanganligi
paradigmatics	парадигматика	lisoniy paradigmalarni jamlovchi til sist emasi
paraliguistics	паралингвистика	noverbal nut q vosit alarini o'rganuvchi tilshunoslik bo'limi
paraphrases	парафраза	f ikr, harakat yokivoqeanidast labki f oydalanilganlisoniyvosit alar danf arqlio'laroqt asvirlash
paronyms	паронимы	pronimlar, mazmunan yaqin yoki qisman mos keluvchi bir o'zakli so'zlar
pass- f ail/ pass- no pass	зачет	sinov
passive	пассив	passivpauza, t o'xt ash

pause	пауза	t o'xt ash, pauza
pedagogic	педагогик	pedagogik, pedagogikaga oid
pedagogics	педагогика	pedagogika, ta'lim- tarbiya haqidagi fan, tarbiyashunoslik
pedology	педология	pedologiya
perception	перцепция	persepsiya, idrok qilish
perceptive	перцептив	perseptiv
performative	перформатив, высказывания эквивалентные действию, поступку	ayrimharakat ningif odalanis hiva harakat ningo'ziso'zdaaks etishi, ularga 1 shaxsdagi "minnat dorbo'lmoq", "va' daber moq", "buyur moq" kabif e'llarkiradi
persistence	настойчивость	tirishqoqlik, turg'unlik
phoneme	фонема	f onema
phonetic	фонетический	f onetik
phonetics	фонетика	f onetika
phono...	фоню	f ono...
phonograph	фонюграф	f onograf
phonogram	фонюграмма	f onogramma
phrasebook	разговорник	
plan	план	plan, reja
planning	планирование	rejalashtirish, planlashtirish
plurilingualism	плюрилингвализм	ko'ptillilik
point	балл	ball
policultural	поликультурный	ko'pmdaniyatli
polyglossa	полиглоссия	poliglossiya, ko'ptillilik
polyglot	полиглот	polyglot, ko'ptillarda so'zlashuvchi, ko'ptilli

polysemy	ПОЛИСЕМИЯ	polisemiya, ko'p ma'nolilik
polylogue	ПОЛИЛОГ	polilog, guruhnut q, ko'pchilik suhbat i
portal	ПОРТАЛ	port al
portfolio	ПАПКА	papka
pose	ПОЗА	qiyof a
position	ПОЗИЦИЯ	joy,holat; nuqt ai nazar
positional	ПОЗИЦИОН	pozit sion
positive	ПОЗИТИВНЫЙ	ijobiy
post- textual (exercises)	ПОСЛЕТЕКСТОВЪЕ (УПРАЖНЕНИЯ)	mat n- orqa (mashqlari)
potential	ПОТЕНЦИАЛ	pot ensial
practice		amal
(in) practice	НА ПРАКТИКЕ	amalda
practical	ПРАКТИЧЕСКИЙ	amaliy
practice	ПРАКТИКА	prakt ika, amaliyot, ish, tajriba
pragmatics	ПРАГМАТИКА	pragmat ika
precedent	ПРЕЦЕДЕНТНЫЙ, ПРЕДШЕСТВУЮЩИЙ	o'xshash, teng
prediction	ПРОГНОЗ	prognoz, oldindan ayt ish, bilish, bashorat, karomat
prefixation	ПРЕФИКСАЦИЯ	pref iksat siya, old qo'shimchasi (- pref iks) qo'shish
presentation	ПРЕЗЕНТАЦИЯ	prezent at siya, taqdimot
presupposition	ПРЕСУППОЗИЦИЯ	oldindan taxmin qilish
pre- textual (exercises)	ПРЕДТЕКСТОВЪЕ (УПРАЖНЕНИЯ)	mat n- oldi (mashqlari)
prevalence	РАСПРОСТРАНЕННОСТЬ	tarqalganlik

problem	проблема	muammo, masala, problema
problem search	проблемно-поисковый	muammo qidiruvchi
procedure	процедура	jarayon
process	процесс	jarayon, protsess
production	порождение, продуцирование	natija, samara, oqibat
professional	профессиональный	kasbiy, mutaxassislikka oid, professional
project	проект	loyiha
principle	принцип	prinsip, mezon
production	продукция	samara
productive	продуктивный	samarali, produktiv
professional	профессиональный	professional, kasbiy, sohaviy
profile	профиль, специальность, профессия	ixtisos, mutaxassislik, kasb
program	программа	programma, dastur
programmed	программированный	programmallashtirilgan
programming	программирование	programmallashtirish
progress	прогресс	o'zlashtirish, shaxsning ijtimoiy-tarixiy (jumladan lisoniy) tajriba o'rttirish yo'li
prompt	подсказка	sekin aytib turish, luqmasolish
pronunciation	произношение	talaffuz
	программный	programmaviy, dasturiy, programmaga oid
propaedeutic(al)	пропедевтический	kirish (muqaddima)dan iborat bo'lgan
prosodic(al)	просодический	prosodiyaga oid
prospect	проспект	istiqbol
protocol	протокол	protkol, qaror

pseudo passivity	псевдопассивность	soxt a sust lik
psychic	психик	psixik
psychoanalysis	психоанализ	psixoanaliz
psychodiagnosis	психодиагностика	psixodiagnost ika
psychodrama	психодрама	psixodrama
psycholinguistics	психолингвистика	psixolingvist ika, nut q f aoliyat ini o'rganadigan f an sohasi
psychological	психологический	psixologik, psixologiyaga oid
psychologist	психолог	ruhshunos, psixolog, ruhiyat shunos
psychology	психология	psixologiya, ruhshunoslik
psychophysiology	психофизиология	psixof iziologiya
psychosemantics	психосемантика	psixosemant ika
psychotherapeutic	психотерапевтический	psixot erapevt ik
psychotherapy	психотерапия	psixot erapiya
publicistic	публицистический	publit sist ikaga oid
pupil	ученик	o'quvchi, bilimhamdat a'limolu vchi, t ahsilko'ruvchi, t alaba
pure	чистый	sof
qualitative	квалитатив	kvalit at iv
quantitative	квантитатив	kvant it at iv
question	вопрос	savol, so'roq
questioning	расспрос	so'rov
questionnaire	анкета, вопросник	anket a, so'roq varaqasi
quiz	викторина	vikt orina, savol- javob musobaqasi, o'yini, t omoshi
rater (table)	рейтерская (таблица)	reyter (jadvali)

rational- logistic	рационально-логический	mulohaza- mantiqqa oid
rating scale	рейтинг	reyting, o'quvchi/ talaba bilim, ko'nikma, malakalari darajasini aniqlash
reaction	реакция	reakt-sya, sezish, ta'sirlanish
reactive	реактивный	reaktiv, ta'sirli
reactivity	реактивность	ta'sirchanlik
(to be) read	читается	o'qilishi
reading	чтение	nut o'laa, o'rganuv (<i>o'qisht uri</i>), o'qish, matndan axborot olish, ya'ni matn ni idroket ibmazmu ni u anglash (<i>nut qf aoliyat it uri</i>), yozilganni aytish, ya'ni harf - to'vush munosabatining ro'yob gachiqishi (<i>o'qisht exnikasi</i>), tashsil olish, o'rganish, ta'lim olish
readiness	готовность	shaylik, moyillik (- o'rganiladigan obyekt — til material/ nut qga subyekt (- o'quvchi) ning shayligi (- moyilligi)
ready	готовый	tayyor
real	реальный	real, haqiqiy
recce	разведывательный	oldindan surishtiruvchi, xabar topuvchi
reception	рецепция	retsepsiya, og'zakinut qritingl abyokiyozmamatn ni o'qib tushurish (- umumani idroket ibtushurish)
receptive	рецептивный	retseptiv, retsepsiyaga oid
receptor	рецептор	retseptor

recipient	реципиент, слушатель	resipiyent, o'z gashaxsnut qinit inglabt ush unuvchi (-nut qniidroket ibaxborot oluvchi)
reduction	редукция	unli t ovushlarning qisqa t alf f uz et ilishi yoki o'zgarishi
reference	референция	t avsiyanoma
referencing	реферирование	ilmiyasarqisqachamazmunini tuzmoq
referent	референт	referent, ma'lum masalada doklad qiluvchi
reflection	рефлексия	o'y o'ylash, xayol qilish, fikr yurgizish
reflector	рефлекторный	refleksga oid, beixtiyor
reflex	рефлекс	natija, ta'sir, asar, aks
reflexology	рефлексология	refleksologiya (reflekslar haqida ta'limot)
reinforcement	подкрепление	mustahkamlash
relaxation	релаксация	susaytirish, bo'shashtirish
relaxopedy	релаксопедия	relaksopedia
remark	реплика	replika, lo'nda fikr
remembering	припоминание	eslatma
replica	реплика	juma, luqma
report	рапорт	raport, dars boshlanishida navbatchi o'quvchining og'zaki axboroti
reproducing	репродуцент	reproducent, fikrniog'zakiyoki yozmabayonetuvchi, gapiruvchiyoki yozuvchi, axborot beruvchi
reproduction	репродукция	reproduksiya, fikrni og'zaki

		yoki yozma bayon etish, axborot berish
reproductive	репродуктивная	reproduktiv, reproduksiyaga oid
request	просьба	so'rov
research	исследование	tadqiqot, tekshirish, o'rganish, izlanish
reservance (backing)	резервность	ma'nba
resume	резюме	rezume, qisqacha xulosa, yakun
retrospective	ретроспективный	retrospektiv, tarixiy, o'tmish (- moziy) bilan bog'liq
revision	повторение	qaytarish, takrorlash
rhema	рема	rema
rhetoric	риторика	ritorika, notiqlik san'ati nazariyasi
rhetorician	ритор, оратор	notiq
rote		g'ayrihuuriy, beixtiyor, o'ylamasdan, mexanik tarzda, fikr yuritmasdan, ong ishtirokisiz
rule	правило	qoida, nutqda qo'llanadigan ilmat eriali haqidagi mavhumlashtirilgan ko'rsatmay o'quvchilarga
rythmopedy	ритмопедия	ritmorqali davolash
sample	пример, эскиз	andaza, qolip, mezon, namuna
search	поиск	qidiruv
searching	поисковой	qidiruvchi
sectorial	отраслевой	sohaviy, sohaga, biror fanga oid

selection	подбор	t anlash, saralash, ajratish, saylash, seleksiya
selective	выборочное, просмотровое (чтение)	saylab, t anlab (o'qish)
self - analysis	самоанализ	o'z- o'zini tekshirish, o'z- o'ziga baho berish
self - correction	самокоррекция	o'z- o'zini to'g'rilash
self - dictation	самодиктант	o'z- o'ziga diktant yozish
self - education	самовоспитание, самообразование	o'z- o'ziga ta'lim berish, o'qitish, tarbiyalash
self - esteem	самооценка	o'z- o'ziga baho berish
self - realization	самореализация	o'z- o'zini anglash
self - suggestion	самовнушение	ixlos qilish, ko'ngilga tugish
self - study	самообучение	o'z- o'ziga ta'lim berish, o'qitish
self - teacher	самоучитель	mustaqil o'qish (o'rganish) uchun qo'llanma, darslik
seme	сема	sema, ma'no
semantic	семантический	semantik, semantika bilan bog'liq, ma'noviy, ma'noga oid
semantics	семантика	semantika, tilshunoslikning tarmog'i; ma'no
semantization	семантизация	semantizatsiya, yangi so'z ma'nosini ochish
seminar	семинар	seminar, oliy o'quv yurtida mashg'ulot turi
semiotics	семиотика	semiotika
sense	чувство	sezgi, hissiyot
sensor	сенсорный	sezuvchi, his qiluvchi, his etuvchi
sentence	предложение	jumla, gap

sequence	ПОСЛЕДОВАТЕЛЬНОСТЬ	izchillik, ketma- ketlik, t adrijiylik, evolutsiya
series	серия	seriya
server	сервер	server
setting	установка	yo'naltirish, qaratish, ko'rsatma, yo'l- yo'riq
scientific	научный	ilmiy
school	школа	maktab
score	балл	ball
(cinema) screen	киноэкран	kinoekran
shortage	недочёты	kamchiliklar
show	шоу	ko'rsatuv, tomosha
silence- fillers	слова- паразиты	ma'nosiz, sukut (pauza)ni t o'ldiruvchi so'zlar
silent	тихий	ovozsiz
similar	подобный, по форме	shakliy, shaklga oid; til hodisasining qo'llanilish, ma'noviy jihat lari
simult an	симултан	simult an, bir vaqt ning o'zida yuz beradigan (mas. idrok bilan t ushunish/ t ushunmaslik)
situ at ion	ситуация	vaziyat, situ at siya
situ at ive	ситуативный	situ at iv, nut qiy vaziyat ga oid
situ ate	ситуация	situ at siya, vaziyat
sket ch	кроки, набросок, эскиз	kroki, xomaki rasm
skill	навык, умение	malaka, ong isht irokisiz avt omat lashgan f aoliyat, ko'nikma
slide	слайд	slyayd, rangsurat
(lant ern-)slide	диапозитив	diapozitiv

slide project or	диапроектор	diaporyekt or
socializat ion	социализация	umunlasht irish, sot sializat siya
social	социальная	ijt imoiy
sociocult ural	социокультурный	ijt imoiy- madaniy
sociolinguist ics	социолингвистика	ijt imoiy tilshunoslik
sociology	социология	sot siologiya (jamiyat t o'g'risidagi t a'limot)
sociomet ry	социометрия	sot siomet riya
sound	звук	t ovush, t alaf f uz birligi
speak	говорить	so'zlash, gapirish, suhbat
speaking	говорение	so'zlashuv, gapirish
speaking	говорящий	so'zlovchi, fikr bayon et uvchi
specialty	специальность	ixt isos, mut axassislik
speech	речь	nut q
speech sit uat ion	учебно- речевая ситуация	O'NY — o'quv- nut qiy vaziyat
speed	скорость	t ezlik, sur'at
spelling	правописание	imlo
spend	тратить	sarflash
spont aneous	спонтанный	spont an, o'z- o'zidan, beixt iyoriy sodir bo'ladigan nut q
stage	стадия, ступень	st adiya, bosqich, et ap
st amp	штамп	t amg'a
st andard	стандарт	st andart, t a'limning me'yorlangan mazmuni
st at ar	совершенный	st at ar
st ep	шаг	qadam, bosqich
st ereot ype	стереотип	st ereot ip, t amg'alanish, fikra

		n t amg‘alanish
stimulating	стимулирующий	undovchi
stimulus	стимул	stimul, harakat ga undash, turtki, rag‘bat
stochastic	стохастический	st oxast ik, assot siat iv
strategy	стратегия	strat egiya, ta‘lim jarayonini boshqarish, ya‘ni yo‘lga solib turish
structure	структура	st rukt ura
structural- global	структурно- глобальный	st rukt ural- global
student	студент	st udent, talaba
study	кабинет	darsxona, kabinet
study	учиться	t ahsil, o‘qish, bilim olish
subculture	субкультура	
subject	предмет	predmet, narsa
sub- skill		
substitution	субституция	o‘ringa qo‘yish
substitutional	подстановочный	o‘rin bosuvchi, mos keluvchi
suffix	суффикс	suf f iks, o‘zakka qo‘shiladigan qo‘shimcha
suffixation	суффиксация	suf f iksat siya, suf f ikslar qo‘shilishi
suggestion	суггестия	ko‘rsat ma, taklif, maslahat
suggestive	суггестив, наводящий	suggest ive, yordamchi
suggestology	суггестология	suggest ologiya
suggestopedic	суггестопедический	suggest opedik
suggestopedia	суггестопедия	suggest opediya, ishonchga asoslangan ta‘lim,
supply	принадлежность	qurol
survey	опрос	so‘rov

syllabic	программный	dasturiy
syllable	слог	bo'g'in
syllabus	программа	dastur
synchronic	синхронный	sinxron
synonym	синоним	ma'nodosh, sinonim
synonymy	синонимия	sinonimiya, ma'nodoshlik
syntagm	синтагма	sintagma, so'zlarning yonma yon kelishi (mas. so'z birikmasi)
syntactic	синтетик	sintetik
syntesis	синтез	sintez, yaxlit, butun
system	система	sistema, tizim, til
systematic	системность	sistematik, sistemalilik, tizimlilikka oid
systemization	систематизация	sistemalashtirish
table	таблица	jadval
tact	такт	maqom, vazn
tactics	тактика	taktika
talent	талант	iqtidor, qodirlik, layoqat, qobiliyat
tandem method	тандем метод	tandem metodi
task	задание	vazifa, topshiriq, yumush
tautology	тавтология	tavtologiya
teacher	учитель, преподаватель	o'qituvchi, muallim, domla (<i>xalq tilida</i>), ustoz, mudarris (<i>madrasada</i>), muayyansohayokif andansab oqberuvchi, ta'lim-tarbiyaberuvchi
teaching	обучение	o'rgatish, o'qitish, tushuntirish, yangi

		materialni bildirish, saboq berish, ta'lim berish
technical	технический	texnikaviy
techniques	техника	texnika
technology	технология	texnologiya, muayyan jarayonni yurgizish usullari hamda vositalari
telecourse	телекурс	telekurs, televizionkurs
television	телевизионный	televizion
temperament	темперамент	mijoz; g'ayrat; tetiklik, jo'shqinlik
tempo	темп	sur'at, tezlik, temp
test	тест	test, sinov, imtihon, tekshirish; alternativ
test training	пробное обучение	sinov ta'limi
text	текст	tekst, matn, nutq mahsuli hamda obyekt i
textual	текстуальный	tekstual, tekstga oid
text book	учебник	darslik
thematic	тематический	tematik, mavzuiy, mavzudosh
theme	тема	mavzu, tema
theoretical	теоретический	nazariy, nazariyaga asoslangan
theory	теория	nazariya
thematic	тематический	mavzudosh
thesaurus	тезаурус	tezaurus
thesis	тезис	tecis, asosiy fikr, asosiy qoida
thinking	мышление	tafakkur, fikrlash
ticket	билет	bilet

timbre	темп	t embr
time- study	хронометраж	xronomet raj, t il t a'limida sarflanadigan vaqt ni o'lchash
tolerance	толерантность	t olerant lik
tracing- paper	калька, копировка	nusxa t ushiradigan qog'oz, kalka
traditional	традиционный	t radit sion, an'anaviy
training	тренировка	t rening, amaliy mashg'ulot tizimi/ rejimi, mashq qilish
transcription	транскрипция	t ranskripsiyayozuvda t ovush belgisi, f onet ik yozuv
transfer	перенос	ko'chirish, o'tkazish
transliteration	транслитерация	bir alif bo harf larini boshqa alif bo harf lari bilan yozish
transphrastique	сверхфразовый	g'ayri iboraga oid
transposition	транспозиция, положительное влияние	t ranspozit siya, ijobiya t a' sir, ijobiy ko'chish, yordamg akelish, ko'maklashish (- ijobiynat ijaga olib boruvchibilim, ko'nikma, malakaning ko'chishi)
trilingual	трилингв	t rilingv, uch tilda so'zlashuvchi, uch t illi
trilingual	трилингв	t rilingv, uch tilda so'zlashuvchi, uch t illi
training	трейнинг	t rening, amaliy mashg'ulot tizimi/ rejimi
training	тренировка	mashq qilish
train	готовить	t ayyorlash
trained	подготовленный	t ayyorlangan
training	подготовка	t ayyorgarlik

translation	перевод	tarjima, tildan tilga o'girish, ag'darish
trust	вера, доверие	e'timod
tutor	репетитор	repetitor, uyda chet til o'rgatuvchi muallim
TV- didactics	теледидактика	teledidaktika, o'quv teleko'rsatuvlar tizini
TV- lesson	телеурок	teledars, televizion dars
tutor	тьютор	hususiy (yollanma) o'qituvchi
typhlopедagogy	тифлопедагогика	tiflopediya
typo	типовой	namunaviy, andazaviy, asos bo'ladigan
typology	типология	tipologiya, tasnif (lash), tiplarga bo'lish, guruhlarga ajratish
understand	понимать	tushunish
union	объединение	birlashma
unit	единица	birlik
unreasonable	нерассудительный	fikrsiz
upbringing	воспитание	tarbiyalash
usus (language usage)	узус (употребление языковых единиц)	til birliklarini qo'llash
valentia	валентность	valentlik
validation	оценка эффективности (учебных материалов)	samaralilikni baholash (o'quv materiallarini)
validity	валидность, достоверность, обоснованность, надежность (теста или тестирования)	ishonchlilik, asoslilik
verbal	вербальный	verbal, so'z bilan ifodalannish
verbal- logical	словесно- логический	verbal- mantiqqa oid
verbalization	вербализация	verbalizatsiya, chet til

		o'rgatishning psixologik prinsipi (- begona tilni og'zaki nut q orqali o'rgatish mezonini)
vice versa	наоборот	t eskari
video	видео	video...
virt ual	виртуальный	virt ual
visual	визуальный	visual, ko'rishga oid, ko'ruv, ko'rish bilan bog'liq
visuals	наглядность	ko'rgazmalilik, ko'ruv yoki eshit ish sezgilari yordamida idrok et iladigan narsa yoki hodisa
visualizat ion	визуализация	vizualizat siya, ko'rsat ish, namoyish et ish (- til birligi yoki vizual vosit alardan f oydalanish jarayoni)
vocabulary	лексика, словарный запас	leksika, so'zlik, lug'at (so'z) boyligi, vokabular
volunt ary	произвольное	ixt iyoriy
volunt ary at tention	произвольное внимание	ixt iyoriy diqqat
way	способ	usul
web quest	веб-квест	veb- kvest, int enet ma'lumot lariga t ayanib hal qilinadigan muammoli masala
whisper	шепотная	pichirlab
will	воля	iroda
word	слово	so'z
word f orm	словоформа	so'z shakli
work	работа	ish
working- out	разработка	ishlanma
world out look	мировоззрение	dunyoqarash

write	писать	yoʻzish, toʻvush kodini harf iy kodga oʻtkazish (- til birliklarini harliy timsollar yordamida ifodalash)
written	письменный	yoʻzma, harf iy timsollar bilan ifodalangan
writing	письмо	yoʻzuv, yoʻzma shaklda fikr bayon etish (<i>nutq faoliyati turi</i>)