

METHODS OF DEVELOPING HEARING-SPEAKING SKILLS

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Before proceeding to outline the methodology of grammatical and lexical skill formation, it is necessary to consider two general issues concerning the work at this stage. The formation of a skill with all its inherent qualities, especially automaticity, stability, flexibility and relative complexity, requires certain conditions. Since conditions are created in exercises, it becomes clear that special exercises are necessary for the formation of speech skills. These exercises must meet certain requirements derived from the principles of the communicative method.

It is legitimate to divide all the requirements into two types: stable, i.e., those to which exercises of this category must always meet, and variable, the observance of which is conditioned by methodological expediency depending on different factors of learning.

A. Stable requirements.

1. The presence of the speaker's speech task: "Inquire.", "Confirm if you agree...", etc., which provides conditional motivation of the speech act.

2. Situationality, i.e. correlation of each replica with the situation as a system of interlocutors' relations.

3. The predominant focus of the learner's arbitrary attention on the purpose and content of the utterance, rather than on its form.

4. Fusion of the three sides of speaking.

5. Modelling of speech communication in each of the elements of the exercise: the combination of lines as an element of the exercise is the product of a conditioned situation.

6. Communicative value of phrases.

7. Time efficiency of the exercise.

8. Sufficient number of similar phrases and actions.

10. Provision of relative error-free actions of the learner.

11. monolinguality of the exercises.

B. Varying requirements

1. Combining isolated learnt phenomena (the stage of combination, where the stability of the skill is formed).

2. Differentiated assimilation of phenomena.

3. Thematic, logical connection of phrases (elements of the exercise).

4. Simplicity and brevity of the first lines.

5. Presence of the given language material.

6. Presence of instructions for operations with the material. [1, c.28]

Note that the varied requirements should be understood as optional: they are used not by choice, but by necessity.

If from the point of view of the listed requirements we evaluate those exercises which are usually used as preparatory, training, etc., it will become quite clear: they do not meet the necessary requirements.

B. Rivers wrote: "In order for the transfer to real life from the teaching process to be truly successful, the work in the classroom should simulate as closely as possible the conditions of real language communication".

Such work takes place in conditional speech exercises, which will be briefly described further on. They are fundamentally different from any kind of training exercises, because they simulate what takes place in real speech communication. What are the principles of their argumentation?

Any phrase in the process of communication has a certain logical context, which can be revealed by replicas of only certain content. If, for example, you hear from your interlocutor:

"Well, I don't want to go there, and that's all!", you will certainly not want to surprise him with the phrase: "And my dog is missing", most likely you will react: "And where do you have to go?", etc.

Of course, the range of logical context of any phrase is quite wide. However, the same statement may cause different reactions (replicas) due to many circumstances. But the exercise can be specially organised so that the replica contains exactly the form that needs to be automated. In other words, the logical context should open in one direction necessary for automating the speech unit. To do this, it is only necessary to change the form of the usual setting in exercises, settings such as: "Form the form of the imperative mood", "Put the following sentences in the past tense", "Fill in the blanks with words according to the meaning", etc. After all, the speaker never sets himself such tasks. He may want to induce the interlocutor to act and then use the imperative mood; he may want to enquire whether the action took place in the past and for this purpose put the verb in the past tense, etc. Therefore, it is necessary to formulate attitudes in such a way that they express any of the many stimuli that encourage us to speak out in the process of real communication. [2, c. 87]

Instead of the usual "Form the form of the imperative mood" you can say, "Do you advise me to do what I refuse to do?"

- I don't want to see this film.
- You should definitely watch it (it's great).
- No, I won't.
 - I don't like visiting the zoo.
- Go there by all means (it's very interesting).
- Maybe.
- I don't want to read this book.
- Read it by all means (it is interesting)
- Good, etc.

Each student's utterance is conditioned by a desire to give advice. The focus is on a speech task rather than a formal-grammatical task. Of course, this task is conditional to a certain extent. However, if the exercise is carried out properly, the student interlocutor "takes up the game": the "imposed" speech task becomes his or her own. If the teacher's remarks are vital, correspond to the interests of students, the conventionality immediately falls away. [3, p. 154]

Try saying, "I'll tell you what I usually do, and you wonder if I've done it before" instead of "Put the sentences in the past tense," and you'll see with what interest the students will respond to your remarks.

- Every night I read a little bit.
- Did you read yesterday, too?
- Yes, of course I did.
- I do exercise every day.
- Did you do it today?
- Absolutely
- I usually take a walk before I go to bed.
- Did you take a walk yesterday, too?
- Why not?

As in the first example, the pupils' interest is aroused by the possibility of fulfilling the speech task, and the automatised forms are only a means of fulfilling the task.

Thus, the first principle of constructing conditional-speech exercises is the principle of fulfilment of the speaker's speech task as an attitude. Putting the speech task in the foreground will create conditions in the exercise that are adequate to speech conditions, i.e. the basis for transfer, will change the nature of the student's actions of imitation, substitution, etc., which will really be speech actions rather than language operations, will ensure the comprehensiveness of learning the lexical, grammatical and pronunciation aspects of speech activity.

The presence of a speech task, however, is not enough to automate a certain form. After all, performing the same speech task, a pupil can clothe an utterance in different forms. For example, in the "Agree with me if I am right" task, the reactions may be:

- I didn't like that film.
- I didn't like it either.
- Yes, it's a bad film.

If the aim is to learn the endings of adjectives, option No. 2 is suitable, not No. 1. Therefore, the exercise should be organised in such a way that the grammatical form that is being automated all the time is used in the pupils' remarks and that they are homogeneous in this respect.

The second principle of constructing conditional speech exercises - the principle of analogy in the formation and learning of grammatical forms - serves this purpose. It means that when performing a speech task, the pupil constructs his/her lines by analogy with the sample, usually presented in the teacher's speech or on the blackboard. The sample is gradually collapsed and due to this interest; a sense of form appears, on the basis of which the person then in speech and constructs this form instantly. If the first principle provides the functional side of speech, the second provides its formal side. [4, p. 78].

But form and function in conditioned-speech exercises are learnt not separately, not sequentially, but in parallel. However, on the first plane of consciousness is the speech task, the design of speech proceeds in the second plane. Such a process is characterised by the fact that form is not learned in isolation from its function, but on the contrary, in close connection with it, at its expense.

Therefore, it is legitimate to put forward the third principle - the principle of parallel assimilation of form and function with the leading role of the latter.

It is important to note that for the formation of lexical skills the second principle will be superfluous (for obvious reasons).

There are many types of conditional speech exercises (CSE), which are classified by composition, by setting and by the way they are performed. Since the most important for the formation of a skill is the action that the pupil performs in the exercise (the way of performing it), we will show the classification of CRMs according to this criterion.

1) Imitative DRM, in which the student finds language forms, lexical units in the teacher's replica (in the sample) and uses them without changing them in order to fulfil the speech task. For example: "Confirm if it is so."

- Is Ivanov a good student?
- Yes, he is a good student.

2) Substitution URU, in which lexical units are substituted into the structure of some grammatical form. For example: "If I am wrong, contradict me".

- You have a small flat.
- What you. I have a big flat.

Here in the word combination "adjective + noun" the first component is replaced. This can be aimed both at automatising, say, the endings of adjectives (as in this case) and at mastering the combinability of lexical units. Another example: "Take an interest in the quality of what I'm going to say."

- Yesterday we had a lecture.
- Was it an interesting lecture?
- Not very much.

From the point of view of automating the endings of adjectives, this is a substitution exercise, because here, too, substitution takes place, but in a potentially possible word combination. For the formation of lexical skills, however, this exercise is reproductive. 3) Transformational DRMs, in which students transform the interlocutor's utterance (or part of it) to fulfil a speech task, which is expressed in changing the word order, person or tense of a verb, case or number of a noun, etc. For lexical skills, transformation can be expressed by conveying the same content in other words. For example: "Give my words to my comrade.

- I don't read detectives.
- He says he doesn't read detectives.

4) Reproductive DRMs, when performing which it is supposed to reproduce in the pupils' replicas those forms or lexical units learnt in the previous exercises. If earlier the pupil reproduced relying either entirely on the sample (in imitative), or on a similar form (in substitution), or on a similar form (in transformation), here the reproduction is already completely independent. For example: "Guess. Yesterday in the department store I bought something.- A new suit? - No, a beautiful mackintosh.

Another example: "Make a remark to the person you are talking to if you think they are doing the wrong thing." I usually eat lunch at 6:00 or 7:00. That's not good. You can't eat lunch that late. [5, v. 65].

All four types, performed in the specified sequence, represent a set of DRMs, used usually for mastering some single form or group of lexical units. Depending on many factors (material, audience, level of learning, etc.) the complex can be modified both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Since the techniques of working with URU are fundamentally different from the techniques of working with other exercises and, moreover, sometimes play a decisive role in their effectiveness, let us describe in thesis form the main points of the technology of work.

1) When starting to work with SRM for the first time, it is necessary not only to explain the essence of these exercises to students. But also to demonstrate their performance. The main thing is to make the pupils realise that they are not "doing exercises", but reacting, talking, communicating. Therefore, they should try to behave "speech-like" accordingly

2) The instructions are first given in the native language, foreign equivalents are introduced gradually.

3) Before performing an exercise (not every exercise, of course) it is necessary to work out its expressive side: logical emphasis, emotional colouring, etc. Otherwise, the exercise "falls apart" because the partners lose speech contact.

4) To make the lines more natural, conversational stamps and clichés are gradually introduced.

5) Since it is difficult for the teacher to memorise all his lines in all the exercises, small cards are prepared, where the settings and reference words for each exercise are marked. The most important point is for the teacher to be able to use them casually as memory supports rather than as material for reading his/her lines. There will be no dialogue with a reading companion.

6) One exercise consisting of 8-10 elements (micro-dialogues) should not take more than two minutes. The total duration of work with URM depends on the level of education and ranges from 15 to 30 minutes.

7) It is possible and desirable to organise URM work in such a way that the speaking time is almost entirely given to the students. This requires special handouts - cards with illustrations.

In addition to the above-mentioned provisions, there are at least three others on which the very existence of the OCR depends without exaggeration. The experience of their application has shown that some teachers believe that if they have given a speech setting, then it is already an URM. [4] In fact, the use of a speech task alone, without other factors, often leads to formalism: formal "communication" seems to be present, "interlocutors" confirm, refute, ask, etc. But it is not by chance that we have put the words "communication" and "interlocutors" in inverted commas, for in reality this is only the outer shell of communication. What factors are in mind?

1) The psychological readjustment of the teacher to a new way of working. First of all, the teacher must realise that the process of teaching is communication, albeit conditional, regulated by the needs of teaching, but communication. This understanding determines all his behaviour.

2) Situational conditionality of remarks. For example, if the instruction is given: "If you agree to do what you are asked to do, say so", followed by the cue "Help him, please!", it is not clear to the pupil who and what he should help. Therefore, it is necessary to preface the given cue with another one:

Petya can't understand the text. Help him!

- All right, I'll help him.

Sometimes the situational correlation cannot be created by a cue, then it is necessary to resort to illustrated visuals. For example: "Am I right or am I wrong?"

- (Showing a picture) This room doesn't look cosy to me.

- No! It's very cosy.

- Maybe.

1) Credibility of the lines. If what is being said is untrue to the speaker, even conditional communication is out of the question. For example, a teacher hands out books to students and gives the task: "Advise me to read this or that book and justify it". Great assignment. But...the students didn't read those books. It is true that they learnt how to advise in general, to justify their advice, but in relation to this book this advice will be a lie, not a convention. [6, v. 65]

All replicas in the URM should be calculated on the personality of the learner, on his actual life experience.

In conclusion, a few words about the levels of ARM. Above we have distinguished four types of ODR by the way of their fulfilment. These are the types of ODRMs of the second level - ODRM2. However, it is also possible to perform the first level of ORM - ORM1. This is a lower level of orality, because in URM1 there is only a speech task, but there is no real situational reference: besides, the utterance is completely conditioned by content, and the supports are visual, verbal. An example of an ORM can be a special substitution table, which has one functional orientation in terms of content and is equipped with an instruction of the following type: "Imagine that you need to ask your interlocutor to do something". The interlocutor is provided with another task card: "Imagine that you promise to do what you are asked to do". The work is done in pairs using special handouts. It is preparatory for special cases (for some students) and should take a minimum of the automation process.

Conclusions on the above data;

1. Thus, communication, which as one of the leading types of human activity fulfils the functions of teaching, learning, development and education, is called to fulfil these functions and in communicative teaching of a foreign language. In this case, communication serves as: 1) a channel through which cognition is carried out, 2) a means that develops individuality, 3) a tool for the education of necessary personality traits, 4) a way of transferring experience and developing the ability to communicate.

2. The communicative system of teaching is built in a reversible way: first the final product (goal) is outlined, and then the tasks that can lead to this result are defined. This approach provides systematic learning with all its inherent qualities - integrity, hierarchy, purposefulness.

The process of teaching foreign language culture, built on a communicative basis, expands the possibility of the subject in solving this task. Communicative teaching is personality-oriented and is built in such a way that pupils' direct activity, their experience, outlook, academic and extracurricular interests and inclinations, their feelings are not left outside the school, but are taken into account when organising communication in the classroom. Teaching is based not on passing through academic topics and studying ready-made texts, but on discussing actual life problems. Pupils are given the opportunity to discuss their own deeds and actions, current events in the life of the class, school, town and country, and to justify and defend their own opinions.

In communicative teaching, children learn communication techniques, master speech etiquette, strategies and tactics of dialogue and group communication, learn to solve various communicative problems, to be speech partners.

In communicative teaching the development of thinking is carried out not so much by comparison with the native language, but by solving constantly complicating speech and thinking tasks of different problem levels, reflecting the content of the communication process. Thus, the cognitive and communicative function of communication is developed.

3. The communicative method for the first time put forward the position that communication should be taught only through communication. However, the importance of communication as a kind of human activity is not limited to this function. Especially when the main purpose of teaching

is to master a foreign language as a means of forming the personality of the student. In this case, communication can also be used as a channel of education, cognition and development.

4. According to philosophers, sociologists, psychologists, communication is a social process in which there is an exchange of activity, experience, mode of activity embodied in material and spiritual culture. Communication is one of the most important conditions for the formation of consciousness and self-consciousness of the individual, a stimulator of its development, a condition for the formation of its mental properties. A child's accession to the social and historical experience of mankind takes place only in communication with adults, with the teacher, with each other. It is communication that is the most important condition for proper upbringing.

5. Communicative teaching is built in such a way that all its content and organisation are permeated with novelty.

Novelty prescribes the use of texts and exercises that contain something new for students, the refusal of repeated reading of the same text or exercises with the same task, variation of texts with different content but built on the same material, constant variation of components of recreated situations, learning conditions, forms of speech utterances, tasks and methods of their fulfilment, etc. Thus, novelty ensures the rejection of arbitrary memorisation, develops speech production, heuristic and productive speech skills of students, generates interest in learning, cognitive and any other activity.

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