

## LECTURE 1

### *METHODS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND ITS RELATION TO OTHER SCIENCES.*

#### Plan

1. Methodology is as a theory of foreign language teaching.
2. Links of methods with pedagogics.
3. Psychological prerequisites for foreign language teaching.
4. Linguistic prerequisites for foreign language teaching.
5. Methods of foreign language teaching is closely related to Physiology.

Methods of foreign language teaching is understood here as a body of scientifically tested theory concerning the teaching of foreign languages in schools and other educational institutions. It covers 3 main problems;

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

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

Pedagogics is the science concerned with the teaching and education of the younger generation. To study F.L. teaching one must know pedagogics. One branch of pedagogics is called didactics. Methods, as compared to didactics, studies the specific ways of teaching a definite subject. F.eg. the so called 'principle of visualization' was the first introduced in teaching for. Lang-s.

Teaching a foreign language means first and foremost the formation and development of pupils' habits and skills in hearing, speaking, reading and writing. We cannot expect to develop such habits and skills of our pupils effectively if we do not know and take into account the psychology of habits and skills, the ways of forming them, the influence of formerly acquired habits on the formation of new ones and many other necessary factors that psychology can supply us with it. If the teacher wants his pupils to speak English he must use all the opportunities he has to make them hear and speak. Furthermore, to muster a second language is to acquire another code, another way of receiving and transmitting information. To create this new code in the most effective way one must take into consideration certain psychological factors.

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

For example, psychologist P.K. Zinchenko proved that in learning a subject both voluntary and involuntary memory is of great importance. In his investigation of involuntary memory he came to the conclusion that this memory is retentive. Consequently, in teaching a foreign language we should create favourable conditions for involuntary memorizing. P.K. Zinchenko showed that involuntary memorizing is possible only when pupils' attention is concentrated not on fixing the material in their memory through numerous repetitions, but on solving some mental problems which deal with this material.

Experiments by prominent scientists show that psychology helps methods to determine the role of the mother tongue in different stages of teaching:

- the amount of material for pupils to assimilate at every stage of instruction.
- the sequence and ways in which various habits and skills should be developed the methods and techniques which are more suitable for presenting the material and for ensuring its retention by the pupils, and so on. Methods of foreign language teaching has a definite relation to physiology of the higher nervous system. According to Pavlov habits are

conditioned reflexes, and a conditioned reflex is an action performed automatically in response to a definite stimulus as a result of previous frequent repetitions of the same action. If we thoroughly study the theory of conditioned reflexes we shall see that it explains and confirms the necessity for frequent repetitions and revision of material pupils study as one of the means of inculcating habits. Pavlov showed that man's higher nervous activities – speaking and thinking – are the functions of a special system of organic structures within the nervous system. This system is developed only in man. It enables the brain to respond to inner stimuli as it responds to outer stimuli or signals perceived through the sense organs. Pavlov named this the second signalling system.

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

- Methods of foreign language teaching is most closely related to linguistics, since linguistics deals with the problems which are of a paramount importance to Methods, with language and thinking, grammar and vocabulary, the relationship between grammar and vocabulary and many others. Methods successfully uses for example, the results of linguistic investigation in the selection and arrangement of language teaching. Teaching materials have been prepared by linguistics and methodologists of the structural school. Many prominent linguists have not only developed the theory of linguistics but tried to apply it to language teaching.

### **Questions:**

(Use your experience as a learner to answer these questions if you are not yet teaching.)

Do you agree that successful English teachers usually speak English in class?

Do you agree that they give much more time to practice than to explanation?

Do you agree that teacher co-operation in an English language department is important?

### **Recommended Literature:**

All of the following books offer up-to-date views of teaching English:

1. Gower, R., D. Phillips, and S. Walters. 1995. Teaching Practice Handbook (2<sup>nd</sup> edn.). Oxford: Heinemann.

2. Harmer, J. 1991. The Practice of English Language Teaching (2<sup>nd</sup> edn.). Harlow: Longman.

3. Scrivener. 1994. Learning Teaching. Oxford: Heinemann.

4. Ur, P. 1996. A Course in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

## **LECTURE 2 AIMS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING**

### **Aims, Content and Principles of Foreign Language Teaching in a Secondary (Ten-Year) School**

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

«Процесс обучения представляет собой переход учащихся из одного состояния в другое... задачи обучения состоят в том, чтобы переместить обучающихся из их начального состояния в определенное состояние (или, точнее, во множество состояний), означающее наличие у них определенных знаний, навыков и умений»

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

The terms “aims” and “objectives” are clearly distinguished in this work in accordance with the suggestion given by R. Roberts. Here is what he writes: “The term ‘aims’ be reserved for long-term goals such as provide the justification or reason for teaching second languages ... the term ‘objectives’ be used only for short-term goals (immediate lesson goal), such as may reasonably be achieved in a classroom lesson or sequence of lessons.” In this chapter we shall deal with long-term goals, that is, with the aims of foreign language teaching which dictate the teacher’s approach to this subject.

The changes the teacher must bring about in his pupils may be threefold: p r a c t i c a l — pupils acquire habits, and skills in using a foreign language; e d u c a t i o n a l — they develop their mental abilities and intelligence in the process of learning he foreign language; c u l t u r a l — pupils extend their knowledge of the world in which they live. Therefore there are three aims, at least, which should be achieved in foreign language teaching: practical, educational, and cultural.

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

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

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

The Soviet Union is establishing closer economic, political, scientific, and cultural relations with various peoples of the world. International relations are extended and strengthened through the exchange of delegations as well as scientific, technical, and cultural information. The peoples of the Soviet Union want to know what is going on in the world in all spheres of human activity: science, engineering, culture, politics, etc. They also want to acquaint other peoples with their life and achievements. In this situation foreign language teaching is a matter of state significance. The Council of Ministers of the USSR in its decision "On Improving Foreign Language Learning" has obliged educational boards to ensure that school-leavers master a foreign language as a means of communication in its two forms — oral and written, therefore, proficiency in speaking and reading are the desired skills. They are both of great importance, since oral language, though opportunities for conversation are rare for most of the school-leavers, creates favourable conditions for language learning. Besides, practical aims as they are understood here, correspond to the idea of secondary school education — to provide pupils with the fundamentals of the subject. Hearing, speaking, reading, and writing within carefully selected linguistic material will constitute the fundamentals of the language.

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

The length of the course, the frequency of the lessons, the size of groups should also be taken into consideration in adopting practical aims. The amount of time for language learning is one of the most decisive factors in mastering and maintaining language proficiency since learners need practice. The more time is available for pupils' practice in the target language, the better results can be achieved. Moreover, for the formation of speech habits frequency of lessons is a more essential condition than the length of the course. It is not necessary to prove (it has already been proved) that intensive courses are more effective than extensive ones, for example, six periods a week for three years are more effective for language learning than three periods a week for six years. In our secondary schools, however, we cannot afford an intensive course because school curriculum includes a lot of essential subjects and the foreign language is one of many which should be taught. The time which can be allotted to foreign language learning is distributed throughout the six years with the following frequency of lessons: V — 4; VI—VII — 3; VIII—X — 2 periods a week. As to the size of groups, large forms are divided into two groups for foreign language lessons so that a group should not exceed 20—25 pupils. Proceeding from these considerations the school syllabus emphasizes reading and speaking as the chief practical aims of language teaching. Writing is restricted to teaching the ability to compose simple letters on everyday topics. Thus the syllabus sets out to teach pupils to carry on a conversation in a foreign language and to read texts with complete comprehension.

The syllabus for the eight-year school concentrates on the development of speech proficiency. Pupils should be able:

(1) to give a short talk and carry on a conversation on the topics included in the programme;

(2) to read without a dictionary texts containing familiar grammar material and no more than 4—6 unfamiliar words (per 100 words) the meaning of which, as a rule, should be clear from the context or due to familiar word-building elements.

The syllabus for the ten-year school requires that school-leavers should:

- (1) read and understand a foreign text both with and without a dictionary;
- (2) understand oral language and speak within the topics and material required by the syllabus;
- (3) write a letter.

In foreign language learning all forms of work must be in close interrelation, otherwise it is impossible to master the language. However, attention should be given mainly to practice in hearing, speaking, and reading. Thus pupils must achieve a level in their knowledge of the language which will enable them to further develop it at an institute or in their practical work.

At the present time, however, foreign language teaching in school does not quite meet the demands of our society; better results are desirable. In this connection we should welcome O. I. Moskalskaya's proposal to investigate the aims of foreign language teaching to be able to establish what can really be achieved under school conditions.

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

**Educational aims.** Learning a second language is of great educational value. Through a new language we can gain an insight into the way in which words express thoughts, and so achieve greater clarity and precision in our own communications. Even at the most elementary level learning a second language teaches the cognizance of meaning, furnishes a term of comparison that gives us an insight into the quality of language. When learning a foreign language the pupil understands better how language functions and this brings him to a greater awareness of the functioning of his own language.

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

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

**Cultural aims.** Learning a foreign language makes the pupil acquainted with the life, customs and traditions of the people whose language he studies through visual material (such as post cards with the views of towns, countryside, and people; filmstrips, for example, "Great Britain", "What Tourists Can See in London", "Disney Land" films) and reading material dealing with the countries where the target language is spoken. Foreign language teaching should promote pupils' general educational and cultural growth by increasing their knowledge about foreign countries, and by acquainting them with progressive traditions of the people whose

language they study. Through learning a second language the pupil gains a deeper insight into the nature and functioning of language as a social phenomenon.

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

### **LECTURE 3 CONTENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING**

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

The first component of “what to teach” is habits and skills which pupils should acquire while learning a foreign language. According to the aims of learning this subject they are: hearing (listening comprehension), speaking, reading, and writing. The level of habits and skills is determined by the syllabus for each form. However, quantitative and qualitative characteristics of skills, or the so-called terminal behaviour, is not defined yet for different types of schools and stages of instruction. This is one of the problems for methodologists to investigate and solve. Nevertheless, some attempts have been made in this respect. Thus in school syllabi we can find some directions as to the level of skills that should be reached in each particular form and their development from form to form. For example, the requirements for hearing and reading skills differ “in the 9th and 10th forms. In the 9th form pupils should be able to understand oral language on the basis of the material previously learned and within the topics covered, while in the 10th form the material for hearing should include 1—2 unfamiliar words for pupils to guess their meaning, and to understand a text received by ear, based on the material learned and on a topic close to those pupils have worked at. This is a new “qualitative step” for pupils in understanding oral language. If in the 9th form pupils should read with the speed of 1 000 signs per academic hour, in the 10th form the speed of reading is 1 300.

The second component of “what to teach” is language (textual) material, arranged in topics and serving as starting points for the development of oral language and written language, which allows the teacher to reach the practical, educational, and cultural aims set by the syllabus. For example, in the junior stage (the 5th and 6th forms) pupils should speak and read about school, home, town and countryside, nature, physical training and sports. In the senior stage the textual material should cover the following topics: the life of the youth in the USSR and abroad; sport in the USSR and abroad; industry, agriculture, and science in the USSR and abroad; history and geography of the country whose language pupils study; art and literature in the USSR and abroad. Topics for speaking and reading are developed from form to form i. e., the pupil’s ability to read and speak on a certain topic is widened as his vocabulary and grammar are enriched.

The third component of the content of foreign language teaching is linguistic material, i. e., phonology, grammar, and vocabulary carefully selected for the purpose. The selection of linguistic material, the compiling of the so-called minimal for instance, minimum vocabulary and minimum grammar has always been one of the most important and difficult problems to be

solved and, although a great deal of work has been done in this respect, we are still on the way to its solution; A limited body of linguistic material is required by pupils who have about 600 class hours at their disposal spread over six years (extensive course), and at the same time it must be large enough to serve as a sound basis for developing pupil language skills.

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

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

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

Harmer, J. 1991. *The Practice of English Language Teaching (2nd edn.)*. Harlow: Longman.

Scrivener, J. 1994. *Learning Teaching*. Oxford: Heinemann.

Ur, P. 1996. *A Course in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

#### **LECTURE 4**

#### **Teaching Aids and Teaching Materials**

To master a foreign language pupils must be engaged in activities which are characteristic of the language; they should hear the language spoken, speak, read, and write it. Classroom practices which are restricted to teacher's presentation of linguistic material (vocabulary, grammar) and the testing of pupils' knowledge cannot provide good learning. The teacher covers "content" but does not instruct pupils. The majority of pupils remain passive, and work only to memorize what the teacher emphasizes. We cannot but agree with the following words: "... most of the changes we have come to think of as 'classroom learning' typically may not occur in the presence of a teacher. Perhaps it is during seatwork and homework sessions and other forms of solitary study that the major forms of any learning are laid down."1 Nor can the teacher ensure pupils learning a foreign language if he uses only a textbook, a piece of chalk, and a blackboard.

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

To teach a foreign language effectively the teacher needs teaching aids and teaching materials.

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

#### **TEACHING AIDS**

By teaching aids we mean various devices which can help the foreign language teacher in presenting linguistic material to his pupils and fixing it in their memory; in testing pupils' knowledge of words, phrases, and grammar items, their habits and skills in using them.

Teaching aids which are at teachers' disposal in contemporary schools may be grouped into (1) non-mechanical aids and (2) mechanical aids.

*N o n - m e c h a n i c a l a i d s* are:

*a blackboard*, the oldest aid in the classroom; the teacher turns to the blackboard whenever he needs to write something while explaining some new linguistic material to his pupils, correcting pupils' mistakes, or arranging the class to work at some words and sentence patterns, etc.; the blackboard can also be used for quick drawing to supply pupils with "objects" to speak about;1

*a flannelboard* (a board covered with flannel or other soft fabric for sticking pictures on its surface), it is used for creating vivid situations which would stimulate pupils' oral language; the teacher can have a flannelboard made in a workshop or buy one in a specialized shop; the use of a flannelboard with cut-outs prepared by the teacher or pupils leads to active participation in the use of the target language, as each pupil makes his contribution to working out "a scene" on the flannelboard;

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

*a lantern* which is used for throwing pictures onto a screen.

*M e c h a n i c a l a i d s* are:

*tape recorders* (ordinary and twin-track); the same tape may be played back as many times as is necessary, the twin-track tape recorder allows the pupil to play back the tape listening to the speaker's voice and recording his own on the second track, the lower one, without erasing the first track with the voice of the speaker, the tape recorder is considered to be the most important aid in teaching and learning a foreign language;1

*a gramophone* or *record player* is also an audio equipment available in every school; the record player is an indispensable supplement to contemporary textbooks and other teaching materials as they are designed to be used with the long-playing records which accompany them;

*an opaque projector* or *epidiascope* used for projection of illustrations and photographs;

a filmstrip projector which can be used in a partially darkened room (the Soviet filmstrip projector ЛЭТИ does not require a darkened room);

*an overhead projector* used for projection of a table, a scheme, a chart, a plan, a map or a text for everyone to see on a screen;

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

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



*a language laboratory*, this is a special classroom designed for language learning. It is equipped with individual private or semi-private stalls or booths. They are connected with a network of audio wiring, the nerve centre of which is the monitoring console which has a switch board and tape decks, making it possible to play tapes and send the programme to all or any combination of booths. The teacher at the monitoring console can listen in, or can have a two-way conversation with any pupil.

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

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

Tape recorders fulfil all the functions required for this use of the language laboratory. Tape programmes can be associated with visual aids for individual work or work in pairs.

The language laboratory keeps a full class of pupils working and learning for the entire period, and thus enables the teacher to teach the foreign language more effectively.

In conclusion, it must be said that the use of teaching aids is very demanding on the teacher. He must know about each aid described above, be able to operate it, and train pupils to use it. He should also know what preparations must be made for classroom use of each of these teaching aids, and what teaching materials he has at his disposal.

In teaching foreign languages in our secondary schools most of the teaching aids are available. Each school should be equipped with a filmstrip projector, a film projector, an opaque projector, a tape recorder and a phonograph.<sup>2</sup> Specialized schools, where English is taught nine years, should have language laboratories.

When used in different combinations teaching aids can offer valuable help to the teacher of a foreign language in making the learning of this subject in schools more effective for pupils.

## **TEACHING MATERIALS**

By teaching materials we mean the materials which the teacher can use to help pupils learn a foreign language through visual or audio perception. They must be capable of contributing to the achievement of the practical, cultural, and educational aims of learning a foreign language. Since pupils learn a foreign language for several years, it is necessary for the teacher to have a wide variety of materials which make it possible to progress with an increasing sophistication to match the pupils' continually growing command of the foreign language. Good teaching materials will help greatly to reinforce the pupils' initial desire to learn the language and to sustain their enthusiasm throughout the course.

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

*A teacher's book* must be comprehensive enough to be a help to the teacher. This book should provide all the recorded material; summaries of the aims and new teaching points of each

lesson; a summary of all audio and visual materials required; suggestions for the conduct of the lesson and examples of how the teaching points can be developed.

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

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

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

1. The textbooks should provide pupils with the knowledge of the language sufficient for developing language skills, i. e., they must include the fundamentals of the target language.
2. They should ensure pupils' activity in speaking, reading, and writing, i.e., they must correspond to the aims of foreign language teaching in school.
3. The textbooks must extend pupils' educational horizon, i.e., the material of the textbooks should be of educational value.
4. The textbooks must arouse pupils' interest and excite their curiosity.
5. They should have illustrations to help pupils in comprehension and in speaking.
6. The textbooks must reflect the life and culture of the people whose language pupils study.

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

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

The structure of the textbook for beginners should reflect the approach in developing pupils' language skills. If there is an oral introductory course, the textbook should include a lot of pictures for the development of hearing and speaking skills. Thus the textbook begins with "picture lessons". See, for example, *Fifth Form English* by A. P. Starkov and R. R. Dixon.

If pupils are to be taught all language skills simultaneously, the textbook should include lessons which contain the material for the development of speaking, reading, and writing from the very beginning. See, for example, *English 5* by S. Folomkina and E. Kaar.

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

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

Every textbook for learning a foreign language should contain exercises and texts.

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

Exercises for developing pronunciation should help pupils to acquire correct pronunciation habits. Special exercises should be provided for the purpose, among them those designed for developing pupils' skills in discriminating sounds, stress, or melody. It is necessary

that records and tape-recordings should be applied, and they should form an inseparable part of the textbook.

Exercises for assimilating vocabulary should help pupils to acquire habits and skills in using the words when speaking and writing, and recognizing them when-hearing and reading.

Most of the exercises should be communicative by nature:

— they should remind us of natural conversation: questions, statements, exclamatory sentences, etc.;

— they should be somehow logically connected with pupils' activity;

— they should reflect pupils' environment;

— they should stimulate pupils to use the given words.

The textbooks should provide the revision of words in texts, drill and speech exercises.

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

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

In all stages of teaching exercises for developing oral language should prepare pupils to carry on a conversation within the material assimilated. This is possible provided pupils are taught to use the words and the sentence patterns they learn in various combinations depending on the situations offered, on the necessity to express their own thoughts and not to learn (to memorize) the texts arranged in topics, which is often the case in school teaching practice.

Exercises designed for developing oral language should prepare pupils:

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

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

— to discuss what they have read and heard.

The textbook should provide pupils with exercises for developing both forms of speech — dialogue and monologue. As far as dialogue is concerned pupils should have exercises which require: (1) learning a pattern dialogue; the pattern dialogues should be short enough for pupils to memorize them as a pattern, and they must be different in structure: question — response; question — question; statement — question; statement — statement; (2) substitutions within the pattern dialogue; (3) making up dialogues of their own (various situational pictures may be helpful).

As to monologue pupils should have exercises which help them: (1) to make statements, different in structure (statement level); (2) to express their thoughts or to speak about an object, a subject, using different sentence patterns, combining them in a logical sequence (utterance level); (3) to speak on the object, subject, film, filmstrip, story read or heard, situations offered

(discourse level). The textbook should include exercises which prepare pupils for reciting the texts, making oral reproductions, etc.

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

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

Texts in the textbook should vary both in form and in content. Pupils need topical and descriptive texts, -stories and poems, short dialogues, and jokes.

Texts should deal with the life of our people and the people whose language the pupils study.

It should be noted that a great deal of work has been done in the field of the textbooks. As a result new textbooks have appeared in English, German, and French. There is no doubt that these books are better than those formerly used.

The modern textbooks which are now in use in ten-year schools meet most of the requirements given above.

*Manuals.* The manual is a handbook which may be used in addition to the textbook, for example, *English Grammar for Secondary School* by E. P. Shubin and V. V. Sitel, in which pupils can find useful information about various items of English grammar described in a traditional way.

*Selected readings.* There is a great variety of supplementary readers graded in forms and types of schools. For example, *Stuart Little* by E. B. White; *English Readers* for the 6th and for the 7th forms; *Our Animal Friends* (for the 7th form).

*Dictionaries.* For learning English there are some English-Russian dictionaries available, for instance, the *Learner's English-Russian Dictionary*, compiled by S. K. Folomkina and H. M. Weiser (M., 1962); *Англо-русский словарь*. Сост. В. Л. Аракин, З. С. Выгодская, Н. Н. Ильина (M., 1971).

The pupil needs a dictionary to read a text which contains unfamiliar words.

***Programmed materials.*** They are necessary when programmed learning is used.

The main features of programmed learning are as follows:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

#### ***Visual materials.***

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

*Flashcards.* A flashcard is a card with a letter, a sound symbol or a word to be used for quick showing to pupils and in this way for developing pupils' skills in reading and pronunciation. Flashcards are usually made by the teacher or by the pupils under the teacher's direction, though there are some ready-made flashcards.

*Sentence cards.* They bear sentences or sentence patterns which can be used with different aims, e.g., for reading and analyzing the sentences, for using these sentences in speaking, for compiling an oral composition using the sentence as a starting point, for writing a composition.

These cards are prepared by the teacher and distributed among the pupils for individual work during the lesson. The teacher checks his pupils' work afterwards.

*Wall-charts.* A wall-chart is a big sheet of paper with drawings or words to be hung in the classroom and used for revision or generalization of some linguistic phenomenon. Such as "English Tenses", "Passive Voice", "Ing-Forms", "Rules of Reading".

For example: The letter C

[k]	[s]
cat	pencil
music	face

Though there are printed wall-charts, the teacher should prepare his own wall-charts because he needs more than he can get for his work.

*Posters* or series of illustrations portraying a story. They are used as "props" in retelling a story read or heard. The teacher himself, or a pupil who can draw or paint, prepares such posters.

*Pictures.* There are at least three types of pictures which are used in teaching a foreign language: object pictures (e. g., the picture of a bed), situational pictures (e. g., the picture of a boy lying in bed), topical pictures (e. g., the picture of a bedroom). They may be big enough to be hung in the classroom or small to be distributed among the pupils for each one to speak on his

own. Pictures may be utilized separately (as single units) and in sets to be used as “props” for oral composition or re-telling a story. For example, there is a set of pictures by M. S. Kaplunovsky which can be used for creating vivid situations on a flannelboard.

Printed pictures are available for the teacher to use in the classroom. However, they cannot cover the teacher's needs in these materials. So he should make pictures. The., teacher either draws or paints them himself or asks some of his pupils to do this. He can also use cut-outs (pictures cut out of some periodicals).

*Photographs.* They are of two kinds: black-and-white and coloured. One can use photographs which are on sale, e. g., “Views of Moscow” or have them taken, e. g., “We are going on a hike”, or “Our family”.

*Albums.* An album is a book of pictures or photographs which is used for developing pupils' language skills. It usually contains textual material to supply pupils with necessary information, and in this way make their work easier in describing these pictures.

*Maps and plans.* In teaching English the maps of Great Britain, the USA, and other countries where English is spoken may be used. The plans, for example, of a house, a building, a piece of land with measurements may be a help in comprehension and thus stimulate pupils' speaking.

*Slides.* A slide is a glass or plastic plate bearing a picture. Slides are usually coloured and used in sets to illustrate a story; the teacher can utilize slides for developing hearing and speaking skills.

*Filmstrips.* A filmstrip represents a series of pictures, as a rule, situational pictures in certain sequence which a learner sees while listening to a story from the teacher or the tape to reproduce it later. Special filmstrips are available. They last about 5—10 minutes and can be used with synchronized tapes. When a picture appears on the screen, the tape is heard. See, for example, “Great Britain”, “London”.

*Audio materials.* Tapes and records or discs belong to audio materials. Tapes are usually prepared by the teacher (he selects the material and the speaker for recording). Tapes and records are used for teaching listening comprehension, speaking, and reading aloud.

*Audio-visual materials.* Sound film loops and films are examples of audio-visual materials:

*Sound film loops* are becoming popular with the teachers. They are short (each lasts 1.5—1.7 min.) and the teacher can play the film loop back as many times as necessary for the pupils to grasp the material and memorize it.

*Films.* Specially prepared educational films for language teaching have appeared, e. g., “The Mysterious Bridge”, “Robert Burns”, “Australia”, “New York”, “Winter Sports”.

Young children like to sing and play various games, that, is why songs and games should constitute an important part of teaching materials. Folksongs and popular current songs develop a feeling for the distinctive culture being studied. They furnish a frame work for pronunciation practice. Games give an opportunity for spontaneous self-expression in the foreign language and can be used as a device for relaxation.

Practical and educational functions of teaching materials are as follows:

Teaching materials used in various combinations allow the teacher to develop his pupils' oral-aural skills. Recorded materials can provide the teacher and the pupil with an authentic model, tireless and consistent repetition and many different voices.

These materials are valuable for presentation, exercises, revision, testing, etc.

Visual materials have an important role to play in the development of hearing and speaking skills. Carefully devised they help to get rid of the necessity for constant translation and assist the teacher in keeping the lesson within the foreign language.

By portraying the context of situation, the gestures and expressions of the speakers, and even their personalities visual aids allow immediate understanding and provide a stimulus to oral composition.

Especially important are graded materials designed for the teaching of reading. Graded reading materials are essential at every stage from the introduction to reading in association with audio and visual "props", through the elementary stage of reading familiar material to intensive and extensive reading.

Graded materials are also important for the development of writing skills. Appropriately designed and selected these materials are needed to cover all stages from the introduction to writing through copy writing, memory writing and dictation to guided composition, and finally to free composition. Visual aids can provide a useful stimulus for writing, especially at the stage of guided composition.

Teaching materials can also be used to assist in the general development of the pupil's personality, and this is of great educational value.

Teaching materials acquire special importance in gaining cultural aims. From the earliest stages, thanks to visual aids, pupils are introduced to the foreign country and its people.

In this connection it is necessary to mention the qualities teaching materials should possess:

**A u t h e n t i c i t y.** Whatever is presented to the pupils, whether linguistic or cultural material it should be an authentic representation of the language or culture of the foreign country (countries).

**C l a r i t y.** The materials must possess a clarity of exposition which leaves the pupils in no doubt as to their meaning.

**P r a c t i c a l i t y.** To provide maximum help to the teacher, the materials must be practical in use, economic of cost and time, easy to store, and immediately accessible.

**A p p r o p r i a t e n e s s.** To fulfil the role of motivating the learner and sustaining his enthusiasm, teaching materials must be appropriate to the age, interests, and abilities of pupils. They must also be appropriate to the functions which are required of them, i.e., whether the teacher needs them for presentation, exercises, testing, etc.

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

It is well known that in our country much attention is given to foreign language learning. Educational researchers, methodologists and teachers are striving to improve teaching methods in this field. For this purpose new teaching materials have been produced.

As a result the teacher has *Teacher's Book*, *Pupil's Book*, visual, audio-visual, audio, and other materials at his disposal.

For teaching English two sets of teaching materials are suggested which cover six years (5—10 forms) of the essential course in ten-year schools: (1) teaching materials by S. K. Folomkina, H. M. Weiser, E. I. Kaar, A. D. Klimentenko, and (2) teaching materials by A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon, Z. V. Starkova. Teaching materials by both groups of authors include: teacher's books, pupil's books, sets of wall-charts or albums, filmstrips (or slides), sound film loops, long-playing records and supplementary readers. Although both sets of teaching materials are based on scientific principles as to the selection of linguistic material, topics to be covered and terminal behaviour at the end of the course, however, they differ in many respects.

The main difference lies in the organization of teaching beginners. S. K. Folomkina, H. M. Weiser, E. I. Kaar start by teaching beginners all the language skills, i. e., hearing, speaking, reading, and writing simultaneously, although they give seven introductory lessons which are to be conducted orally. A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon, Z. V. Starkova start with the oral introductory course and teach hearing and speaking first for more than a term. During the oral introductory course, beginning with the fifth lesson, pupils start writing English letters and combinations of letters. They begin reading at the 40th class-period.

Another difference is in the arrangement of the material in pupil's books. A. P. Starkov and R. R. Dixon adhere strictly to the arrangement of the material by "topics". S. K. Folomkina, H. M. Weiser, A. D. Klimentenko do not observe the topical arrangement of the material in pupil's books, though they cover the topics set by the syllabus.

They differ in their introduction of new material. S. K. Folomkina, H. M. Weiser, E. I. Kaar, A. D. Klimentenko use oral presentation of linguistic materials. Pupils grasp the vocabulary or grammar items by ear so as to assimilate them mainly for aural work. Oral work at linguistic material does not exceed one class-period, as a rule.

The second group of authors follow the oral approach in teaching linguistic material, i. e., pupils can use the material in aural and speaking before they can read and write it.

One more difference is in the use of the mother tongue in teaching English. They both admit the use of the mother tongue for presenting linguistic material whenever it is necessary to ensure comprehension of what pupils learn. As to translation exercises for developing pupils' language skills, they are used in pupil's books by the first group of authors, and are not utilized by the second.

They differ in presenting grammar too. The first group of authors present the material in sentences which are followed by grammar rules in the mother tongue in the pupil's books (see, for instance, Book Three, p. 58—62) and exercises. A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon present the material in structural groups. However, grammar rules are not excluded from teaching. In learning grammar material pupils pass through the following stages: (1) they assimilate a structural group; (2) they learn how to use the new words in the grammar structures; (3) they utilize the structures in a logical sequence in speech; (4) they speak within the situations offered, using the linguistic material covered.

There is a considerable difference in the authors' approach to the development of speaking and reading skills. S. K. Folomkina, H. M. Weiser, E. I. Kaar, A. D. Klimentenko, for instance, give preference to monologue as a form of speech that should be developed (see exercises in Book One, Book Two, etc.). A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon, Z. V. Starkova prefer developing dialogic speech first. In both systems oral language in its two forms, dialogue and



monologue, is developed. As to general approach to teaching speaking and reading they have but little in common, and especially at the junior stage (5—6 forms).

Gradually the difference in these two sets of teaching materials becomes less striking since they both should meet the school syllabus requirements. Both sets of teaching materials are now in use in schools. Thus teachers of English have received new teaching materials and, therefore, they can teach more effectively than they could before. However, we could expect better results in language teaching if teachers were more fully informed about teaching aids and teaching materials and the methods they should apply, if they were more selective in the choice of methods and techniques.

«Иностранные языки в школе» can supply teachers of foreign languages with useful information from various fields, namely, linguistics, psychology, methodology, teachers' experience, etc. Those who are interested in foreign language teaching abroad can find useful information in the following journals: "The English Language Teaching", "The Modern Languages" (Great Britain), "The Modern Language Journal", "Language Learning" (USA).

One more problem should be touched upon in connection with teaching aids and teaching materials. That is the problem of implementing them into school life. Indeed it is not sufficient to have new textbooks, teacher's guides, and other teaching materials which meet modern requirements. It is necessary that the teacher can digest all this and use the new teaching materials. The problem, as practice proves, is much more difficult than one might imagine. Its solution depends on many factors, and among them:

1. Thorough comprehension of the methodological credo of the authors by the teacher. To understand a system of teaching reflected in textbooks or other teaching materials the teacher should read about the system and, what is more desirable, listen to the authors when they give an interpretation of their system. The stranger the system of teaching is, the more interpretation it requires. Complete assimilation is attained, however, when the teacher uses the system for a number of years and strictly follows the recommendations given by the authors. If the teacher does not use a new textbook in the way he ought to, the textbook, as a rule, does not work. For instance, the series of textbooks for teaching English in schools compiled by A. P. Starkov and R. R. Dixon is highly appreciated by one group of teachers, namely, by those who have grasped the authors' methodological credo and follow their system of teaching, and at the same time is fully rejected by another, who either had no opportunity to study it or who accept the system of teaching reflected in the series of textbooks for teaching English compiled by S. K. Folomkina, H. M. Weiser, E. I. Kaar, A. D. Klimentenko.

2. The teacher's ability to free himself of the methods and techniques he has become used to and acquire new ones. For example, for many years teachers have presented new words as isolated units, writing them down on the blackboard so that pupils can see the words, read and put them down in their vocabulary notes. They got used to the system. Then they had to give up this system to adopt the new one, the oral approach or the oral presentation of words, as is recommended in both series of English textbooks. Some teachers could easily accept the new approach. Some coped with it. And, finally, there are teachers who cannot give up presenting new words the way they did before. They go on with the old approach to vocabulary instruction. For many years teachers have widely used translation as a type of exercise for consolidating linguistic material and in reading texts. They got accustomed to translation and liked it. And now

they had to restrict the usage of translation and use instead various exercises within the English language utilizing audio-visual aids and materials as both sets of teaching materials require.

3. The teacher's qualification, his desire to be on top of his job, to seek new methods and techniques in language teaching and not only to accept those recommended. Such teachers always read journals and books on methods, they attend lectures and seminars for foreign language teachers.

Consequently, to solve the problem it is necessary:

(a) to help teachers in comprehending the modern trends in foreign language teaching in general, and in assimilating the methodological credo of the authors of the textbooks they use, in particular;

(b) to help teachers in accepting new approaches to foreign language teaching through exchange of experience in order to show them how to apply new methods and techniques of teaching and what results can be achieved;

(c) to improve teachers' training in teachers' colleges and at refresher courses.

The sooner teachers of foreign language acquire skills in handling teaching aids and in utilizing new teaching materials, the better results in language learning may be expected.

#### **Questions for Discussion:**

1. The foreign language teacher has a great variety of teaching aids at his disposal. Which?

2. Modern teaching materials differ from those used twenty or more years ago. How?

3. Compare foreign language textbooks and say how they differ and what they have in common. Say which textbook you would like to use in school? State the reason for your selection.

4. Compare the teacher's books by different authors and say whether they are written in a similar way or not. Confirm your statement. Say which teacher's book you like best. State the reason for your choice.

5. Effective teaching cannot be ensured without the use of audio visual materials. True or false?

6. The foreign language teacher must know how to handle mechanical aids to teach his subject effectively. Do you agree? Support your answer.

7. Programmed instruction may be considered one of the ways for the intensification of foreign language teaching. Explain.

8. Programmed instruction in foreign language teaching cannot replace the teacher in the classroom. What is your opinion on the problem?

9. The teacher should use various audio-visual materials. Say what factors you will consider in selecting these materials in teaching foreign languages. Confirm your statement.

10. Are you ready to utilize teaching aids and teaching materials you have read about? Analyse your strong and weak points in this respect

#### **LECTURE 5 PRINCIPLES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING**

Methods of foreign language teaching are based on the fundamental principles of didactics; among them, a conscious approach to language learning, activity, visualization, and others. However, in foreign language teaching, due to the specific features of the subject in which means and ends are equally essential, principles are used in a particular way.

*The principle of conscious approach* to language learning implies comprehension of a linguistic phenomenon of language material by the pupil usually through the medium of the native language, or the arrangement of the material in sentence patterns graded in difficulties with the emphasis on some elements which are singled out as “teaching points”. In all cases pupils understand both the form and the content of the material they are to learn, and they are aware of how they should treat the material while performing various exercises which aim at developing habits and skills in using it. Such an approach to language learning usually contrasts with “mechanical” learning through repetitive drill. A great research work has been carried out in Soviet psychology and methods, and it has been proved that conscious approach to learning a foreign language promotes the acquisition of the subject. V. A. Artemov, a prominent psychologist, puts forward a theory of the unity of the language rule and the speech activity (language behaviour) in foreign language teaching. He writes, «Язык по самой своей природе есть система правил; ‘система’ потому, что в ней все основано на противопоставлении, а, ‘правил’ потому, что язык есть орудие общения, а орудие без правил его употребления не есть орудие. Но правила языка не раскрыты наукой до конца и в наши дни, а люди подчиняются этим правилам в своей речи. Следовательно, у человека имеется возможности создавать посредством дурительности коры больших полушарий мозга програму, правила языка. Эта программа все время совершенствуется по закону обратной связи речевого действия с его правилом»

In teaching a foreign language therefore, it is more reasonable to help pupils in assimilating language rules which function in this language by introducing the rules, rather than to wait until the learners deduce these rules through speech activity. V. A. Artemov warns the teacher against putting this hard work on the learner’s shoulders. Here is what he writes: «... не бояться языкового правила, не перекадывать труд его выработки на плечи бесконечно повторяющего и бессмысленно подражающего учащегося, а искать оптимальное сочетание языкового правила и речевого действия в процессе научения речи на иностранном языке. ... Объединение правила и действия в любом виде деятельности ведет к оптимально краткому времени работы и максимальной ее эффективности».

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

B. V. Belyaev, whose contribution to foreign language teaching is considerable,<sup>3</sup> insists on a similar conscious approach to foreign language teaching as do B. A. Artemov and others. In his opinion. «Приобретение теоритических знаний должно только способствовать процессу образования речевых навыков и умений в результате иноязычной речевой деятельности. Эти навыки и умения вырабатываются значительно быстрее и значительно прочнее

усваиваются в том случае, когда процесс их образования под влиянием речевой практики подвергается должному осмыслению».

The vertical arrow stands for knowledge or theory. The horizontal arrow represents the process of mastering the language. The author's interpretation of the process is as follows. The acquisition of knowledge (theory) cannot provide the mastery of the language. Nor can habits ensure this. Only language practice supported by theory can develop language habits and skills in a desirable direction and lead to the mastering of a foreign language. The author develops the following idea. Since learning a new language is connected with acquisition of new concepts by the learner, theory can help in forming those new concepts. One of the ways of doing this is an extensive use of translation-interpretation. However, this teaching technique is not approved of by a majority of methodologists and teachers because pupils learn about a linguistic item more than they need for practical application, also it is time-consuming and, therefore, this contradicts the communicative approach to language teaching.

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

Proceeding from psychological peculiarities of foreign language assimilation, and taking into account the basic processes of thought, we may come to the conclusion that in order to master a foreign language pupils must have a lot of practice in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing in the language they study. As to the mother tongue we cannot eliminate it. We should use it as a means of teaching whenever it helps pupils in acquiring knowledge necessary for developing habits and skills.

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

The pupil's mother tongue often interferes with the target language, i. e., the formation of new habits is hindered by habits already acquired. For instance, pronunciation habits in the mother tongue hinder the development of pronunciation habits in a foreign language. Habits and skills of correct speech, from grammar viewpoint, lead to constant mistakes in the foreign language as the pupils try to transfer the structure of one language to that of the other. In studying French or English Russian-speaking pupils often make mistakes in word-order. We believe that the best way to overcome interference is, on the one hand, some comparison of language phenomena in both languages clearly showing the peculiarities of the foreign language, its distinctive features, its characteristics, and, on the other hand, constant practice in the foreign language that helps to overcome interference in developing pupils' habits, skills in the foreign language.

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

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

This means that teaching a foreign language, for example, English to Russian, Chuvash, Bashkir, Arabic-speaking pupils should differ in the arrangement of language material and in the techniques of its presentation and retention. We cannot ignore pupils' native tongue in teaching a foreign language when searching for the shortest and most sound ways to the desired end. Indeed, Russian-speaking pupils and Arabic speaking pupils have different troubles in learning English. The teacher either helps pupils to make a transfer, for instance, from Russian into English (little explanation, if any, and few exercises are needed in this case), or he gives pupils the necessary explanation and supplies them with exercises, which pupils perform within the target language, without stressing the difference by translation exercises; the latter work rather at comprehension than at forming new habits and skills.

In connection with the analysis of the principle of conscious teaching, it is necessary to dwell upon the forming of habits and skills in a foreign language. All language habits and skills are extremely complex in their nature and are closely connected with conscious activity of students. What are habits? Here are some definitions of habits.

“A habit may be regarded as an instance of learning in which a relatively simple response is made, automatically and fairly frequently, to a relatively simple kind of situation.”

«Навыки – это усвоенные и упрочившиеся путем упражнений способы действия»

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

As to skills, they are defined as follows:

“A skill might be defined as an economical organization of behaviour achieving an intended effect.”

«Умением называют и самый элементарный уровень выполнения действия, и мастерство человека в данном виде деятельности»

B. V. Belyaev also distinguishes two kinds of skills. He calls them primary skills (первичные умения) and secondary skills (вторичные умения). According to Belyaev, who is known to be a defender of the conscious approach to teaching and learning a foreign language, the process of assimilation may be presented as follows: (1) primary skills supported and directed by theory, i. e., the learner is told what to do and how to do it, he is conscious of the action he is to perform, (2) habits, i. e., the learner performs the action until it becomes habitual and does not require further attendance; and (3) secondary skills imply the use of the material in the act of communication.

We agree with P. Y. Galperin as to the approach to the problem and distinguish the following stages in teaching a foreign language the pupils should pass through:

- (1) the singling out of the structural signals or the “orienting points” of a foreign language phenomenon being assimilated, followed by their cognition;
- (2) the mastering of these “orienting points” by performing operations with the material under study, following a model;
- (3) the performing of operations with the material under study without any “props”;
- (4) the using of the given phenomenon in communication in connection with a set task.

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

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

Young people in our country want to know foreign languages. To illustrate this we may refer to the entrance examinations of language departments of higher schools where the competition is great; to the growing number of people who wish to study at various foreign language courses; to the desire of parents to send their children to specialized schools, etc. I. F. Komkov gives the following data obtained by means of questionnaires among 3 368 pupils of town and village schools. 81 per cent of the pupils want to study a foreign language. About 11 per cent of pupils name it their favourite subject. The greatest desire to study a foreign language is observed among pupils of the 5th form, i.e., beginners (93 per cent). In other forms there is a tendency to the loss of interest in language learning. This shows that there is something wrong in teaching this subject. The teachers fail to sustain and develop the desire to learn which pupils have when they start the course.

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

In this connection I. F. Komkov writes: «... успешное обучение, обеспечивающее хорошее усвоение материала, формирует у учащихся активное, положительное отношение к изучаемым языкам. Отсюда лишней раз становится очевидной первостепенная роль методов обучения»

The pupil willingly and actively learns the subject if he understands its social and personal “meaningfulness” (значимость).

Here are what pupils wrote in their questionnaires. «При изучении иностранного языка узнаем много нового, интересного». «Каждый культурный человек должен знать иностранный язык». «Люблю разучивать песни на французском языке».

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

A decisive condition of stimulating interest in language learning is the pupils' understanding of its specific content, that is, they acquire a second language to be able to use it as a means of communication. For this purpose, from the very first step, the learners should see this, they should perform exercises of natural communicative character. They must feel that the language they study can be used as a means of intercourse, of getting information while hearing, speaking, and reading it. Therefore if the teacher wants to stimulate pupils' interest in the subject he should make them use their knowledge for practical needs while talking, reading, doing various exercises of a communicative character which are creative by nature. Hence the methodological principle may be formulated as follows:

**In teaching a foreign language it is necessary to stimulate pupils' activity by involving them in the act of communication in the target language either in its oral (hearing, speaking) or written (reading, writing) form.**

If pupils are not involved in the act of communication in the target language and remain on the level of performing drill exercises, they soon lose interest in the subject become passive at the lessons. One needs a lot of practice in the use of the language to master it. Consequently the problem arises how to enlarge the real time available for each pupil during the class-period to make him an active participant of the lesson, of the work done during the lesson. It is pupils who should work, and not the teacher as is often the case.

Methodologists and teachers are searching for ways to solve this problem. Some ways may be recommended. They are as follows:

(a) work in unison, when pupils are told to pronounce a sound, a word, a phrase, a sentence, or to read something out loud in chorus in imitation of the teacher, or a speaker if a tape-recorder is used;

(b) mass work, when pupils are invited to listen to a text, to read a text silently, to do some exercises in written form, in other words, when they learn for themselves, and each does the same work as his classmates;

(c) work in small groups when pupils are divided into four-five groups, and each group receives a special assignment either for reading or speaking; the work results in conversation between group 1 and the class, group 2 and the class, etc.;

(d) work in pairs, when pupils sitting at the same desk have an opportunity to "talk" in the target language: reciting a dialogue they are to learn, doing an ask-and-answer exercise or making up a dialogue of their own;

(e) individual work in programmed instruction, when each pupil can work with the programme he receives either through visual or auditory perception at his own pace.

**The principle of visualization** has always been very important for language learning since the gaining of knowledge begins either with sense perception or with what has been

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

Soviet psychologists distinguish various kinds of visualization. For instance, B. V. Belyaev suggests the following classification for visualization.

In this connection V. A. Artemov writes: «Для классификации существующих и вновь возникающих видов наглядности при обучении иностранным языкам существенны следующие различающие их признаки:

- 1) объектная – образная;
- 2) предметная – изобразительная;
- 3) перцептивная – мнемическая;
- 4) реальная – схематическая;
- 5) однорецепторная – многорецепторная;
- 6) чистая (синтетическая) – опосредованная (аналитическая);
- 7) комплексно-языковая – аспектно-языковая;
- 8) театрализованно-поступочная – кино-поступочная.

Например, диафильмы содержат наглядность: объектную, изобразительную, перцептивную, реальную (схематическую), однорецепторную (зрительную), синтетическую (аналитическую) и аспектную – и вовсе не содержат наглядности поступочной»

These classifications show that a good deal of research work has been carried out on the problem, and now it is obvious that visualization plays an important role in teaching and learning a foreign language since it provides conditions for sense perception of the material and ensures pupils' activity in the target language. «Психологическая особенность и ценность чувственно-наглядного преподнесения материала обучения состоит также в том, что оно мобилизует психическую активность учащихся, а именно: вызывает интерес к занятиям языком, переводит произвольное внимание в послепроизвольное, расширяет объем усваиваемого материала, снижает утомление, тренирует творческое воображение, мобилизует волю, облегчает весь процесс научения»

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

Visualization implies an extensive use of audio-visual aids and audio-visual materials throughout the whole course of foreign language teaching for presentation and retention of the



linguistic material, and for developing oral and written language, although they are to be used differently depending on the stage of instruction, the age of pupils, their progress in the target language, and other factors.

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

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

In teaching foreign languages other didactic principles such as the principles of systematic teaching, of consecutiveness, of accessibility, of durability, are used. (See “Methods of Teaching English in Secondary Schools” by I. E. Anitchkov, V. N. Saakyants. M. — L., 1966, p. 47—55.)

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

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

In the ten-year school the foreign language is taught for six years. Pupils begin to study it in the 5th form and finish in the 10th form. The number of hours allotted to the study of the subject is 560 of the essential course and, in addition, about 200 of the optional course in the senior stage (see the syllabus).

In the specialized school pupils learn a foreign language for nine years beginning in the 2nd form and completing the course in the 10th form. The total number of hours allotted to a foreign language is 1500 (see the syllabus).

In the evening school a foreign language is an optional subject and as such it should be taught for three years (in the 9th, 10th and 11th forms). The number of hours allotted to the study of a foreign language is 315 (see the syllabus). Consequently, in the curriculum one can find where (in what forms) a foreign language is studied, how many periods a week, and the total number of hours that are allotted to its study. The aims and the content of the teaching as well as the method of instruction are stated by the syllabus.

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

The syllabus includes: 1. The explanatory note. Here the teacher will find the aims of foreign language teaching in school. He will also find some suggestions as to the approach to teaching oral language, reading, and writing, vocabulary, and grammar. Besides, in

the explanatory note he will find some indications about pupils' independent work, homework, i. e., what a home task must consist of and how much time it should take to be done; how to keep a record of pupils' progress in a foreign language and, finally, how to carry on extra-curricular work in a foreign language at school. 2. *The syllabus itself.* The teacher will find the requirements for the command of knowledge in English (German, French), i. e., pupils' habits and skills in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing; topics for every form (5, 6, etc.) for speaking and reading, the amount of class periods for every form.

***For example:*** The 5th form.

140 class-periods.

The requirements for the command of knowledge. *Speaking and hearing.* The pupil must be able:

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

*Reading.* The pupil must be able:

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

*Writing.* The pupil must be able:

- to write questions and answers (within the language material and topic already covered);
- to write dictations (within the material assimilated).

*Approximate topics for speaking and reading:*

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

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

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

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

**Questions for Discussion:**

1. Compare the syllabi for different types of schools as to what they have in common and in what they differ.

2. There are three main aims in teaching a foreign language in schools. Name them and say whether you consider them justifiable. Support your statement.

3. What is the content of teaching? Do authors whose works you have read interpret it adequately? Give some examples.

4. Compare several approaches to the fundamental principles foreign language teaching should be based upon and name the specific principles which, you think, must be observed in teaching this subject in schools.

5. Are aims, content and principles interrelated? If so, show this interrelation.

## ***LECTURE 6 Teaching Pronunciation***

### **THE IMPORTANCE OF CORRECT PRONUNCIATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING**

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

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

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

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

### **THE DIFFICULTIES IN ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION USUALLY EXPERIENCED BY RUSSIAN-SPEAKING PUPILS**

Any language has its specific phonic system. This is true for English as well. The sounds of English are not the same as the sounds of Russian, though there are, of course, some sounds which occur both in English and in Russian.

There are many difficult sounds in English for Russian learners, [w], [ð], [θ], [r], [ə:], [ou], [εə] for example. To Russian-speaking pupils the combination of sounds [θs], [ðz] which

occurs in English at the end of a word (months, clothes) is strange and they find great difficulty in pronouncing a word with this sound combination. The same may be said about the sound [rj]. In English it comes in the middle or at the end of many words: English, think, song, sitting, longer and presents a lot of trouble to pupils to produce it correctly as there is no sound like this in the Russian language.

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

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

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

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

There are double vowels and diphthongs in English. Some of these diphthongs are strange to Russian-speaking pupils because they do not appear in their native language: [ou], [ɛə], [ɪə], [oə], [juə]. Pupils are tempted to substitute for them English monophthongs or sounds from their own language. The following vowel sounds have been found to be particularly difficult for Russian-speaking pupils: [æ] which is often confused with [e]; [a:] which is substituted by Russian [a]; [ə:] which is replaced by [o:].

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

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

The pronunciation of words is not only a matter of sounds, but also of stress or accent. Some words have the heavier stress on the first part of the word: *sorry, evening, morning, answer*, and other words have the heavier stress on the second part: *begin, mistake, about, reduce, result, occur, effect*. Stress is very important to the assimilation of English pronunciation. Foreigners often find it difficult to understand an Englishman's speech and ask him to speak more slowly, because in quick speech the accented syllables are so strong that they almost drown the others.

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

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

## THE CONTENT OF TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

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

Proceeding from the aims and objectives the foreign language syllabus sets out, pupils must assimilate:

1. The sounds of the English language, its vowels and consonants. They should be able to articulate these sounds

both separately and in different phonetic contexts.

2. Some peculiarities of the English language in comparison with those of the Russian language, such as: English vowels differ in quality and in length, whereas in the Russian language the length of vowels is of no importance; there are no palatal consonants, and if some consonants may be pronounced slightly palatalized, this does not change the meaning of the word- For instance, we may pronounce the word *like* with dark [l] and light [l], i. e., slightly palatalized, the meaning of the word remains the same. In the Russian language there are palatalized and nonpalatalized consonants and palatalization changes the meaning of the word: e. g., БЫЛ – БЫЛЬ; КОН – КОНЬ; БАНКА – БАНЬКА.

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

### **I 'don't 'know what his 'native language is. 'Do you 'speak 'English?**

Only when pronunciation is correct, when all main phonic rules are strictly followed, can one understand what one hears and clearly express one's thoughts in English.

The teacher, therefore, faces the following problems in teaching pupils English pronunciation:

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

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

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

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

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

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

### **HOW TO TEACH PRONUNCIATION**

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

Teaching English pronunciation in schools should be based on methodological principles described in Chapter III. This means to instruct pupils in a way that would lead them to conscious assimilation of the phonic aspect of a foreign language. The teacher instructs his pupils to pronounce sounds, words, word combinations, phrases and sentences in the English language. Pupils must become conscious of the differences between English sounds and those of the native language. This is possible provided the foreign sound is contrasted with the native phoneme which is substituted for it, e.g.: E. [t]-R. [T]; E. [n] - R. [H]; E. [h] -R. [X]

Each sound is also contrasted with the foreign phonemes which come close to it and with which it is often confused. The contrast is brought out through such minimal pairs as: *it — eat;*

*spot — sport; wide — white, cut — cart, full — fool, boat — bought.* The experience of the sound contrast is reinforced audio-visually:

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

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

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

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

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

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

Therefore pupils merely imitate the teacher. It should be said that the correct pronunciation of some vowels often depends on the correct pronunciation of consonants. For example, if a pupil pronounces *did* as Russian *дид* it means he mispronounces [d], and not [i] because one cannot pronounce *дид* with the correct position of the tongue for producing the English [d].

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

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

Teaching a foreign language in schools begins with teaching pupils to hear and to speak it, that is, with the oral introductory course or the oral approach. Since the aural-oral and the oral

approach should be used, the unit of teaching is the sentence. We speak with sentences. Therefore pupils hear a long chain of sounds or a sound sequence from the very beginning. The teacher's task is to determine which sounds the pupils will find hard to pronounce, which sounds they can assimilate through imitation, and which sounds require explanations of the position of the organs of speech while producing them.

The following procedure in teaching pronunciation should be observed:

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

*E. g.* My name is ...

name

[n]

Pupils are invited to find the correct position of the tip of the tongue for pronouncing [n].

After they have found the position of the tongue for [n] they pronounce it as a single unit or as an isolated element. Then they pronounce the sound in the word name and in the sentence.

My name is...

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

#### T e a c h e r

a sentence – My name is ...

The book is thick.

a word – name

thick

a sound – [n]

[θ]

#### P u i p l

a sound – [n]

[θ]

a word – name

thick

a sentence – My name is ...

The book is thick.

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

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

**R e c o g n i t i o n e x e r c i s e s** are designed for developing pupils' ability to discriminate sounds and sound sequences. Indeed the assimilation of correct English pronunciation by Russian-speaking pupils depends to a great extent on their ability to aud. In



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

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

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

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

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

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

The teacher pronounces English phrases with a rising or falling tone and asks pupils to raise their hands when they hear a falling tone, e. g., on the ,table — on the “table; with my “friend — with my friend; in his “hand — in his ,hand; to the ,South — to the “South.

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

R e p r o d u c t i o n e x e r c i s e s are designed for developing pupils' pronunciation habits, i. e., their ability to articulate English sounds correctly and to combine sounds into words, phrases and sentences easily enough to be able to speak English and to read aloud in this language. A few minutes at each lesson must be devoted to drilling the sounds which are most difficult for Russian-speaking pupils.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

If the teacher is going to introduce the Present Continuous, pupils should be taught how to pronounce [ɪŋ]. The sound is difficult for Russian-speaking pupils so it requires special work on the part of the teacher. The pronunciation drill may include the following words: *English, song, sing, drink, think, thing* and pairs of words: *write — writing; read — reading; sit — sitting; open — opening; study — studying; play — playing.*

The teacher includes all the words ending in [ɪŋ] his pupils need at the lesson and works at them most thoroughly while conducting pronunciation drill.

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

The words are arranged into three groups in accordance with the sound each one ends in:

[t]	[d]	[d]
wash — washed	open — opened	want — wanted
thank — thanked	close — closed	skate — skated
work — worked	live — lived	recite — recited

stop — stopped      smile — smiled      rest — rested

Pupils need the irregular verbs for speaking and reading aloud. The teacher arranges the verbs according to the sound which all of them have in the Past Indefinite, for example [o:], [æ]:

buy – brought	sit – sat
think – thought	sing – sang
bring – brought	begin – began
teach - taught	run - ran

The teacher may select words difficult for pronunciation, such as:  
[ʃuə] Sure. I am sure. I am sure he will come.

I am sure he will come soon. We are sure. He is sure. He was sure they would help him.  
[ˈjuərəp] Europe. There are many countries in Europe. One part of our country is in Europe.  
England is also in Europe. France is in Europe, too.

The teacher may take poems for pronunciation drill to help pupils to achieve good pronunciation of English sounds, [w], [ð]:

When the weather is wet, we must not fret.  
When the weather is cold, we must not scold.  
When the weather is warm, we must not storm.  
But be thankful together whatever the weather.

[ɛə]:

Once two little brown bears  
Found a pear-tree full of pears.  
But they could not climb up there  
For the trunk was smooth and bare.

If I only had a chair,  
Said the elder brown bear,  
I would get the biggest pear  
That is hanging in the air.

Proverbs and some useful expressions can be used as material for pronunciation drills:

A friend in need is a friend indeed.  
Early to bed, early to rise makes a man healthy, wealthy and wise.  
After dinner sit a while, after supper walk a mile.  
— Glad to see you. — So am I.  
— How are things? — Very well, thank you.  
— Thank you for your help.  
— Don't mention it.  
— Can you spare me a few minutes?

- Certainly, I can. (I'm sorry, I can't.)
- I hate being late.
- It's time for me to go.
- I can't stay any longer.

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

The material pupils get for reproduction can be presented in two possible ways:

- (1) through auditory perception only;
- (2) through auditory perception reinforced by visual perception of a sound, a word, a phrase, a sentence, and a text.

The techniques the teacher uses may be as follows:

- pupils aud (they listen either to the teacher or to a speaker);
- pupils show they understand what they listen to (the teacher checks their comprehension);
- pupils listen to the sound, the word, etc. again;
- they pronounce in imitation of the teacher (or speaker)
- in unison and individually, first bright, then average, and finally slow pupils.

The teacher's principal concern is to make sure that every pupil can articulate English sounds correctly and pronounce words, phrases and sentences as close to the pattern as possible; hence pupils' learning by heart the material included in a phonetic drill (rhymes, proverbs, poems, songs, dialogues) is not the main aim. The main aim is pupils' correct pronunciation with regard to sounds, stress, rhythm, and melody. If tape-recording is used, the material should be recorded so that pupils can first listen to the speaker, then repeat in imitation of the speaker during the pauses long enough for pupils to reproduce it. When recording the material for classwork, therefore, it is necessary to take into account not only the time for producing sounds or sound sequences, but for organizing the class to pronounce it during the pause. So pauses should not be too short.

It is impossible to underestimate the role that can be played by sound film loops, records, tape playback devices in teaching pronunciation. Each of these aids:

- (1) allows speech to be reproduced with correct pronunciation and intonation in particular;
- (2) permits the same text to be repeated several times for pupils to have an opportunity to listen to it again and again;
- (3) makes it possible for the teacher to develop his pupils' abilities to understand English spoken at various speeds;
- (4) helps the teacher in developing his pupils' ability to speak;
- (5) gives pupils an opportunity to listen to texts read by native speakers.

When working with these aids in the classroom the teacher must be well prepared for the work. He must listen to the material himself several times in order to know the text from all points of view and, first of all, from the point of view of its phonic aspect. He studies the text and marks the difficulties for pupils' listening comprehension, namely, sounds, sound combinations, stress, or melody. Then he writes out the difficult points from the text to draw pupils' attention to them and, in this way, to help pupils to overcome the difficulties they may have in auditing the text.

Pronunciation is a skill that should be developed and perfected throughout the whole course of learning the language, that is why we insist that the teacher should use pronunciation drill during the lesson, irrespective of the stage of instruction.

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

As to how mistakes must be corrected the following may be suggested:

(1) the teacher explains to the pupil his mistake and asks him to pronounce the sound, the word, or the sentence again, paying attention to the proper position of the organs of speech for producing the sound, for example, [6] (he should bite the tongue between the teeth and blow air out at the same time), or the word 'development' with the stress on the second syllable, or the sentence with the rising tone;

(2) the teacher corrects the mistake by pronouncing the sound, the word, the phrase, or the sentence in which the mistake has been made and the pupil imitates the teacher's pronunciation;

(3) the teacher asks the pupil to listen to the tape-recording or the record again and pronounce the word or the sentence in the way the speaker does it; thus through comparison the pupil should find the mistake and correct it.

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

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

Young teachers are inclined to expect immediate results and soon they stop teaching pupils correct pronunciation as a hopeless task. No doubt they forget their own imperfections and do not know that pronunciation can be taught only by a long, patient, and persistent effort throughout the whole course of study.

**Questions for Discussion:**

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

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

**Activities:**

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

### **LECTURE 7 TEACHING VOCABULARY** **THE IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING VOCABULARY**

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

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

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

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

Modern tendency is to apply this principle depending on the language activities to be developed. For developing reading skills pupils need "reading vocabulary" (M. West), thus various printed texts are analysed from the point of view of word frequency. For developing speaking skills pupils need "speaking vocabulary". In this case the material for analysis is the

spoken language recorded. The occurrences of words are counted in it and the words more frequently used in speaking are selected.

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

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

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

2. Words that we talk about or content words.

In teaching vocabulary for practical needs both structural words and content words are of great importance. That is why they are included in the vocabulary minimum.

The number of words and phraseological units the syllabus sets for a pupil to assimilate is 1,200. They are distributed in the following way: 800 words in the eight-year school, the rest in the ten-year school. The textbooks now in use contain more word units than the syllabi set.

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

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

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

### **DIFFICULTIES PUPILS EXPERIENCE IN ASSIMILATING VOCABULARY**

Learning the words of a foreign language is not an easy business since every word has its form, meaning, and usage and each of these aspects of the word may have its difficulties. Indeed, some words are difficult in form (daughter, busy, bury, woman, women) and easy in usage; other words are easy in form (enter, get, happen) and difficult in usage. Consequently, words may be classified according to the difficulties pupils find in assimilation. In methodology some attempts have been made to approach the problem.

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

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

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

### **PSYCHOLOGICAL AND LINGUISTIC FACTORS WHICH DETERMINE THE PROCESS OF TEACHING VOCABULARY**

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

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

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

Charles Fries says: "It is not the meaning of the words themselves but an intricate system of formal features which makes possible the grasp of what we generally call 'meaning'. Train, boy, house, take — conveys no meaning. 'The boy takes a train to his house' is full of meaning." He concludes, "The meaning is not in the words themselves but in the words as a pattern".<sup>1</sup>

N. I. Zhinkin writes: Человек вообще никогда не говорит отдельные слова, если они в то же время не являются фразами. Никто ни с того не скажет яблоко, паутина и т.п. В разных ситуациях этими словами будут высказываться разные сообщения и побуждения: вот яблоко, хочу яблоко, где яблоко, не хочу яблоко, это не яблоко и т. д.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

For instance: see — sea; too — two; one — won (in pronunciation); answer — reply; answer — ask; small—little (in meaning); bought — brought; caught — taught; night—right (in spelling);

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

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



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

“The true art of teaching is not the application of the ‘best’ system, but the ability to stimulate pupils to worth while activity.” (Morris, *The Teaching of English as a Second Language*).

Hence there are two stages in teaching vocabulary: presentation or explanation, retention or consolidation which are based on certain psycholinguistic factors.<sup>1</sup>

## **HOW TO TEACH VOCABULARY IN SCHOOL**

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

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

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

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

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

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

vocabulary assimilation it can and must be done during the lesson and under the teacher's supervision.

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

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

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

Then the teacher shows another picture with two houses in it — a small house and a big house, and he asks another pupil to point to the small house, to the big house, and so on.

The teacher may use gestures, for example for conveying the meaning of stand up, sit down.

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

Pupil: No, he can't.

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

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

Pupil: Because he is blind.

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

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

Teacher: You know the words: worker, teacher ...

Now guess the meaning of the word writer.

Write — writer. Name a writer you like children.

1 P u p i l: Tolstoy.

2 P u p i l: Chekhov.

3 P u p i l: Gorky.

Teacher: That's right.

Is Sholokhov a writer?

P u p i l 14: Yes, he is.

Teacher: Is Repin a writer?

P u p i l 15: No, he is not.

Teacher: Is Kataev a writer or a teacher?

P u p i l 18: He is a writer.

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

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

teacher — teach

Teacher: Who teaches you English?

1 P u p i l: You do.

Teacher: Who teaches you geography?

2 P u p i l; Maria Ivanovna does.

Teacher: Does M. V. teach you English or Russian?

3 P u p i l: She teaches us Russian.

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

Teacher: You know the word city. Moscow is a city. What is Leningrad (Kiev, Minsk)?

1 P u p i l: Leningrad is a city.

2 P u p i l: Kiev is a city.

3 P u p i l: Minsk is a city.

Teacher: That's right. The new word is town. It is a synonym of city. Moscow is a city. Norilsk is not a city. Norilsk is a town. So a town is smaller than a city. Name a town you like.

1 P u p i l. Zagorsk.

2 P u p i l: Noginsk.

Teacher: That's right.

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

It is difficult to cover all the techniques the teacher may have at his disposal to convey the meaning of new words directly without the help of the mother tongue. There are teachers, however, who do not admit that pupils can understand what a new word means without translating it into the native tongue, and though they use some techniques of the direct method for conveying the meaning of new words, they immediately ask their pupils to say what is the Russian for...? Here are a few examples. Teacher N. presented the word ball in the fifth form. She had brought a ball. She showed the ball to the pupils and said: This is a ball ...a ball. The ball is red and blue. What is the Russian for 'a ball', children? Who can guess? Of course everyone could. They cried: мячик. What is the use of bringing the ball if the teacher turns to the mother

tongue? So instead of developing pupils' abilities and skills in establishing associations between the English word and the object it denotes, she emphasized the necessity for the use of the mother tongue in learning the word. Then she presented the word football. She used a picture in which some boys were playing football. She said: Look at the picture, children. You can see some boys in the picture. They are playing football. What is the Russian for 'football'? Who can guess? The pupils were not enthusiastic to answer this question because they probably found it silly. (It does not mean, of course, that the teacher cannot turn to the mother tongue to check pupils' comprehension when he uses the direct method of conveying the meaning of some difficult words not like those mentioned above — when he is not sure that everyone has understood them properly.) Consequently, the direct method works well provided that the teacher is good at applying visual aids and using verbal means when he explains new words to the pupils. Moreover, he must do it vividly to arouse his pupils' interest in the work performed, and thus to provide optimum conditions for understanding the meaning of the words and their assimilation through the foreign language. Besides various accessories (objects, pictures, movements, gestures, facial expressions, etc.) should be widely used. If the teacher cannot work with visual aids and is not an actor to a certain extent (after all, every teacher ought to be something of an actor), it is he, but not the method, who fails in conveying the meaning of new words.

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

The translation method may be applied in its two variants:

1 Common (proper) translation:

to sleep — спать

flower — цветок

joy — радость

2 Translation — interpretation:

to drive — вести что? Машину, поезд, автобус.

education — воспитание, образование.

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

visual presentation prevails in junior forms;

verbal means prevail in intermediate and senior forms;

translation in all the forms, especially in senior forms.

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

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

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

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

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

1. *Psychological factors:*

(1) pupils’ age: the younger the pupils are the better is the chance for the use of the direct method;

(2) pupils’ intelligence: the brighter the child the more direct the method.

2. *Pedagogical factors:*

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

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

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

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

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

3. *Linguistic factors:*

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

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

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

**Retention of words.** To attain the desired end pupils must first of all perform various exercises to fix the words in their memory.

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

For this purpose it is necessary to organize pupils’ work in a way permitting them to approach the new words from many different sides, in many different ways, by means of many different forms of work. The teacher can ensure lasting retention of words for his pupils provided he relies upon pupils’ sensory perception and thinking, upon their auditory, visual, and kinesthetic analysers so that pupils can easily recognize the words while hearing or reading, and use them while speaking or writing whenever they need. To use a word the pupil should, first, search for it in his memory, choose the very word he needs, and then insert the word in a sentence, i.e., use it properly to express his thought. Thus correct usage of words means the correct choice and insertion of the words in speech.1

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

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

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

Group I may include:

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

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

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

(6); or (b) which denote size:

(1) red, (2) big, (3) good, (4) small, (5) great, (6) green (pupils should take (2), (4), (5).

— Choose the right word:

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

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

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

For example:

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

-

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

— Fill in the blanks: They saw a little — in the forest

The hut was .

— Say (or write) those words which (a) you need to speak about winter, (b) refer to sports and games.

— Say (or write) the opposites of: remember, hot, day, get up, answer, tall, thick.

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

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

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

— Play a guessing game. The teacher, or one of the pupils, thinks of a word. Pupils try to guess the word by asking various questions: Is it a ...? Is it big or small? Can we see it in the classroom?

It is next to impossible to give all the exercises the teacher can use for developing pupils' skills in finding words both among those suggested (when pupils just recognize the necessary words) and those stored up in their memory (when pupils "fish out" the words they need to do the exercise). There are plenty of them. Those mentioned, however, will be helpful for consolidating and reviewing the vocabulary in eight- and ten-year schools.

Group II may include:

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

—Combine the words:

(a) sky fine (b) speak late

rain blue run fast

snow heavy come loudly

weather white

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

—Insert the words met; built; posted in (1) The house was ...last year. (2) The delegation was-, at the railway station in the morning. (3) The letter was ... three days ago.

—Make statements with: a few days, a few words, a few people, a few friends, a few hours: e. g., We worked in the field for a few hours.

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

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

—Say where the pen is. (The teacher puts the pen in different places for pupils to say on the table, in the box, under the bag, over the blackboard, and so on.)

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

—Make two (three) statements on the object (or the picture). (The same objects or pictures may be used for the purpose.)

Exercises of this type are more difficult since pupils should search their memory for the necessary words, word combinations, or even sentences to describe an object or a picture.

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

A few more words should be said about the use of audiovisual aids and materials in teaching vocabulary.

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

All aids and materials (see Chapter IV) may be used in presenting, assimilating, and reviewing the vocabulary at every stage and in every form in teaching a foreign language.

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

(1)the number of exercises to be used;

(2)the type of exercises to be used;

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

In solving these problems the teacher should take into consideration:

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

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

The desirable relationship between these two groups of exercises, as our experiments have proved, should be in the ratio 1 : 2, that is most of the exercises must be connected with developing pupils' skills in using the words in sentences and in connection with the situations offered.

At both stages of teaching vocabulary the teacher should constantly use all kinds of vocabulary testing to see how his pupils assimilate the form, the meaning, and the usage of the words. For testing the retention of the written form dictations may be suggested. For testing the meaning special tests may be recommended such as writing synonyms, antonyms, derivatives, identification, and some others. For testing the usage of the words the teacher may administer such tests as composing sentences using the words given, composing a story on a picture or a set of pictures, and some others. The teacher should bear in mind that most of the exercises offered for the stages of presentation and retention may be fruitfully utilized for vocabulary testing.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Speak on the principles of selecting a minimum vocabulary. What, in your opinion, is the soundest criterion?
2. Comment on the main rules in teaching vocabulary.
3. Speak on the possible difficulties a pupil has to overcome when new words are presented. What is the role of the teacher here? Illustrate your answer with several examples.
4. Not all words require the same exercises for retention. Why?

Activities:

1. Prepare a lesson plan for teaching words of different types at the stage of presentation. Use any Pupil's Book you like.
2. Make up a drill on the words presented.
3. Prepare a series of situations to stimulate pupils to use the words presented. Use two forms of speech: dialogue and monologue.
4. Prepare a test on vocabulary (a) for oral testing, (b) for written testing.

## **LECTURE 8 Teaching Grammar**

### **THE IMPORTANCE OF GRAMMAR IN LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

In order to understand a language and to express oneself correctly one must assimilate the grammar mechanism of the language studied. Indeed, one may know all the words in a sentence and yet fail to understand it, if one does not see the relationship between the words in the given sentence. And vice versa, a sentence may contain one, two, and more unknown words but if one has a good knowledge of the structure of the language one can easily guess the meaning of these



words or at least find them in a dictionary. For instance, one can hardly understand the following sentences without a knowledge of grammar even if all the words are familiar: We saw him book a ticket. It made me return home. (It made me happy.) because each of them includes some grammar difficulties for Russian-speaking pupils, namely, the infinitive construction in both of them, and an unusual meaning of the familiar words book and make. However if a pupil has assimilated the model of the Complex Object in the English language he will understand that in the sentence We saw him book a ticket the word book is not a noun, it cannot be a noun since him book is a complex object. In this sentence book is an infinitive, therefore, the pupil must look it up in a dictionary under v. In the second sentence the verb make is used in the meaning of *заставлять* since there is the infinitive construction to make somebody do something which the pupil can easily recognize if he has learnt it.

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

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

## **THE MOST COMMON DIFFICULTIES PUPILS HAVE IN ASSIMILATING ENGLISH GRAMMAR**

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

The inversion of subject and finite verb in Are you ... indicates the question form. In speaking English, Russian pupils often violate the word order which results in bad mistakes in expressing their thoughts.

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

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

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

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

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

English grammar must begin, therefore, with pupils' learning the meanings of these structural words, and with practice in their correct use. For example: This is a pen. The pen is red. This is my pen and that is his pen.

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

### **THE CONTENT OF TEACHING GRAMMAR**

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

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

By "grammar" we also mean the system of the language, the discovery and description of the nature of language itself. It is not a natural grammar, but a constructed one. There are several constructed grammars: traditional, structural, and transformational grammars. Traditional grammar studies the forms of words (morphology) and how they are put together in sentences

(syntax); structural grammar studies structures of various levels of the language (morpheme level) and syntactic level; transformational grammar studies basic structures and transformation rules.

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

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

	Gerund
	Present
ing	Participle
	Verbal Noun
	Past Indefinite
ed	Past Participle
	Plural of nouns
s,es	The 3d person singular of Present Indefinite

The selection of grammar material involves choosing the appropriate kind of linguistic description, i. e., the grammar which constitutes the best base for developing speech habits. Thus the school syllabus reflects a traditional approach to determining grammar material for foreign language teaching. The textbooks reflect a structural approach to grammar (see, for example, the textbooks by A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon); pupils are given sentence patterns or structures, and through these structures they assimilate the English language, acquire grammar mechanisms of speech. Consequently, the syllabus and the textbooks emphasize different aspects of grammar. The syllabus emphasizes what to teach and gives it in terms of traditional grammar. The textbooks emphasize how to teach and present grammar in sentence patterns, structures (structural approach). That is how the syllabus and the textbooks present grammar. The amount of grammar material pupils should assimilate in school, and the way it is distributed throughout the course of study, may be found in the syllabi for eight-year schools and for ten-year schools. In teaching grammar the teacher follows the recommendations given in Teacher's Books and instructs pupils through sentence patterns and structures presented in Pupil's Books. Although the content of grammar teaching, is disputable among teachers and methodologists, and there are various approaches to the problem, pupils should, whatever the content of the course, assimilate the ways of fitting words together to form sentences and be able to easily recognize grammar forms and structures while hearing and reading, to reproduce phrases and sentences stored up in

their memory and say or write sentences of their own, using grammar items appropriate to the situation.

## HOW TO TEACH GRAMMAR

### Some General Principles of Grammar Teaching and How to Use Them

Teaching grammar should be based upon the following principles:

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

The teacher draws pupils' attention to the new element in the sentence pattern. The teaching point may be presented in the form of a rule, a very short one. It is usually done in the mother tongue.

The rule helps the learner to understand and to assimilate the structural meaning of the elements. It ensures a conscious approach to learning. This approach provides favourable conditions for the speedy development of correct and flexible language use. However it does not mean that the teacher should ask pupils to say this or that rule. Rules do not ensure the mastery of the language. They only help to attain the practical goal. If a pupil can recognize and employ correctly the forms that are appropriate, that is sufficient. When the learner can give ample proof of these abilities that he has fulfilled the syllabus requirements.

Conscious learning is also ensured when a grammar item is contrasted with another grammar item which is usually confused.

I get up at 7 o'clock.                      The Present Indefinite is contrasted with the Present  
It's 7 o'clock. I am getting                      contrasted with the Present Continuous  
up-

He has come

The Present Perfect is contrasted  
with the Past Indefinite.

He came an hour ago

Tom can swim. The Infinitive with to is contrasted with the Infinitive without to.

Tom likes to swim.

Give me the book (you have promised). The definite article is contrasted with the  
indefinite article.

Give me a book (to read in the train).

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

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

2 *Practical approach* to the assimilation of grammar. It means that pupils learn those grammar items which they need for immediate use either in oral or written language. For example, from the first steps of language learning pupils need the Possessive Case for aural comprehension and speaking about things or objects which belong to different people, namely, Mike's textbook, Ann's mother, the boys' room, etc. In the senior stage (9—10 forms) pupils need the Sequence of Tenses mainly for reading to be able to understand such sentences as He said he had been there. We hoped Mary would come soon. The learner masters grammar through performing various exercises in using a given grammar item.

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

3. *Structural approach* to the teaching of grammar, i. e., grammar items are introduced and drilled in structures or sentence patterns. It has been proved and accept-

ed by the majority of teachers and methodologists that whenever the aim is to teach pupils the command of the language, and speaking in particular, the structural approach meets the requirements.

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

In our country the structural approach to the teaching of grammar attracted the attention of many teachers.<sup>2</sup> As a result structural approach to grammar teaching has been adopted by our schools since it allows the pupil to make up sentences by analogy, to use the same pattern for various situations. Pupils learn sentence patterns and how to use them in oral and written language.

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

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

**Rule for the teacher:** Select the situations for the particular grammar item you are going to present. Look through the textbook and other teaching materials and find those situations which can ensure comprehension and provide the usage of the item.

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

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

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

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

### **Types of Exercises for the Assimilation of Grammar**

The following types of exercises may be suggested.

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

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

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

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

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

—Read the sentences in which (1) the action was not completed, e. g., She was reading a book (2) the action was completed, e. g., She had read the book.

Mother was cooking dinner when I came.

Mother had cooked dinner

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

1. I (go, went) to the library last Monday.

2. Tom (takes, took) a bus when he goes to school.

3. The children (say, said) good-bye to the teacher and ran away, etc.

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

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

Drill exercises are more complicated as they require reproduction on the part of the pupils. In learning a foreign language drill exercises are indispensable. The learners cannot assimilate the material if they only hear and see it. They must reproduce it both in outer and inner speech. The more often they say it the better they assimilate the material. Though drill exercises are those in which pupils have only one difficulty to overcome, they should also be graded: v(a) Repetitive drill. Pupils pronounce the sentence pattern after the teacher, in imitation of the teacher, both individually and in unison. For example:

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

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

—Is Ann dancing now?

—No, she isn't.

—What is she doing?

—She is watching television.

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

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

The children are dancing in the park.

The children are dancing in the garden.

The children are dancing in the street.

The children are dancing in the yard.

The children are dancing in the hall.

The children are dancing after classes.

The children are dancing at the party.

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

They are singing in the park.

They are working in the park.

They are walking in the park.

They are playing in the park.

They are running in the park.

They are talking in the park.

They are watering flowers in the park.

They are planting trees in the park.

They are helping the workers in the park.

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

Kate helping her mother

Your sister doing her homework

This girl working on the farm

reading a book

listening to the radio

washing windows

They work in pairs.

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

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

Teacher: Look at the picture.

Mike is

Pupil: Mike is getting up. Class:

Mike is getting up.

Teacher: Mike is

Pupil: Mike is dressing.

Class: Mike is dressing.

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

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

Teacher: Is Mike getting up?

1 P u p i l: Yes, he is.

Teacher: Who is getting up?

2 P u p i l: Mike is.

Teacher: What is Mike doing?

3 P u p i l: He is getting up.

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



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

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

(a) Making statements either on the picture the teacher shows, or on objects. For example, the teacher hangs up a picture and asks his pupils to say or write three or five statements in the Present Continuous.

(b) Asking questions with a given grammar item. For example, pupils are invited to ask and answer questions in the Past Indefinite.

(c) Speaking about the situation offered by the teacher.

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

1 P u p i l: Go to the door, Sasha.

2 P u p i l: Sasha is going to the door.

3 P u p i l: Open the door.

4 P u p i l: Sasha is opening the door.

It is possible to use the Present Perfect and the Past Indefinite as well.

He has opened the door.

He opened the door a minute ago.

(d) Speaking on a suggested topic. For example, a pupil tells the class what he did yesterday.

(e) Making dialogues using the grammar item covered. For example:

1 P u p i l: I have read an interesting book.

2 P u p i l: What is it about?

1 P u p i l: Indians.

2 P u p i l: Will you give it to me to read?

1 P u p i l: Why not?

(f) Dramatizing the text read. For example, pupils read the text Nancy's Best Picture in persons.

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

(h) Telling the story (read, heard).

(i) Translating into English.

(j) Participating in free conversation in which pupils are to use the grammar item they have learned. E. g., pupils have learned sentence patterns with the impersonal it. (It's cold. It's late. It's winter).

Teacher: What's the weather like, children?

Is it cold today? Do you like it when it's cold?

Through these questions pupils are stimulated to speak about the weather and use the grammar item they have learnt.

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

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

All the exercises mentioned above are designed:

(1) to develop pupils' skills in recognizing grammar forms while a.uding and reading English texts;

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

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

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

(1) a.uding (if a pupil understands what he a.uds, he knows grammar);

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

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

(4) tests.

Tests allow the teacher to evaluate pupils' achievement in grammar, that is, how each of them has mastered forms, meaning, and usage. Tests in grammar may involve: filling in the blanks; opening the brackets; transformation (e g make it negative, change into plural, etc.); extension (e. g. I like to read books — I like to read English books in our library); completion (e. g., When I came home ...); making statements on the pictures given; translation.

For example:

—Choose the correct word:

Last year he (reads, read) a lot of books.

—Open the brackets:

When I came home, Nick (to do) his lessons,

—Make it negative:

He likes to get up early.

—Complete the sentences:

If the weather is fine ... .

— Make statements on the pictures given.

— Translate the following sentences from Russian into English.

The teacher corrects mistakes and assigns marks. He finds the commonest mistakes which show what his pupils have not assimilated yet. A part of the next lesson (3—8 min.) is devoted to drill exercises to help pupils get rid of the mistakes.

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

**Questions for Discussion:**

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

Give your reasons.

**Activities:**

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

## **LECTURE 9 LISTENING**

### **Plan**

1. Classroom listening
2. Recorded texts
3. Speaking
4. Classroom speaking
5. Speaking activities

Some learners say 'I understand everything but I can't speak'. This may be the case when people speak slowly and carefully to them, realizing that they do not know much English. But it is usually very different when they are listening to English programmes on the radio, or watching English television or films, or trying to take part in conversations dominated by native speakers. Listening is as difficult as any of the other skills. In fact, learners often find it hard to understand textbook cassettes especially designed for them. Unlike reading texts, the speed and clarity of spoken texts are often completely outside the listener's control. If you do not understand the words while they are still 'in the air', it is usually too late. Of course, this is not always so. In a conversation you can ask the other person to speak more slowly, or repeat or explain something. In fact, these are very useful strategies for learners to acquire and use in conversation and similar situations. Remember, you are giving the learners listening practice when using English as the main classroom language (class or seminar) and in pair and groupwork (face-to-face conversation). Also, these are listening situations where the learners do have some control and can use the strategies

mentioned above. Encourage them to ask for things to be repeated or explained if necessary, and teach them appropriate expressions, for example, 'Could you repeat that, please?' and 'I'm sorry. I didn't understand that. In natural listening situations, we appear to use specific listening strategies: - We usually start listening with certain expectations. For example, at an airport we expect to hear about flight numbers, gate numbers, delays, and cancellations. And when watching a science-fiction film we expect to hear about spacecraft and extraterrestrials.

-As we listen, we try to confirm or identify the precise topic, and each change of topic. This activates ideas we already have about that topic, which helps us make sense of what we then hear. The word 'dolphins' probably brings a lot into your mind. 'Dolines' probably brings nothing into your mind, although it is a real English word

-We try to recognize as many words and phrases as possible. The flow of speech which sounds something like 'WATchupriFER?' probably consists of the words 'What do you prefer?' But even native speakers with perfect hearing, in conditions where there is no problem of low volume, rapid speech, or background noise, seldom hear and recognize every single word addressed to them. And non-native speakers, especially in poor conditions, may miss many words and phrases.

- We try to create a coherent text in our mind from what we hear, using what we know about the topic on the one hand and about the English language on the other:

Dolphins protect . . . selves . . . sharks . . . ramming . . . the side, where their liver is. Dolphins . . . manoeuvre faster and better . . . water than sharks,. . . no real danger . . . might be interpreted as:

Dolphins protect themselves from sharks by ramming them in the side, where their liver is. Dolphins can manoeuvre faster and better in the water than sharks, so there's no real danger for them.

-We respond to what we understand while and after we listen to it. For example, we may begin to run if we hear we are in danger of missing our flight. Or we may think things like 'That's interesting' or 'I don't agree with that' when listening to a lecture.

- **Pre-listening:**

Discuss a relevant picture Discuss relevant experiences Associate ideas with the topic Associate vocabulary with the topic Predict information about the topic Write questions about the topic

- **While-listening:**

Identify the exact topic, or an aspect of it Note two to four pieces of information Answer questions

Complete sentences

Complete a table, map, or picture

- **Post-listening:**

Give opinions

Relate similar experiences

Role-play a similar interaction

Write a brief report

Write a similar text

Debate the topic

There is some controversy about whether a recording should be played over and over again in the while-listening stage. Some teachers insist that this is unnatural and unlike most real-life listening situations, where you get only one opportunity to understand. But most teachers think that classroom listening practice can be different from real-life listening and still be useful

preparation for it. It is best to give very simple tasks the first time the learners hear a recording, and increasingly difficult ones the second or third times. This is much better than giving them a single, complex task from the start and playing the text over and over again, hoping the learners will recover from their initial shock, and confusion, and eventually complete most of the task.

One way of gradually getting even elementary learners to understand most of a text the first time they hear it, is to use parallel texts. For example, you may have a tourist excursion announcement on your textbook cassette. Record two or three modified versions of it, for example, with different destinations, departure times, and lunch arrangements, using different teachers to record each version if possible. After an appropriate pre-listening activity, play the original version several times until the learners have grasped all the important information. Then play the second version, challenging the learners to catch most of the information the first time they hear it. They should understand it all after two hearings at most. With the third and fourth versions, which can be used in later lessons, they should understand almost everything the first time, just as if they were really hearing an announcement at a tourist hotel. This process is like the development of the listening skill in real life. Babies hear their mothers use the same words and phrases over and over again, regular travellers hear similar announcements, and regular television news watchers hear similar news formats night after night. Familiarity with a certain kind of listening text or context can aid comprehension significantly.

### **Questions:**

1. Consider how you would organize part of a lesson using the authentic material.
2. Think in terms of the three stages—pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening.
3. Think carefully about the purpose of your pre-listening activity. Make your first while-listening activity easy. Connect the post-listening activity with real life.

### **Recommended Literature:**

Ur, P. 1984. *Teaching Listening Comprehension*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.  
Wallace, C. 1992. *Reading*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.  
White, G. 1998. *Listening*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Williams, E. 1984. *Reading in the Language Classroom*. London and Basingstoke: Macmillan.

## **LECTURE 10. SPEAKING**

### **Plan**

1. Speaking as a type of communicative activity.
2. Basic linguistic and psychological characteristics of speaking.
3. The forms (types) of communication.
4. The Structure of verbal communication.
5. The structure of speech situation.

Speaking comes naturally to humans, but it is not as simple as it seems. For a start:

- Many people do not like speaking in front of large groups of people. This is especially true in a foreign language, because we may worry about producing utterances with many errors or oddities in them.

- Recognizable pronunciation is necessary for speech to be intelligible. It is sometimes hard to understand people with a strong regional accent in our own language, and it is hard to interpret a non-native speaker's 'Ease . . . eat . . . tree . . . jet?' as 'Is it three yet?'

- Like listening, speaking takes place in 'real time', and speakers do not usually have time to construct their utterances carefully. In conversation, the commonest kind of speaking, we have to do many things all together: understand what the other person is saying, say what we want to when we get the chance to speak, be prepared for unexpected changes of topic, and

think of something to say when there is a long pause.

- There are some clear implications here for teaching:

- Try to create a relaxed atmosphere in your classes so that most learners are not frightened of speaking in front of the rest of the class. And do as many speaking activities as possible in pairs and groups, so that the learners can speak English without the rest of the class listening.

- Expose the learners as much as possible to naturally pronounced speech, and also integrate some pronunciation work into your lessons. They will not learn to pronounce intelligibly, or to develop speaking skills in general, if they do not hear enough natural speech.

Accustom the learners to combining listening and speaking in real time in natural interaction. Perhaps the most important opportunity for this is in the general use of English in the classroom

### *Classroom speaking*

Like listening ability, speaking ability should partly be the natural result of using English as the main means of communication in the classroom. But speaking will probably develop more slowly than listening. You can help learners understand what you say in English by simplifying your speech and using gesture or mime. You cannot so easily get them to express themselves in English, but, when they do, always show you are pleased even if what they say is far from perfect.

Try to take every opportunity in class to get the learners to use language that has been introduced previously. Ask them questions, or ask them to tell you about something. For example, if you are going to use pictures of popular seaside resorts to present and practise comparison with adjectives, you could develop a conversation like this:

Teacher Who's visited this place? Ana? Good. Where is it?

Learner 1 Veracruz.

Teacher That's right. When did you go there?

Learner 1 The last year.

Teacher Ah—last year. Tell us about your visit.

Learner 1 I was . . . I went with my family. We went four days.

Teacher Very nice. Ask Ana about her holiday—what she did, the discos, the boys . . .

Learner 2 What you did—What did you do in Veracruz?

The conversational use of English can also be achieved with learners working in pairs or groups. For example, if you are going to use a photograph of Madonna to present and practise the Present Perfect—countries where she has given concerts, records she has sold, films she has made—you could first exploit the topic like this:

Teacher Do you recognize her?

Learner 1 Er . . . Madonna?

Teacher Right. What do you know about her?

Learner 2 She's Americas\* She . . .

Teacher . . . Good. You know a lot. Now, in groups of three exchange your opinions of Madonna as a singer, and Madonna as a person.

If you want the learners to be able to converse in English, you need to make the classroom a conversational place. If the learners do not talk naturally during the course of each lesson, it is hardly surprising when they can still hardly speak at all after hundreds of hours and several years of English classes.

### **Techniques the Teacher Uses for Teaching Speaking**

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

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

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

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

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

I can see a ...

P u p i l: I can see a blackboard.

P u p i 12: I can see a picture.

P u p i 13: I can see a map, etc.

I am fond of ...

Pupils I am fond of music.

P u p i 12: I am fond of classical music.

P u p i 13: I am fond of pop music, etc.

We are proud of ...

P u p i l x: We are proud of our country.

P u p i 12: We are proud of our sportsmen.

P u p i 13: We are proud of our school, etc.

Pupils are invited to perform various drill exercises within the sentence patterns given:

—substitution: I have a book (a pen);

—extention: I have an interesting book,

I have an interesting book at home;

—transformation: He has a book,

He has no book;

—completion: If I have time I'll ... .

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

Pupils make statements of their own in connection with the situations suggested by the teacher.

Give it a name.

Teacher: We write with it.

Pupil: It is a pencil (pen).

Make statements on the picture.

Teacher (silently points to the picture of a cat)

1 P u p i l: This is a cat.

P u p i 12: This is a black cat.

Say the opposite.

Teacher: I live in Gorky Street.

Pupil: I do not live in Gorky Street.

Teacher (pointing to the boy): He likes to play hockey.

Pupil: I don't like to play hockey.

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

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

Teacher: Say a few words about it. (He points to an object.)

Pupil: This is a pencil. The pencil is green. It is on the table. I like the pencil.

Or Teacher points to a boy.

Pupil: This is a boy. His name is Sasha. He lives in Gagarin Street.

Get information and sum up what you have learnt from your classmates.

Teacher: She cut her finger.

Pupil: Who cut her finger?

Class: Ann.

—When did she cut it?

—Yesterday.

—What did she cut it with?

—With a knife.

—Why did she cut her finger?

—Because the knife was sharp.

Pupil: Yesterday Ann cut her finger. She cut it with a knife. The knife was sharp.

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

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

3. After pupils have learned how to say a few sentences in connection with a situation they are prepared for speaking at discourse level. Free speech is possible provided pupils have acquired habits and skills in making statements and in combining them in a logical sequence. At this stage pupils are asked to speak on a picture, a set of pictures, a film-strip, a film, comment on a text they have read or heard, make up a story of their own; of course, this being done within the language material (grammar and vocabulary) pupils have assimilated. To help pupils to speak the teacher supplies them with "what to speak about". The devices used for the purpose are: visual aids which can stimulate the pupil's speaking through visual perception of the subject to be spoken about, including a text read; audio aids which can stimulate the pupil's speaking through auditory perception of a stimulus; audio-visual aids when pupils can see and hear what to speak about.

The three stages in developing pupils' speaking should take place throughout the whole course of instruction, i. e., in junior, intermediate, and senior forms. The amount of exercises at



each level, however, must be different. In junior forms statement level is of greater importance as a teaching point.

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

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

A dialogue consists of a series of lead-response units. The significant feature of a lead-response unit is that the response part may, and usually does, serve in its own turn as a fresh inducement leading to further verbal exchanges, i. e., lead

response ► inducement ► response. A

response unit is a unit of speech between two pauses. It may consist of more than one sentence. But the most characteristic feature of a dialogue is that the lead-response units are closely connected and dependent on each other. The lead is relatively free, while the response depends on the first and does not exist without it.

—Where is the book?

—There, on the shelf.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

—Will you help me, sonny?

—What shall I do, Mother?

—Will you bring me a pail of water?

—Certainly I will.

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

The work should not be done mechanically. Pupils should speak on the situation. As a result of this work pupils master the structure of the pattern dialogue (not only the contents), i. e.,

they can use it as a model for making up dialogues of their own, that is why pattern dialogues should be carefully selected.

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

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

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

**Rule for the teacher:** In teaching dialogue use pattern dialogues; make sure that your pupils go through the three stages from receptive through reproductive to creative, supply them with the subject to talk about.

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

These approaches to the problem are reflected in school textbooks now in use. A. D. Starkov and R. R. Dixon in their textbooks prefer to begin with dialogic speech. They start by teaching pupils how to ask various types of questions. For example:

The book is on the desk. The book isn't under the desk. Is the book on the desk? Yes, it is. (No, it isn't.) Is the book on the desk or under it? It's on the desk. Where's the book? It's on the desk. (Fifth Form English. Teacher's Book.)

S. K. Folomkina and E. I. Kaar give preference to developing pupils' monologic speech. For example:

I see a pen.

I see a desk.

Pete sees a desk and a pen.

As to the relationship between monologue and dialogue, it should vary from stage to stage in teaching speaking in schools. In the junior stage (5—6 forms) dialogic speech, the one which allows the teacher to introduce new material and consolidate it in conversation, must prevail. In the intermediate stage (7—8 forms) dialogue and monologue must be on an equal footing.

In the senior stage (9—10 forms) monologic speech must prevail since pupils either take part in discussion and, therefore, express their thoughts in connection with a problem or retell a text read or heard. To sum it up both forms of speech (monologue and dialogue) should be developed side by side with preference for the one which is more important for pupils' progress in learning a foreign language at a certain stage.

## PREPARED AND UNPREPARED SPEECH

Pupils' speech in both forms may be of two kinds: prepared and unprepared. It is considered prepared when the pupil has been given time enough to think over its content and form. He can speak on the subject following the plan made either independently at home or in class under the teacher's supervision. His speech will be more or less correct and sufficiently fluent since plenty of preliminary exercises had been done before.

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

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

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

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

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

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

—Discuss a problem or problems touched upon in the text read or heard. For example, pupils read about education in Great Britain. After the teacher makes sure that his pupils understand the text and have a certain idea of the system of education in Great Britain, he arranges a discussion on the problem. He asks his pupils to compare the system of education in

Great Britain and in our country. The teacher stimulates pupils' speech either by questions or through wrong statements.

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

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

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

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

### **EVALUATING PUPILS' SPEECH HABITS**

Pupils' speech habits may be evaluated in two ways:

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

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

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

### **MISTAKES AND HOW TO CORRECT THEM**

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

If a pupil misunderstands something when auding the teacher should do his best to ensure comprehension. He suggests that the pupil should either listen to the sentence again; if he does

not understand it properly the teacher or the classmates help him to paraphrase the sentence or translate it, or see it written. The latter often helps if pupils do not get used to hearing, if they are eye-learners. As far as speaking is concerned it is the teacher who corrects pupils' mistakes. It is a bad habit of some teachers to ask pupils to notice mistakes when their classmate is called in front of the class to speak.

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

Secondly, the pupil who speaks thinks more about how to say something instead of what to say. No speaking is possible when the speaker has to concentrate on the form. He makes more errors under this condition. More than that, he often refuses to speak when he sees the classmates raise their hands after he has uttered his first sentence. This does not encourage the learner to speak.

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

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

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

Pupil: My mother get up at 7 o'clock. Teacher: I see, your mother gets up earlier than you.

Pupil: Yes, my mother gets up at 7.

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

Pupil: She first visited us in 1960.

She is a good friend of ours since.

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

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

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

### ***Speaking activities***

We have already considered a range of oral practice activities, from controlled accuracy work to fairly free fluency work. All the activities in this progression from accuracy to fluency can contribute to the development of speaking skills. Even non-communicative oral practice can help develop pronunciation and the fairly automatic production of gram-

matical sequences of words. But it is the types of activity that develop the ability to participate effectively in interactions outside the classroom that are most relevant in this chapter.

Among the speaking activities described in this lecture were script-based role-plays or simulations, script-based conversations, and form-based interviews or surveys. These activities were included there because the examples given were designed to elicit repetition of specific grammatical-functional items. Although they are examples of activities designed to encourage learners to communicate as naturally as possible, teachers and learners would be aware that recently presented language was being practiced. Attention would almost inevitably be focused to a considerable extent on the new language forms.

In natural communication, attention is not usually focused on the language used, but on the messages it conveys. These messages are only partially predictable, for the topic may change quite suddenly. The language is also only partially predictable. In natural listening-speaking situations the listeners must be able to handle such shifts of topic and unpredictable language in listening, and then they must be able to improvise their responses.

The feasibility of providing opportunities for learners to speak naturally in class will depend to a large extent on the type of learners and course you are teaching. With beginners and with very large groups, the possibilities may be quite limited. In such circumstances, you may have to be satisfied with incidental classroom speaking, and some carefully planned and organized fluency practice activities like those mentioned above. However, you can repeat some of these same activities later in a course without such extensive preparation, or following the careful steps suggested in this lecture. The learners will then have to work partly from their memory of the original activity, and partly improvise. They will no longer be using language that has just been presented. In fact, they will have to function almost as if they were using English in communication outside the classroom. Here is an example:

Teacher Do you remember the consultation with a doctor? We did it last month.

Learner 1 Yes. . .

Learner 2 More or less . . .

Teacher More or less—right, Victor! What were some of the patients' problems?

Learner 3 Headache, stomach-ache, backache, earache.

Teacher Right—lots of aches! What else? \

Learner 4 Insomnia, nausea.

Teacher Right. Now, in pairs, imagine you're in a doctor's surgery.

One of you is the doctor and the other is the patient.

It is important in this kind of activity to monitor as many pairs as possible, noting how well they might manage in a real consultation. You should also note language problems that will need attention later. The pairwork can be followed by a few pairs acting out a consultation in front of the class.

Some of these activities also allow the more fluent learners to go beyond the original script. For example, a role-play consisting of a conversation at a party can go beyond the names, occupations, and current activities of the model script. You can tell the learners to extend the conversation if they can, and talk about things such as likes and dislikes, and places they have visited. In fact, you could have a 'party', a 'wedding' or a 'cruise' once a month, and encourage all the learners to go beyond the original script. These kinds of activity can be used even with beginners, especially highly motivated ones. But they will probably work best in upper elementary, intermediate, or advanced groups, and in smaller groups of learners. Below there are some other activities you can use with this kind of group.

### *Teaching ideas*

- Unscripted role-plays

These differ from scripted role-plays or simulations because the learners have only a description of a situation and no model script, for example: The living room of a house at one o'clock in the morning. The parents have been waiting up. The 14-year-old son/daughter has just arrived home.

They may also have a card for each role, for example: Mother you are furious; you phoned your son/daughter's best friends, Adam and Alice. Your son/daughter was not with either. Son/Daughter start by lying that you were studying at Adam's house; then that you were at a party at Alice's house; finally, tell the truth—you went to a disco. Get the learners to improvise the discussion in groups of three—Mother, Father, and Son/Daughter. If they have role cards, they should not look at one another's cards. When the groups have finished their improvisations, get one or more of them to act out their role-play in front of the class.

#### ***Problem-solving /decision-taking activities***

Describe a problem to the learners, or give them a written description, for example: You see a fellow worker in your office steal a portable computer; you know he/she is the single parent of two young children and has financial problems.

Get the learners, in groups of three to five, to decide what the best course of action is.

- Discussions and debates

Organize an informal discussion or a formal debate on a topic of interest to the learners. Get them to propose or select the topic. It is often best to decide on the topic in the lesson before the actual discussion or debate.

- Group projects

Get groups of three to five learners to prepare posters for the cause of their choice, for example, save the rainforest, support a street children's home, or support AIDS research. If you hear anyone speaking in their LI as they work on the project, the group loses a point. There is an exhibition of the posters, and all the learners vote for the best one (15 points), the second best (10 points) and the third best (5 points). Deduct any points for speaking the LI during the project work. The group with the most points wins.

- Warm-ups and fillers

There are many other very simple but effective speaking activities, especially for intermediate or small groups. Some are particularly good as warm-ups at the beginning of lessons, or fillers at the end. For example, simply say 'What a great holiday that was!', and then sit down and wait for questions. If nobody asks a question, you can write cues on the board, for example, 'When ...?', 'Where ...?', 'Who with ...?', 'How long. . . ?' After you have answered a good number of questions, put the learners into groups and invite one person in each group to say 'What a great holiday that was!' Other topics can be handled in the same way, for example, 'What a terrible night that was!', 'What an interesting person she is!', 'What a beautiful place it is!', or 'What an exciting experience that was!'

#### **Questions:**

1. Not all oral exercises mean speaking. Comment upon this statement.
2. Compare different approaches to teaching speaking and determine which is most justifiable.
3. What are the reasons for pupils' poor comprehension of the target language when spoken?
4. Why is it so difficult to teach speaking in artificial conditions?

#### **Recommended Literature:**

- Campbell, C. and H. Kryszewska. 1992. *Learner-based Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hadfield, J. 1984. *Elementary Communication Games*. Walton-on-Thames: Nelson.
- Nuttal, C. 1996. *Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Nolasco, R. and L. Arthur. 1987. *Conversation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Porter-Ladousse, G. 1987. *Role Play*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Seligson, P. 1997. *Helping Students to Speak*. London: Richmond.
1981. *Discussions that Work*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

## **LECTURE 11** READING COMPREHENSION

### Plan

1. Some difficulties pupils have in learning to read in the English language.
2. How to teach reading (silent reading, reading aloud).
3. Selection of texts for reading.
4. Reading control ( types of home task and checking them, criteria of grades)

Reading comprehension has much in common with listening comprehension, but also some differences. As is often the case in listening, we usually start reading with certain expectations: for example, in a newspaper we expect news, and on certain pages we expect financial news, entertainment news, or sports news. As we read, we try to confirm or identify the precise topic, and each change of topic. This activates the ideas we have stored in our mind related to that topic. And that helps us to make sense of what we then read. On the basis of our expectations, our previous ideas about the topic, and our knowledge of the language and of texts written in the language, to some extent we predict what will come next. When you have read:

England's greatest writer was born in 1564. His name . . .

you can probably predict that the verb that comes next will be 'was', and the name after that will be 'William Shakespeare'.

Fluent readers generally move from meaningful segment to meaningful segment in a text. They do not usually read:

England's—greatest—writer—was—born—in—1564.—His— name—was—William—Shakespeare.

nor:

England's greatest—writer was—born in—1564. His name—was William—Shakespeare.

but:

England's greatest writer—was born in 1564.—His name was— William Shakespeare.

We respond to what we read while and after reading: we may frown or smile, or even cry. Or we may think things like 'That's interesting', or 'Yes, I've heard about that before', or even 'I can't understand much of this'.

One important difference between reading and listening is that the text in reading is usually clearly, completely, and permanently on the page in front of us, while in listening the text is ephemeral and often not clear or complete. This permanence of reading texts has positive and negative sides, especially for non-native readers. On the positive side, people can read at their own pace, and reread things they do not understand immediately. On the negative side, some people read very slowly, word by word, even in their LI. Many more people do this in a foreign language. In fact, they often laboriously translate the text word by word.



Reading comprehension in a foreign language is not translation, though translation may occasionally be useful. And it is not reading aloud. Reading comprehension work should normally deal with direct comprehension in silent reading. In other words, it should aim to develop the skills competent readers use in their LI.

### ***Ways of reading***

We often read in distinctly different ways for different purposes. Sometimes we do preliminary or exploratory reading rather than reading whole texts thoroughly. This kind of reading can be divided into two types, *scanning and skimming*. When scanning a text, you look quickly through it to find some specific information, for example, looking through a telephone directory for a specific number, a sports article for the result of a specific soccer game, or a textbook for the mention of a specific topic. When skimming, you look quickly through a text just to get a general idea of what it is about, in other words, *the gist*.

When we read whole texts we may also read in different ways at different times, depending, for example, on whether we are reading an easy text for pleasure or a difficult text for study or work. When reading a novel, for example, you may hardly be aware of the words on the page. The novel simply 'comes to life' in your head. Even with study or professional reading you may also read easily through a text if the text and content is simple or you are already familiar with the subject. But even in our LI we sometimes have to work hard to understand a text. For example, articles or books on innovative or complex areas of science or technology may make us painfully aware of how we are struggling to attach intelligible ideas to the words on the page. Obviously, this happens more often in a foreign language.

In many English language courses, reading comprehension work consists only of scanning, skimming, and 'easy reading'. But you should not forget that professional people need to be able to deal with more complex texts as well. For example, doctors, engineers, or chemists need to be able to understand new, often revolutionary and complex, concepts and procedures very clearly indeed.

### ***Reading activities***

As we have said, reading has much in common with listening, and many aspects of the teaching of reading comprehension are similar to the teaching of listening comprehension. For example, the selection of texts is just as important. They should as far as possible be what the learners might really want or need to read. Many textbooks nowadays contain potentially interesting reading texts. But you still need to be prepared to find alternatives to texts which are of little interest and are really trying to give practice in grammar not reading comprehension. If necessary, it is relatively easy to substitute or supplement the reading material in your textbook with authentic material from magazines, newspapers, holiday brochures, and books. You may need to simplify such material for lower level classes, and you will need to design suitable activities and exercises. The text is only one element in a reading activity.

As in listening comprehension practice, three stages are generally recommended to make reading more realistic and interesting:

#### **Pre-reading**

This stage is to prepare the learners for what they are going to read, just as we are usually prepared in real life.

#### **While-reading**

This stage is to help the learners understand the text. They may first do an easy scanning or skimming task, and then a task requiring more thorough comprehension. As with listening,

you should help your learners understand the text rather than just testing their comprehension the whole time.

### **Post-reading**

This stage is to help the learners to connect what they have read with their own ideas and experience, just as we often do in real life, and perhaps to move fluently from reading to another classroom activity.

#### ***Teaching ideas***

##### **Pre-reading:**

Guess the topic of the text from the headings, illustrations, etc. Brainstorm around a topic word on the board, for example, 'sharks'. Predict what the text will say. Write questions that may be answered by the text.

##### **While-reading:**

Scan for two to four items of information.

Skim for the general idea.

Answer questions.

Complete sentences.

Complete a table, map, or picture.

Ask each other questions.

##### **Post-reading:**

Discuss what was interesting or new in the text.

Discuss or debate the topic of the text if it is controversial.

Do tasks on the language or structure of the text.

Summarize the text, either orally or in writing.

##### **Questions:**

1. Compare different standpoints on various approaches to reading. Which approach do you find justifiable? Give several arguments to confirm your statement.

2. The textbooks pupils read are different by nature. How does this influence the techniques used while working at a text?

##### **Recommended Literature:**

Campbell, C. and H. Kryszewska. 1992. *Learner-based Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Nuttal, C. 1996. *Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language*. Oxford: Heinemann.

Ur, P. 1984. *Teaching Listening Comprehension*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wallace, C. 1992. *Reading*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. White, G.

1998. *Listening*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Williams, E. 1984. *Reading in the Language Classroom*. London and Basingstoke: Macmillan.

## **LECTURE 12 WRITING**

### **Plan**

1. The aim of teaching writing in foreign language teaching.
2. The connection of writing with speaking and reading.
3. Teaching techniques of writing.

#### 4. Improving and developing writing skills and habits at the intermediate and senior stages.

Writing is probably the linguistic skill that is least used by most people in their native language. Even in the most 'advanced' societies a significant percentage of the adult population writes with difficulty. Good writing skills usually develop from extensive reading, some specific training, and a good deal of practice.

Writing involves the following basic skills:

- handwriting or typing
- spelling
- constructing grammatical sentences
- punctuating.

Those learners whose language does not use the Roman alphabet may have to spend a considerable amount of time in getting a good command of the alphabet, spelling, and punctuation. A lot of this work may be done through reading activities—for example, word, phrase, and sentence recognition—as well as writing. You can organize some of the necessary practice as games and competitions.

At higher levels, writing involves cognitive skills such as:

- gathering information and ideas relevant to the topic, and discarding what is not relevant
- organizing the information and ideas into a logical sequence
- structuring the sequence into sections and paragraphs
- expressing the information and ideas in a written draft
- editing the draft and writing out a final text.

These composing skills are necessary for all formal writing, such as formal letters, academic assignments or articles, and business reports. They are not so necessary in the writing of informal letters. We may write the latter as if we were speaking, putting ideas down on paper as they come to us, often adding a postscript containing something we forgot when we were writing the main part of the letter.

#### **Writing activities**

Writing in an English language class may be handled in different ways for different purposes. The aim of the commonest type of writing practice is to consolidate the learning of functional or grammatical items. For example, you might give the learners sentence completion exercises or a guided composition requiring the writing of several examples of comparatives after you have presented and practiced them orally. This can be very useful to clarify the grammar, to provide a change of activity in a lesson, or to give extra practice outside the classroom as homework. The other main type of writing practice is intended to develop higher-level writing skills. That means the ability to do the writing tasks in intermediate and advanced proficiency examinations, and to do real business and academic writing. However, some work towards this type of writing can be started at lower levels. It can even be combined with writing principally intended to consolidate grammar.

#### **Teaching ideas**

Here are three examples of simple writing tasks:

- Parallel compositions

With the whole class, discuss the topic of 'animals' characteristics and habits to elicit sentences in the Simple Present like:

Chimpanzees live in central Africa. They eat fruit and leaves. Adult chimpanzees weigh 40 to 50 kilos. They are very intelligent animals.

Ask for volunteers to write these sentences up on the board. Correct them if necessary. Then, telling the learners to use the sentences on the board as patterns, get them to work in pairs and write a parallel composition about some other animal, for example, kangaroos. You could then ask them to write compositions for homework about animals of their choice. Similar work could be done about cities (to practice 'There is/are') or famous people (to practice the Simple Past).

- Parallel letters

Get the learners to read a letter, consisting mostly of personal information, from someone looking for a pen pal. Then tell them to write a reply with their own personal information, following the format of the original letter. The first paragraph might state the purpose of the letter, the second and third might give personal information, and the last paragraph might be a request for a reply. Another letter could ask for information about things to see and do in their city, or for information about a specific hotel.

- Picture compositions

Get the learners to tell a simple story illustrated by a sequence of pictures.

Ask for volunteers to repeat the whole story from memory. Then get the learners to write the story in pairs or groups. It may be divided into three paragraphs – the beginning, the middle, and the end of the story.

### **Questions:**

1. Teaching English penmanship is not difficult. What is your opinion on the matter?
2. Spelling is one of the most difficult problems in teaching English. Do you agree? Give some examples to substantiate your opinion.
3. Why is writing an effective means in language learning? Give a few arguments to prove your answer.

### **Recommended Literature:**

Campbell, C. and H. Kryszewska. 1992. *Learner-based Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hedge, T. 1988. *Writing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

## ***LECTURE 13 Planning in Foreign Language Teaching***

### **THE NECESSITY FOR PLANNING AND THE APPROACH TO THE PROBLEM**

An efficient working level of teaching is ensured by systematic and careful planning. The foreign language teacher plans all the kinds of work he is to do: he plans the essential course, the optional course (if any), and the extra-curricular work.

The first step in planning is to determine where each of his classes is in respect to achievements. It is easy for the teacher to start planning when he receives beginners.

Though the teacher does not know his pupils yet, his success will fully depend on his preparation for the lessons since pupils are usually eager to learn a foreign language in the 5th form (or the 2nd form in a specialized school). Planning is also relatively easy for the teacher who worked in these classes the previous year (or years) because he knows the achievements of his pupils in each class. He is aware of what language skills they have acquired. Planning is more

difficult when the teacher receives a class (classes) from another teacher and he does not know the pupils, their proficiency in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing.

The teacher begins his planning before school opens and during the first week. He should establish the achievement level of his classes. There is a variety of ways in which this may be done. The teacher asks the previous teacher to tell him about each of the pupils. He may also look through 11 io pupils' test-books and the register to find out what mark etteli of his pupils had the previous year. The teacher may administer pre-tests, either formally or informally, to see how pupils do with them. He may also conduct an informal quizzing, asking pupils questions in the foreign language to know if they can understand them and respond properly, or he has a conversation within the topics of the previous year. After the teacher has determined the achievement level of his classes, he sketches out an outline of the year's work. In making up his yearly outline the teacher consults the syllabus, Teacher's Book, Pupil's Book, and other teaching materials and sets what seems to him to be realistic limits to the content to be covered during the course of the year. In sketching out an outline of the term's work the teacher makes a careful study of Teacher's Book, Pupil's Book, teaching aids and teaching materials available for this particular form. Taking into consideration the achievements of his class, he compiles a calendar plan in accordance with the time-table of a given form.

### UNIT PLANNING

The teacher needs two kinds of plans to work successes fully: the plan of a series of class-periods for a lesson or \ unit of the textbook or a unit plan, x and the daily plan or the lesson plan for a particular class-period.

In compiling a unit plan, i. e., in planning the lesson of the textbook, the teacher determines the difficulties of the lesson, namely, phonetic difficulties (sounds, stress, intonation); grammar difficulties (grammar items, their character and amount), and vocabulary difficulties (the amount of new words, their character).

He then distributes these difficulties evenly over the number of class-periods allotted to the lesson in the calendar plan.

1. The teacher starts by stating the objective or objectives of each class-period, that is, what can be achieved in a classroom lesson. Of course the long-term aims of the course help the teacher'to ensure that every particular lesson is pulling in the right direction and is another step towards gaining the ultimate goals of the course. "To help the class to speak English better", "To teach pupils to aud" or "To develop pupils' proficiency in reading" cannot be the objectives of the lesson because they are too abstract to be clear to the learners. The lesson objectives should be stated as precisely JS possibly.

Pupils "coming to the lesson should know what they are lo do during the lesson, what performance level is required of themj) and how it can be achieved. Here are a few examples:

—Teach pupils to understand the following words ...when hearing and to use them in sentences orally.

—Teach pupils to form new words with the help of the following suffixes ... and to use them in the situations given.

—Teach pupils to consult a dictionary to look up the meaning of the following words ....

—Teach pupils to recognize the international words ...when hearing (or reading).

—Teach pupils to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context while reading text “...”.

—Teach pupils to understand the statements in the Present Perfect and to use them in the following situations

—Teach pupils to ask and answer questions in the Present Perfect and to make up dialogues following the models

—Teach pupils to find the logical predicate in the sentences ... while reading following the structural signals.

—Teach pupils to speak about the following objects on utterance level (in a few sentences).

—Teach pupils to use the words and grammar covered in speaking about the places of interest in our town.

—Teach pupils to find topical sentences while reading text “...” silently.

—Teach pupils to get the main information while reading text “...”.

—Teach pupils to write an annotation on text “...”.

—Check pupils’ skill in reading and understanding an unfamiliar text using a dictionary.

—Check pupils’ ability in using the words covered in the following situations ... .

The teacher can state no more than three concrete objectives for a particular class-period depending on the stage of instruction, the material of the lesson, and some other factors

2. The teacher distributes the linguistic material (sounds, words, grammar, etc.) throughout the class-periods according to the objectives of each period, trying to teach new vocabulary on the grammatical material familiar to pupils, and to teach a new grammar item within the vocabulary assimilated by pupils; or he first teaches pupils hearing and speaking on the new material presented, and then pupils use this in reading and writing.

3. The teacher selects and distributes exercises for class and homework using various teaching aids and teaching materials depending on the objectives of each class-period. For example, for developing his pupils’ skill in dialogic speech within the material covered the teacher needs a record with a pattern dialogue, word cards for changing the semantic meaning of the pattern dialogue to make the structure of the dialogue fit new situations.

In distributing exercises throughout the class-periods the teacher should involve his pupils in oral practice and speech, in oral and silent reading, and in writing. Exercises which are difficult for pupils should be done under the teacher’s supervision, i. e., in class. Those exercises which pupils can easily perform independently are left for homework. In other words, new techniques, exercises, and skills should be practised in class before the pupil attempts them at home. The homework done, the pupils return to class for perfecting, polishing, expanding, and varying what they have practised at home, they learn to use the new words, the new structures in varied situations.

When the teacher determines the pupil’s homework he should take into account that the subject he is teaching though important and difficult is not the only one the pupil learns at school. The realities of schools militate against more than 20—30 minutes of everyday homework in a foreign language. This requires the teacher to teach in class rather than test. Practice proves that pupils do their homework provided they know exactly what to do, how it should be done, and that their work will be evaluated. Besides, pupils should know that six

twenty-minutes' work at their English on consecutive days is more effective than two hours at a stretch.

The unit plan, therefore, involves everything the teacher needs for the detailed planning of a lesson (class-period), namely: the objective (objectives) of each lesson, the material to work at, and the exercises which should be done both during the class-period and at home to develop pupils' habits and skills in the target language.

All this should be done by the teacher if there are no teacher's books (guides) to the textbooks, for example, if he works in a specialized or an evening school. If there are such books, the teacher's planning should deal with (1) the study of the author's recommendations and tabling the material so that he can see how hearing, speaking, reading, and writing should be developed, and (2) the development of these recommendations according to his pupils' abilities.

The teacher starts by studying the authors' recommendations. He takes the textbook and the teacher's guide and table the material. Let us take Lesson 22, Fifth Form English by S. K. Folomkina and E. I. Kaar for illustration.

The unit plan includes nine columns:

1. *The number of class-periods.* The authors plan four periods for Lesson 22.

2. *The objectives of each period.*

3. *Language material.* By language material we mean words, word combinations, phrases, and sentence patterns. In Lesson 22 there are six new words (April, May, June, speak, learn, dress), four word combinations (in the evening, that's right, that's not right, go swimming), and the following sentence patterns: Where do you go ...? Where does he (she) go ...? When do you go? When does he (she) go ...? What do you do? What does he (she) do ...? I can't read English. I can't (don't) skate either.

4—7. *Language skills.* In developing each language skill the authors observe the main didactic principles. For instance, they develop pupils' speaking (monologue) gradually, starting with the sentence level (1st period), then passing to the utterance level (2nd period), and finally, to the speech level both prepared (3rd period) and unprepared (4th period) within the material covered. Pupils develop writing habits and skills independently at home. They write only once in class; it is a dictation drill.

8. *Accessories.* While working at Lesson 22 the authors propose to use records twice (2nd and 3rd periods) for developing listening comprehension.

9. *Homework.* The authors plan pupils' independent work at home after every class-period. It is connected mainly with copying and writing. (By the latter we mean creative work on the part of the learner as in exercise 5: What you/ friend does at the English lesson? Write five sentences.) Besides, pupils read what they have read in class.

If we fill in all the columns of the table, we can see that Lesson 22 was well compiled. This allows the teacher to enrich pupils' knowledge and develop habits and skills in the target language. It also shows that recommendations given in the teacher's guide can ensure the gradual development of pupils' skills in speaking and reading and, therefore, their progress in language learning.

The teacher tries to adapt the unit plan to his pupils. He may either take it as it is and strictly follow the authors' recommendations, or he may change it a bit. For instance, if he has a group of bright pupils who can easily assimilate the material, the teacher may include some additional material or stimuli (pictures or objects) for the pupils' use in speaking within the same

four class-periods. This can be shown in column "Accessories". If the teacher has a group of slow pupils, he needs at least one more period to cover the material, since special questions with do, does are difficult for his pupils, he may use writing during the lesson and make pupils write down the questions in their exercise-books. Writing may help them in keeping the words and sentence patterns in memory. He may also increase the number of oral drill exercises and give pupils special cards to work on individually and in pairs. Thus the teacher includes word and sentence cards in column "Accessories".

The importance of unit plans cannot be overestimated since unit planning permits the teacher to direct the development of all language skills on the basis of the new linguistic material the lesson involves. He can lead his pupils from reception through pattern practice to creative exercises, and in this way perfect their proficiency in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. He can vary teaching aids and teaching materials within the class-periods allotted to the lesson. Unit planning allows the teacher to concentrate pupils' attention on one or two language skills during the lesson; in this case the class hour is divided into two main parts: a period of 20—25 minutes, during which he takes his pupils through a series of structural drills or other exercises supplied by the textbook, and a period of 20—25 minutes during which the teacher engages the class in creative exercises when they use the target language as a means of communication. The teacher should bear in mind that pupils lose rill interest in a language that is presented to them by means of endless repetitions, pattern practices, substitutions, and so on, and which they cannot use in its main function of exchange of information through hearing or reading. That is why, whenever possible, the teacher should make his pupils aware of the immediate values of his lessons if he hopes to keep and stimulate their interest in language learning which is very important in itself. When a pupil is convinced that learning is vital, he is usually willing to work hard to acquire a good knowledge of the target language. It is well known that some pupils see little value in much of their school work in a foreign language and feel no enthusiasm for their work at the language. Careful unit planning helps the teacher to keep pupils' progress in language learning under constant control and use teaching aids and teaching materials more effectively and, in this way, make his classes worthwhile to all of his pupils.

### **PLANNING A CLASS-PERIOD**

The unit plan completed the teacher may move into planning a class-period or a daily plan which, in addition to what has been determined by the unit plan, indicates the ways the teacher will follow to organize his class to work during the lesson. Therefore the daily plan includes (1) what should be achieved during this particular lesson, (2) what material is used for achieving the objectives, and (3) how the objectives should be achieved.

Since almost every teacher has several classes of one level he usually makes preparations for each level although, ideally, a separate plan is needed for each class because classes proceed at different speed, thus he must make adaptations in his plans to compensate for varying speeds of progress in the classes of the same level.

The teacher should write his daily plans if he strives for effective and reasonable use of time allotted to his pupils' learning a foreign language. However some teachers, including novice teachers, do not prepare written plans. They claim Iliat they can teach "off the top of their heads", and they really can, but their teaching usually results in poor pupils' language skills



because in this case we have “teacher-dominated” classes when the teacher works hard during the lesson while his pupils remain mere “observers” of the procedure. Indeed, when the teacher is standing in front of pupils he does not have much time to think how to organize his pupils’ activity. This should be done before the lesson for the teacher to be able to stimulate and direct pupils’ learning the language. We may state that the effectiveness of pupils’ desired learning is fully dependent on the teacher’s preparation for the lessons. If the teacher is talking, reading, and writing a great deal himself during the lesson, he is not ready for it. And vice versa, if the teacher gets his pupils to talk or read with communicative assignments while he listens, or to write while he moves about the class, giving a helping hand to everyone who needs it, he has thoroughly thought over the plan of the lesson beforehand. Therefore we may conclude: to provide necessary conditions for pupils’ learning a foreign language, the teacher should thoroughly plan their work during the lesson which is possible if he writes his daily plan in advance.

There are teachers who strictly follow the textbook and accept plans that others have made for them without any changing. In doing this they overlook the unique capacities of their particular classes. They race through the textbook covering the ground regardless of whether pupils master each section.

Some experienced teachers assume that the content of foreign language teaching is constant and as they have worked for many years they do not need daily plans; they have them in their minds. In reality, however, the content changes continuously as well as the methods and techniques of teaching. Moreover, the old plans which are in their minds may not suit the needs of a particular class, since each group of pupils is unique, or they may no longer be applicable because better and more effective teaching aids and teaching materials have appeared. Consequently, proceeding from these considerations the teacher needs a daily plan to provide a high level of language learning of his pupils.

One lesson may require a detailed plan; for another lesson a brief outline will suffice. In any case, a workable form for a daily plan should state the objectives, specify the activities (oral practice, reading, writing, etc.), include evaluation techniques, indicate the assignment, and determine teaching aids and teaching materials. The plan itself should (1) be brief, but with sufficient detail to be precise;

(2) assign a definite number of minutes to each activity;

(3) indicate exactly what words, phrases, facts, items are to be learnt and how; (4) make use of a variety of classroom activity for every pupil.

In the organization and conduct of a foreign language lesson there is always a wide range of possibilities. No two teachers will treat the same topic in the same way. There are, however, certain basic principles or teaching and learning which should be observed:

1. Every lesson should begin with a greeting in the foreign language and a brief talk between the teacher and the pupils. Through this conversation the lesson may be motivated.

The conversation may take place between:

Teacher — Class

Teacher — Pupil on duty

Pupil on duty — Class Two Pupils on duty

The foreign language should be used for all common classroom activities; the teacher manages the class activities by giving directions in the foreign language. He stimulates pupils’

participation by asking questions, praises and encourages pupils from time to time, and he may also criticize the behaviour of a pupil or a class.

2. There should be a variety of activities at every lesson, including pronunciation drill, oral activities, reading, and writing. The success of activity is measured by attention, enthusiasm, and involvement on the part of the pupils.

3. The lesson should be conducted at a high speed when oral drill exercises are performed. Pupils should not stand up to say a word, a phrase, or a sentence.

4. The lesson should provide a certain sequence in pupils' assimilating language material and developing habits and skills from perception, comprehension, and memorizing, through the usage in a similar situation following a model, to the usage of the material received in new situations that require thinking on the part of the learner.

5. The lesson should provide time for the activity of every pupil in the class. They must be active participants of the procedure and not the teacher as is often the case when the teacher talks more than all the pupils.

6. The lesson should provide conditions for pupils to learn. "Language is a skill so it must be learnt, it cannot be taught" (M. West). A certain amount of time should be devoted to seatwork as opposed to activities involving the class as a whole. During seatwork and other forms of solitary study pupils learn to learn for themselves. The use of language laboratories, teaching machines, and programmed instruction creates necessary conditions for each pupil to learn for himself.

7. The work done during the lesson should prepare pupils for their independent work at home. It is generally accepted as good practice not to assign exercises that have not been covered in class; this especially refers to early stages of language learning.

8. The lesson should be well equipped with teaching aids and teaching materials which allow the teacher to create natural situations for developing pupils' hearing and speaking skills in a foreign language.

### **Questions for Discussion:**

1. Planning is a necessary prerequisite for effective teaching. Say why.

2. Unit planning not only saves the teacher's time for compiling daily planning but also makes allowance for developing various skills within the time allotted to a certain unit. Do you agree? Confirm your statement.

3. Since classes are different, daily plans should be adapted to each particular class. What is your opinion on the subject?

Activities:

1. Examine current foreign language textbooks and say how the authors plan the teacher's work at a lesson (unit).

2. Analyse one of the lessons in the Pupil's Book and determine the difficulties of the lesson. Compare your analysis with the one given in the Teacher's Book.

## LECTURE 14 LESSON PLANNING

### Plan

1. Lesson planning
2. Class management
3. Getting attention and participation
4. Giving and checking instructions

For truly professional teachers, lesson planning is not optional, it is essential preparation for teaching. It is a matter of deciding exactly what you are going to teach, and how. Unless you establish your objectives and activities in this way, you may find yourself just going mechanically through the textbook, or trying to improvise whole lessons. Such approaches usually produce poor results, although some improvisation and flexibility is good, even essential, in teaching. Learners can easily notice the difference between teachers who plan and those who do not. And if their teacher does not make an effort, why should they?

To begin your lesson plan, decide where the lesson fits into your week's work plan or teaching cycle. Then establish specific objectives for the lesson. These will largely be determined by the phase in the teaching cycle.

Here are some examples of lesson objectives:

- To present and achieve controlled production of a new grammatical-functional item.
- To achieve guided communicative use of a new item.
- To achieve the communicative use of a mixed range of language in writing.
- To promote the learners' confidence in the conversational use of English.
- To develop comprehension of public announcements.

You can develop your objectives and the activities to achieve them using the recommendations in the appropriate sections of this book, for example, Lecture 8 for the presentation of new functional-grammatical items, and Lecture 12 for the development of speaking skills. The activities and materials should be appropriate for your objectives, and also for your specific group of learners. When deciding on appropriate activities and materials, take into account the learners' age, interests, and abilities. Calculate the approximate time for each activity so that you do not end up doing only half of what you planned, or having no plan for the last quarter of the lesson. And remember that there needs to be a variety of activity and interaction, for example, between lockstep, pairwork, groupwork, and individual work.

The main elements and considerations in the plan are:

- Clear stages: warm-up (1); lead-in (2); main activity (3); follow-up (4); and wind-down (5)—and smooth transitions between them.
- A unifying theme, running through the conversation, listening, and writing activities.
- Appropriate relationships between objectives, activities, materials, and procedures.
- Attention to both the communicative use of English and formal correctness in the language, i.e. fluency and accuracy.
- Consideration of the learners' interests and the learning conditions, as well as the grammatical-functional items in the syllabus.

The stages and transitions give a comfortable flow to the lesson. Each stage requires different behaviour from the teacher, a different level of effort from the learners, and changes in pace. A spare activity—for example, a game or quiz—could have been included at the end in case the lesson went faster than anticipated. The learners are provided with enough input—photos, a model conversation on cassette, and a poster—to get them going, but they are also

given the opportunity to use their personal experience in realistic tasks. The interest of the topic and tasks, the changes of activity and interaction, and the relatively relaxed pace, should help the learners through this late class— 8.00 to 9.00 in the evening.

Obviously, lesson plans need to vary according to the age and level of the learners, the objectives, the time of day, and even the time of year. Young learners need more changes of activity and more physical activity.

### **Class management**

You cannot plan everything that will happen in a lesson. You need strategies to respond to actual events, including unexpected ones. But if the learners have become accustomed to certain patterns of behaviour, your classes will run more smoothly.

#### ***Getting attention and participation***

It is unrealistic and undesirable to expect the learners to pay attention to you throughout a lesson. But you should be able to get their attention fairly quickly when you need it. If, for example, you cannot get everybody's attention when giving instructions or explanations, serious problems may result. You may find yourself explaining something over and over again to individuals or groups of learners. At worst, the lesson may even disintegrate into chaos. Shouting louder and louder is seldom an effective solution. And it is bad for your relationship with the learners, your general mood, and of course, your voice. You need to train the learners to respond to a range of non-verbal signals, for example:

- Stand with your hand raised until you have total silence and everybody's attention. You can train the learners to raise their hands too, and attend to you as soon as they see you with your hand raised.
- Signal that one or more learners should come to the front of the class. This tends to make the others curious.
- Point at your watch to indicate that you are about to end an activity.

Interest is usually the best way to attract and hold attention, and to get voluntary participation. Classroom atmosphere is also very important. You can compel participation in lockstep practice with your questions (for example, 'What's the capital of France . . . Mario?') and instructions (for example, 'Question . . . Sandra, answer . . . Robert'). But voluntary participation in lockstep work, and more especially in pair and groupwork, will usually be poor unless the topics interest the learners, and you encourage rather than criticize them.

#### ***Giving and checking instructions***

Effective instructions are vital if activities are to go well, especially activities involving changes of interaction, for example, from lockstep to pairwork. A communicative approach to language teaching requires some quite complicated activities and interactions, and this means you need to have all the learners' attention when giving instructions. You need to train them to be quiet and listen very carefully. This is especially the case if you are giving instructions in English.

Think about both what you are going to say, and how you are going to say it. Instructions should be simple and clear, and, as far as possible, standardized. Try always to use the same type of instructions and language for the same type of routine activities. However, especially with elementary learners, even simple, clear, familiar language is not always sufficient to get complex messages across. The learners may need a demonstration of the activity as well.

#### ***Managing pair and groupwork***

There are, it is true, difficulties and risks associated with pair and groupwork, for example:

- the learners may be confused about the task and not do it properly

- the noise level may rise (though seldom more than in choral repetition)
- the learners may start talking about whatever they like in their LI
- the learners may make and repeat many errors
- you may not be able to get the learners' attention again and lose control of the class.

However, you can usually avoid these potential problems by careful preparation and organization, and by progressively training the learners to participate fully and effectively. If these things are done, the advantages of pair and groupwork far outweigh the drawbacks. For example, they provide:

- variety and dynamism
- an enormous increase in individual practice
- low-stress private practice
- opportunities to develop learner autonomy interaction

**Questions:** Since classes are different, daily plans should be adapted to each particular class. What is your opinion on the subject?

### **Recommended Literature:**

Campbell, C. and H. Kryszewska. 1992. *Learner-based Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Nuttall, C. 1996. *Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language*. Oxford: Heinemann.

Nolasco, R. and L. Arthur. 1987. *Conversation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Longman, Ur, P. 1981. *Discussions that Work*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ur, P. 1984. *Teaching Listening Comprehension*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wallace, C. 1992. *Reading*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. White, G. 1998. *Listening*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Williams, E. 1984. *Reading in the Language Classroom*. London and Basingstoke: Macmillan.

## **LECTURE 15**

### **TEACHING TESTING AND EVALUATION**

#### Plan

1. Teaching, testing, and evaluation
2. Teaching and testing
3. Testing and evaluation
4. Basic aspects of testing
5. Types of test

No important enterprise should just go on and on without some kind of evaluation. Teaching and learning are no exception. A lot of thought and effort are usually put into testing 'the learners' or 'learning', but it is important to think beyond that.

#### ***Teaching and testing***

There is an intimate relationship between teaching and testing, but they are not the same thing. Unfortunately, some teachers convert teaching into a kind of continuous test. For example, the following excerpt from a 'conversation' session:

Teacher	Where did you go in the holidays, Sofia?
Learner 1	I didn't go anywhere.
Teacher	Very good, very good. And you, Giovanni. Where did you go?

Learner 2 I go to Scotland. Teacher No, no, Giovanni, no.

This is a very strange conversation. The teacher seems to be happy that Sofia did not go anywhere in the holidays, and he does not seem to believe that Giovanni went to Scotland. Of course, what the teacher is doing is responding only to the *language* of the learners' replies, not the *information*. He indicates that Sofia's sentence is linguistically 'Very good', but Giovanni's sentence is not. It is not real conversation practice at all.

Obviously, you do need to deal with errors like Giovanni's, but as much of your teaching as possible should be directed towards building up the learners' ability and confidence in using English for effective communication. Especially when you are trying to develop fluency, it is very important that the learners should not feel that they are being tested all the time. If they do, they will become more inhibited and never achieve fluency. Most teaching should not be testing, and should not be seen as a test by the learners. But you should be evaluating the learners' performance and progress—and your own teaching—constantly. Evaluation is essential in teaching.

### ***Testing and evaluation***

The two concepts *testing* and *evaluation* are expressed by the same word in many languages. However, the distinction that is conveyed by the two different words in English is important. Evaluation is a more general concept than testing. You can evaluate teaching, teaching materials, and even tests, as well as learning. Also, learning can be evaluated in several different ways, not only with the formal tests that you give the learners.

If the teacher of the 'conversation' session above had not focused exclusively on the language of the learners' replies, he might have been able to evaluate their progress much better:

Teacher Where did you go in the holidays, Sofia?

Learner 1 I didn't go anywhere.

Teacher You stayed here in Milan?

Learner 1 Yes, I just played with my friends.

Teacher "Well, that's always good fun. [*Teacher's evaluation: Sofia is doing very, very well!*] And you, Giovanni. Where did you

Learner 2 I go to Scotland.

Teacher That's great! You went with your family, I suppose.

Learner 2 No, I go . . . I went with the family of a friend.

Teacher I see. OK, everyone—ask Giovanni questions about his trip to Scotland.

[*Teacher's evaluation: Giovanni understands very well, and gets his ideas across, but he is erratic with grammar. I must do some remedial work on the Past Tense.*]

A test is normally carefully designed for a specific purpose, while some evaluation may be spontaneous and handled very flexibly. A test normally consists of one or more exercises or tasks, each with clear objectives. The evaluation of learning usually employs formal tests, but it may also include other options, one of which is demonstrated above. When the evaluation of learning is based on class participation, progress tests, homework, and projects rather than final tests alone, the term 'assessment' or 'continuous assessment' is often used.

However, tests continue to be the main instruments for evaluation of learning in most teaching situations. They are part of the reality of the classroom everywhere. For these reasons, this chapter focuses mainly on tests and testing.

### **Basic aspects of testing**

#### ***Types of test***

The purpose of English language tests is to gather reliable evidence of what learners can do in English and what they know of English. This information may be required for different reasons, and these reasons govern the t

used. There are five common types of test, each with a specific purpose. These are Placement test, Diagnostic test, Progress test (short-term achievement tests), Course tests (longer-term achievement tests), Proficiency tests.

As we said in the first section of this chapter, evaluation in teaching English should be much more than giving tests to learners. Achieving improvement in teaching English is a matter of evaluating and developing syllabuses, materials, and teaching as well as testing. And real language learning is more than the ability to do test exercises and tasks. It is important to remind yourself again and again that not only learning needs to be evaluated. When satisfactory learning is obviously not taking place, teachers sometimes blame the learners, but it may not be their fault at all. There may be something wrong with the teaching, the testing, the course design or the way the courses are administered. Evaluation should really apply to the work of everyone in an educational institution, not just the learners.

#### *Evaluating learning*

Although they are useful, tests are only one way of evaluating learning. It is important to remember that you can also note how effectively the learners communicate in free conversation and groupwork, how well they use the language in homework compositions, and even ask them for their own impression of their progress. If it is possible where you teach, it is a good idea to combine 'teacher's impression' (i.e. your evaluation of each learner's overall performance during the course) with formal test results, for example, seventy per cent tests combined with thirty per cent teacher's impression.

#### *Evaluating teaching*

Learners' test results are one way to evaluate teaching. Good results should reflect good teaching, but the results are only as valid and reliable as the tests. Tests low in validity and/or reliability will give a false impression of teaching. In some institutions the learners take external proficiency tests at certain stages. These results are usually both reasonably valid and reliable. An institution or teacher with many learners getting increasingly good marks in the TOEFL tests, or passing successive levels of the UCLES exams can feel very satisfied.

But tests are not everything. Learners' opinions should also be taken into account. To some extent you can see their opinions on their faces and in their behaviour. But you can also give adults and even adolescents a simple, anonymous questionnaire.

### ***Project***

#### **Developing course tests**

*Purpose:* to develop the ability to produce, evaluate, and improve course tests.

*Procedure:*

1. Select a textbook that you use now or might use in the future.
2. Study the contents up to a convenient point (for example, up to and including a review unit). If you are using the book now, choose a point that you will soon reach in the course.
3. Select four or five exercises that you consider cover the main points in the course up to that stage, and that are suitable for a test (for example, not repetitive structure drills).
4. Write the test, using parallel or similar exercises to those you have selected.

If you are able to give the test to a group of learners, do so and then analyse the results. Note which exercises and items in them the majority of the learners got right and which they got wrong. Consider how you would modify the test in its next version. If you are not able to give the test, leave it for a week without looking at it. Then go through it considering how it would seem to a real learner at that level and what changes might be appropriate.

#### **Recommended Literature:**

Heaton, J. B. 1990. *Classroom Testing*. Harlow: Longman.

Hughes, A. 1989. *Testing for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rea-Dickins, P. and K. Germaine. 1992. *Evaluation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

**Questions:** What is the difference between testing and evaluation? What are the types of tests? Which one do you prefer to use? Why?

**Recommended Literature:**

Heaton, J. B. 1990. *Classroom Testing*. Harlow: Longman.

Hughes, A. 1989. *Testing for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rea-Dickins, P. and K. Germaine. 1992. *Evaluation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.