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## **РАЗЛИЧНЫЕ МЕТОДЫ ОБУЧЕНИЯ АНГЛИЙСКОМУ ЯЗЫКУ И ИСПРАВЛЕНИЕ ОШИБОК**

Задачи: 1) собрать языковой материал, необходимый для исследования; 2) обработка собранного языкового материала в целях работы; 3) изучить теоретическую литературу по исследуемой проблеме; 4) выбор методов исследования; 5) систематически описывать анализ; 6) предлагать конкретные результаты работы.

Открытие современных методов билингвального обучения и исправления ошибок и их эффективное применение является научной новизной данной работы.

Материал и результаты исследования могут быть использованы для обучения студентов и преподавателей методике преподавания английского языка. Надеемся, что сказанное, приведенные примеры доказаны на основе ценных материалов и будут полезны с точки зрения методики преподавания английского языка.

**Ключевые слова:** *приемы, обучение, исправление ошибок, английский язык*

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## **DIFFERENT TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING AND ERRORS CORRECTING IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

Tasks: 1) to collect linguistic material necessary for research; 2) processing the collected linguistic material for the purpose of the work; 3) study the theoretical literature on the investigated problem; 4) choosing methods of investigation; 5) describe the analysis in a systematic manner; 6) propose concrete results for the work.

The discovery of modern methods of bilingual teaching and error correction and their effective application is the scientific innovation of this work.

The material and results of this study can be used to teach English language teaching methodology to students and language teachers. We hope that what is said, the examples presented are proved on the basis of valuable materials and will be useful from the point of view of English language teaching methodology.

**Key words:** *techniques, teaching, errors correction, English language*

A language is many things –it is a system, a code, a set of conventions, a means of communication, to mention only a few. Teachers of any subject must have a clear idea of the subject they are teaching- not only the facts of the subject, but also an overall view of the nature of the subject. This is true for the language teacher as for any other teacher.

We have already expressed the view that learning is more important than teaching. Teaching should reflect the pupils' needs. It should also reflect the nature of the subject. Language is a complex phenomenon; it can be viewed as many different things. Good language teaching will reflect a variety of aspects of language.

Language can be seen in many ways, but for teaching purpose, three are particularly important –*vocabulary and structures are what is said; pronunciation, stress and intonation are how it is said, and function is why it is said.* Good teaching needs to take account of all three.

The words 'structure' and 'grammar' are often mixed up but there is an important difference in their meaning. In the spoken language, stress and intonation are part of grammar of the language and often contribute as much as structure to meaning:

A Is there anything else we need?                      A Milk and sugar?  
B Milk and sugar.    B Please.

Structures are frequently not equivalent from language and language. The same is also true of stress and intonation patterns and how language functions are realized in different languages. Unfortunately, we have already seen that language is much more than structure, so any syllabus based only on structure will have serious defects.

As soon as the use of language is introduced, the concept of level becomes more difficult:

1. The occurrence of many words the reader or listener does not know.
2. Reading a text, which is written in complex rather than simple sentences.
3. Reading a text in a particular style-newspaper headlines, official letters, and scientific reports.
4. Listening to a non-standard or unfamiliar accent.

5. The density of new language or new idea.
6. The length of the text, either written or spoken.

In addition to all of these factors, there is from the language-teaching point of view, the difficulty of the *task*, which the pupil asked to perform. There is for example, a difference between having to understand every word of a text, being able to give a general idea of its meaning, and being able to provide an accurate précis of it; there is a difference between having to understand all the detail of a recorded talk or dialogue and being able to answer a single question.

Traditional elementary language teaching material was always written specially. Language presented to pupils in the early stages of learning was specially 'processed' using structural criteria. As the level of course increased, structures that are more complicated were introduced and texts grew longer but overall, the tasks the pupils were asked to perform remained similar.

Modern methods suggest a wider concept of level is better. A clear distinction, for example, needs to be made between what pupils must produce and what they must understand. As soon as this is accepted, material, which is structurally beyond the pupils' productive level, may be introduced to practice understanding. This means the whole process of language learning can be made more natural-real materials; using natural language can be introduced into a course at a much lower level than would be possible if only structure criteria were considered. Pupils can be set real, simple, tasks based on authentic material.

Every classroom activity should have a specific linguistic purpose. All natural language use has purpose-to give information, to express emotion, to advance an argument, etc. Of course, there can be no absolute rules for the "best" order for presentation of the four skills (*listening, speaking, reading and writing*). In general, however, in the case of English where spelling is often confusing, the sequence above is usually best. It is interesting to note that this sequence is not the one employed in the most school systems, at least until recently. Many pupils started with written text, did written exercises, which encouraged their own writing skills, and only subsequently listened to the natural language and spoke themselves.

Consideration of how people learn their own language soon leads to the obvious primacy of listening. Some radical experiments have been done which suggest that it is possible to teach a language successfully while requiring very little of the productive skills from the pupils during the early stages of teaching. Carefully selected listening and reading passages, chosen so that the majority of the content will be comprehensible to the pupils, help acquisition and build the pupils' confidence in their ability to "manage" the foreign language.

These effects are seen later when pupils make better than average progress in the productive skills.

Writing a word on the blackboard before pupils say it can create unnecessary problems. Try to follow the pattern “*say then see*”.

Speaking a foreign language is a complex skill. Not surprisingly, language teachers try to simplify for their pupils. Sometimes, however, the process of simplification can be counter-productive. Very few interesting texts contain only one tense form and no natural conversation occurs in which the speakers concentrate entirely on structure and ignore intonation. In some ways, as soon as the language is dissected.

Sometimes the language teacher can justify dissecting what is happening. It may help to isolate a structure, to practice irregular forms, to repeat difficult sounds, etc. such activities, however, are a long way from ensuring that the pupils can understand and use the language. There is a danger that too much formal activity of this kind ensures that pupils can go through the “tricks” which are part of their examination, but which have little to do with developing their ability to use a foreign language naturally.

One of the principle ways the teacher moves in the direction of more highly motivating language teaching and teaching which is more likely to affect the pupils’ general ability to use the language, is to dissect and to pay more attention to setting pupils tasks which develop the skills necessary to find a solution. The tasks may be of many different kinds. The following are only a few examples:

1. Pupils can prepare a simple guide to their town or region. Why should they do this in English? - Ideally you should agree to stencil it then, for example, distribute it through the information centre or some of the larger hotels.

2. If pupils are studying a particular area in another subject, you can integrate the topic you are studying with what they are doing in, for example, history or physics. They can use English language material from the library to gather information relevant to their other subjects.

3. Individual pupils can be asked to complete a simple questionnaire, such as that given below, then pupils exchange questionnaires and report the results of each other’s to the whole class.

Some of the tasks mentioned may be performed in English, while others may be performed in a mixture of English and the pupil’s native language. It is not essential that such activities be performed exclusively in English-that is not the purpose of such activity. The tasks themselves are motivating and can only be done if pupils understand, and can use what they have read or heard in English. If they write or report in English this is a success.

Think of your first language-you learned it, without any effort, with nobody asking you to repeat or formally correcting you. In the most obvious way possible, you mastered a very difficult skill –you learned to speak your own language simply by listening to it. Second language learning is the best way to learn through good listening.

Of course you need to understand some and preferably most you hear; you need to be interested, and therefore involved. We have already remarked that you can be fully involved without necessarily talking very much-it is very important to realize that if your pupils are listening well, and are involved in what they are listening to you are benefitting them not only in developing their listening skills, but also their general language level.

If you speak your pupils will usually listen. If you want to encourage your pupils to use language, it obviously means that once you have introduced an activity and made clear what is wanted, you must be prepared to keep quite. There are several important implications: Do not interrupt pupils unnecessarily while they are preparing something.

Do not dominate discussions yourself.

Do not tell pupils what they want to say.

Do not use more language than is necessary to direct and control classroom activity.

Teachers keen to encourage their pupils to talk, often forget that silence also a valuable part to play in language lessons. Constant language is tiring; pupils need time to think, collect their thoughts, make notes, etc.

Silence is particularly desirable:

a. When pupils are doing something individually reading a text or explanation, completing an exercise, preparing a piece of work. If the teacher speaks during these activities, it breaks the pupils' concentration.

M. An individual is hesitating during an exercise, or looking for a word. Here, the teacher jumping in too soon makes the pupil lazy. The silent struggle to understand or recall is a natural part of language learning.

c. In discussion, the pupil sometimes needs time to formulate a thought and most important of all, if the teacher is constantly injecting ideas, pupils will soon sit back and expect the teacher to do the work.

Many teachers particularly in state schools may find colleagues and superiors who believe that the quiet class is the good class. Such a belief raises obvious difficulties if we are concerned to teach the spoken language.

If the standard teaching technique involves the teacher questioning individual pupils one by one, in every lesson no individual pupil will answer more than three questions each lasting a few seconds.

Effective language teaching means giving the pupils a chance to speak. Carefully organized 'noise' does not mean disorder or that time is being wasted.

Teaching situations are different. You may, for example, have to prepare pupils for particular examination so that some time must be spent on examination so that some time must be spent on examination techniques. All the teachers complain that they do not have enough time to do all the things they would like to do.

What does a teacher do? For many people this is the conventional image of a schoolroom-the teacher standing at the front of the class. This teaching style is often based on the assumption that the teacher is the 'knower' and has the task of passing over this knowledge to the pupils. This is probably done mainly by teacher explanations with occasional questions to or from the learners. There seems to be an assumption that having something explained or demonstrated to you will lead to learning. After these explanations, the pupils will often do some practice exercises to test whether they have understood what they have been told. Throughout the lesson the teacher keeps control of the subject matter, makes decisions about what work is needed. In many circumstances, teacher lecture or explanation may be an efficient method of informing a large number of people about a topic. Most teachers will need to be good 'explainers' at various points in their lessons, a teaching approach based solely or mainly on this technique can be problematic.

*Teacher A: the explainer*

Many teachers know their subject matter very well, but have limited knowledge of teaching methodology. This kind of teacher relies mainly on 'explaining' or 'lecturing' as a way of conveying information to the pupils. The pupils are listening, perhaps occasionally answering questions and perhaps making notes, but are mostly not being personally involved or challenged. The learners often get practice by doing individual exercises after one phase of the lesson has finished.

*Teacher B: the involver*

This teacher also knows the subject matter that is being dealt with. However, she is also familiar with teaching methodology; she is able to use appropriate teaching and organizational producers and techniques to help her pupils about the subject matter. This teacher is trying to involve the pupils actively and puts a great deal of effort into finding appropriate and interesting activities that will do this, while still retaining clear control over the classroom and what happens in it.

*Teacher C: the enabler*

Essentially teaching is about working with other human beings. This teacher knows about the subject matter and methodology, but also has awareness of how individuals and groups are thinking and feeling within her class. She actively responds to this in her planning and working methods and building effective working relationships and a good classroom atmosphere. Her own personality and attitude are an active encouragement to learning.

This kind of teacher is confident enough to share control with the learners or to hand it over entirely to them. Decisions made her classroom may often be shared or negotiated. The effective teacher...

- . really listens to his pupils
- . shows respect;
- . gives clear, positive feedback;
- . has a good sense of humour;
- . is patient;
- . knows his subject;
- . inspires confidence;
- . trusts people;
- . empathizes with pupils' problems;
- . is well organized;
- . does not complicate things unnecessarily;
- . is honest;
- . is approachable;

When a teacher has these qualities, the relationships within the classroom are likely to be stronger and deeper and communication between people much more open and honest. The learners are able to work with less fear of taking risks or facing challenges. In doing this they increase their own self-esteem and self-understanding, gradually taking more and more of the responsibility for their own learning themselves rather than assuming that it is someone else's job.

The conscientious teacher is concerned to teach well. The single most important factor to remember, however, is that teaching is not the terminal objective of what happens in the classroom. In the end, it is changes in the pupils' behavior upon which success and failure depend.

The ultimate test of "a good lesson" is not how the teacher performed but whether the pupils learned. Teachers who are constantly pre-occupied by their own role-what they should be doing and what their pupils think of them- are making a serious mistake. The most

important role of the teacher is that of catalyst-they help to make things happen, but the purpose is activating the pupils.

Few teachers have the time or opportunity to design their own courses. In the majority of cases a basic textbook is chosen and it is this which provides the practical classroom syllabus. Inevitably, teachers tend to follow the book, deciding in advance how they can spend on each unit so that they will finish the book in a certain time. But the object of the course is to teach the pupils, not finish the book!

#### Options, decisions and actions

The teacher's most important job might be 'to create the conditions in which learning can take place'. However, the teacher also needs certain organizational skills and techniques. Such items are often grouped together under the heading of 'classroom management'. Classroom management involves both decisions and actions. The actions are what is done in the classroom. The decisions are about whether to do these actions, when to do them, how to do them, who will do them, etc. At every point in the lesson the teacher has options. To say one thing or to say something different. To stop activity or to let it continue for a few more minutes. To take three minutes to deal with difficult question or to move on with what you had previously planned. These options continue throughout the lesson.

Here are few possible options:

You could say *Fine*.

You could ask loudly *Do it!*

You could ask why the pupil doesn't want to do it.

You could offer an alternative exercise or activity.

You could say *Choose something you'd like to do*.

You could explain the point of the exercise.

You could ask other pupils for their opinion.

You could stop the activity.

You could let it continue.

You could announce a time for finishing ( two more minutes).

You could ask the pupils how much longer they need.

All the pupils could move the desks.

A small number of pupils could move the desks while you give instructions to the others.

You could ask the pupils whether it is a good idea to move the desks.

You could tell the groups that have finished that they can chat or do something else while the other rest finish.

You could give the groups that have finished a short extra task to keep them busy until the rest finish.

You could set a time limit.

You could bring the groups that have finished together to compare their answers with each other.

You could invite the finishers to join other groups and help them or listen to them.

Becoming more effective teacher is partly a matter of increasing your awareness of what options are available. What influences and informs your decisions between different options? The following are some factors to bear in mind:

- . *What is the aim of the activity?*
- . *What have you planned to do?*
- . *What would be the best thing to do?*
- . *Are we using time efficiently?*
- . *How do the pupils feel?*

Classroom decisions and actions are also greatly determined by the teacher's own attitudes, intentions, beliefs and values.

Teaching a foreign language means primarily 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 which can be applied to teaching a foreign language. For example, N.I. Zhinkin, a prominent Russian psychologist in his investigation of the mechanisms of speech concluded that words and rules of combining them are most probably dormant in the kinetic center of the brain. When the ear receives a signal, it reaches the brain, its hearing center and then passes to the kinetic center. Thus, if a teacher wants his pupils to speak English he must use all the opportunities he has to make them hear and speak it. Furthermore, to master 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.

The teacher and the pupils carry on conversation in the foreign language.

Palmer distinguishes four stages in teaching and learning a foreign language: elementary, intermediate, advanced, and subsequent life, as H. Palmer says: "Learning a language has a beginning, but no ending." H. Palmer gives much attention to methods of

teaching in the first two stages. He says, "Take care of the initial stage, and the rest will take of them-selves."

Since, in his opinion, it is necessary to begin by teaching oral language, he works out most carefully the methods and techniques of teaching this aspect of speech activity.

In contrast to H. Palmer, M. West proposes to begin by teaching to read. In support a sequence in foreign language teaching: from reading-reception, to speaking-reproduction, M. West advances the following arguments:

1. In a country where the child must be bilingual and be brought into easy contact with culture it is necessary to begin by teacher to read. The essential need of the average bilingual child of a minor language is simply that of reading ability in one of the major languages to supply the information and scientific deficiency of his national literature.
2. Reading is the easiest aspect of the language to acquire, for reading in vowels no active use of grammar and idioms and the memory of the vocabulary is merely recognition. M. West says, it is necessary to begin with reading because "We need not begin by teaching the child to speak for that would be to teach something easy by means of something more difficult."
3. In teaching reading it is easier to develop a sense of the language a feeling of what idiomatic which very greatly diminish the child's liability to errors and very greatly accelerate his progress.
4. In learning reading, the child will sooner feel his progress in language knowledge and enjoy it. Besides, he can improve his knowledge independently without the teacher's aid.
5. In teaching reading the teacher's qualifications, and his command of the language is of no great importance (as the reading book teaches the child while the teacher is a mere master of ceremonies), nor is the size of the class of significance, as all the pupils can read simultaneously. M. West compiled a series of teaching material for teaching reading: ten readers, exercise books, and blank companions.

He has developed methods of teaching oral language and compiled special teaching material for the purpose. These are: Learn to speak by speaking, improve your English, Easy English Dialogues, and Book 1 and Book 2. His book Teaching English in Difficult Circumstances was translated into Russian.

We greatly appreciate H. Palmer and M. West for their contribution to Methods. These English methodologists have enriched the technology of foreign language teaching:

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 neither need nor drill pupils in writing such letters as *a*, *c*, *e* and some others, which Turkmen pupils can write because the Turkmen 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 show pupils do. 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 and 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.

To master foreign language pupils must be engaged in activities, which are characteristics of the language; they should hear the language spoken, speak, read, and write it. Classroom practices, which are restricted to teacher's presentation of linguistics material (vocabulary, grammar), and the testing of pupils' knowledge cannot provide good learning. The teacher covers "content" but does not instruct pupils. The majorities of pupils remain passive, and work only to memorize what the teacher emphasizes. We cannot but agree the following words: "... most of the changes we have come to think of as 'classroom learning' typically may not occur in the presswork sessions and other forms of solitary study that the major forms of any learning and laid down." 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.

By teaching aids, we mean various devices, which can help the foreign language teacher in presenting linguistics 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 on contemporary schools, may be grouped into (1) non-mechanical aids and (2) mechanical aids.

Non-mechanical aids 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.

*A flannel board* (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 flannel board made in a workshop or buy one in a specialized shop; the use of a flannel board 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 flannel board;

*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 flannel board;

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

Mechanical aids:

*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.

Auditing or listening and comprehension are difficult for learners because they should discriminate speech sounds quickly, retain them while hearing a word, a phrase, or a sentence and recognize this as a sense unit. Pupils can easily and naturally do this in their own language and they cannot do this in a foreign language when they start learning the language. Pupils are very slow in grasping what they hear because they are conscious of the linguistics

forms they perceive by the ear. The results in misunderstanding as a complete failure of understanding.

When auditing a foreign language pupils should be very attentive and think hard. They should strain their memory and will power to keep the sequence of sounds they hear and to decode it. Not all the pupils can cope with the difficulties entailed. The teacher should help them by making this work easier and more interesting. This is possible on condition that he will take into consideration the following three main factors, which can ensure success in developing pupils' skills in auditing: (1) linguistics material for auditing, (2) the content of the material suggested for listening and comprehension, (3) conditions in which the material is presented.

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

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

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

The context and pupils' readiness (intellectual and situational) to understand it.

The way the narrative progresses: whether the passage is taken from the beginning of a story, the nucleus of the story, the progress of the action or, finally, the end of the story. The title of the story may be helpful in comprehending the main idea of the text. The simpler the narrative progresses, the better it is for developing pupils' skills in auditing.

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

3. Conditions of presenting the material are of great importance for teaching auditing, namely:

The speed of the speech the pupil is auditing. The hearer cannot change the speed of the speaker.

There are different points of view on the problem of the speed of speech in teaching auditing a foreign language. The most convincing is the approach suggested by N.V. Elukhina. She believes that in teaching auditing the tempo should be slower than the normal speed of authentic speech. However this slowness is not gained at the expense of the time required for

producing words (that might result in violating the intonation pattern of an utterance), but of the time required for pauses which are so necessary for a pupil to grasp the information of each portion between the pauses. Gradually the teacher shortens the pauses and the tempo of speech becomes normal or approximately normal, which is about 150 words

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