

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ ТА НАУКИ, МОЛОДІ ТА СПОРТУ УКРАЇНИ

ЗАКАРПАТСЬКИЙ УГОРСЬКИЙ ІНСТИТУТ ІМ. ФЕРЕНЦА РАКОЦІ ІІ

КАФЕДРА АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ ТА ЛІТЕРАТУРИ

РЕЄСТРАЦІЙНИЙ № Б

БАКАЛАВРСЬКА РОБОТА

ПРОБЛЕМИ НАВЧАННЯ НАВИКАМ МОВЛЕННЯ У СТАРШИХ

КЛАСАХ УГОРСЬКИХ СЕРЕДНІХ ШКІЛ ЗАКАРПАТТЯ

ОРГОВАН (КУН) РЕНАТИ ЧАБІВНИ

СТУДЕНТКИ 5-ГО КУРСУ

СПЕЦІАЛЬНІСТЬ 6.020303 «ПЕДАГОГІКА І МЕТОДИКА СЕРЕДНЬОЇ ОСВІТИ.

МОВА І ЛІТЕРАТУРА (АНГЛІЙСЬКА)

ТЕМА ЗАТВЕРДЖЕНА НА ЗАСІДАННІ КАФЕДРИ

ПРОТОКОЛ №

НАУКОВИЙ КЕРІВНИК: ЛІЗАК КАТЕРИНА МИХАЙЛІВНА

РЕЦЕНЗЕНТ:

РОБОТА РЕКОМЕНДОВАНА ДО ЗАХИСТУ НА ЗАСІДАННІ КАФЕДРИ

ПРОТОКОЛ № ____/_____.

ЗАВДУЮЧИЙ КАФЕДРОЮ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ:

Д.Ф.Н. КОВТЮК І.Я.

РОБОТА ЗАХИЩЕНА НА ОЦІНКУ _____, «__» _____ 2011 РОКУ

ПРОТОКОЛ № ____/_____.

ГОЛОВА ДЕРЖАВНОЇ ЕКЗАМЕНАЦІЙНОЇ КОМІСІЇ

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ ТА НАУКИ, МОЛОДІ ТА СПОРТУ УКРАЇНИ
ЗАКАРПАТСЬКИЙ УГОРСЬКИЙ ІНСТИТУТ ІМ. ФЕРЕНЦА РАКОЦІ ІІ
КАФЕДРА АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ ТА ЛІТЕРАТУРИ

ПРОБЛЕМИ НАВЧАННЯ НАВИКАМ МОВЛЕННЯ У СТАРШИХ
КЛАСАХ УГОРСЬКИХ СЕРЕДНІХ ШКІЛ ЗАКАРПАТТЯ

БАКАЛАВРСЬКА РОБОТА

ВИКОНАВЕЦЬ:
СТУДЕНТКА 5-ГО КУРСУ
(СПЕЦІАЛЬНІСТЬ
«АНГЛІЙСЬКА МОВА ТА
ЛІТЕРАТУРА»)
ОРГОВАН (КУН) Р.Ч.

НАУКОВИЙ КЕРІВНИК:
ЛІЗАК К.М.

БЕРЕГОВО – 2011

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE, YOUTH AND SPORTS OF
UKRAINE

II. RÁKÓCZI FERENC TRANSCARPATHIAN HUNGARIAN INSTITUTE

PHILOLOGY DEPARTMENT

**PROBLEMS OF TEACHING SPEAKING IN THE SENIOR
CLASSES OF THE HUNGARIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF
TRANSCARPATHIA
BACHELOR THESIS**

RENÁTA ORGOVÁN (KUN)
V/10. ENGLISH
EXTRA-MURAL STUDENT

ACADEMIC SUPERVISOR:
KATALIN LIZÁK

BEREGSZÁSZ – 2011

ЗМІСТ

Вступ	8
Розділ I	10
1. Огляд літератури по розвитку мовлення. Навчання мовленню.	10
1.1. Методи викладання англійської мови як другої іноземної мови	12
1.2. Мета і способи навчання мовлення.....	13
1.3. Стратегії для розвитку навиків мовлення	14
1.3.2. Розуміння написаного тексту	15
1.3.3. Вживання мови для розмови про мову	15
1.4. Стилi мовлення	16
1.5. Функції мовлення	16
1.6. Навчання мовленню.....	16
1.6.1. Роль вікового фактору в розвитку навиків мовлення	16
1.6.2. Роль вчителя.....	19
1.6.2.1. Допомога учням зрозуміти почуте	19
1.6.2.2. Допомога учням в утворенні звуків	19
1.6.2.3. Забезпечення зворотного зв'язку	19
1.6.2.4. Пояснення про що йдеться мова	20
1.6.2.5. Установлення пріоритету	20
1.6.2.6. Планування роботи	20
1.6.2.7. Оцінювання розвитку учня.....	20
1.6.3. Роль учнів.....	21
1.6.4. Методи викладання дітей	21
1.6.5. Методи викладання дорослих	23

Розділ II	24
2. Практичне дослідження проблем навчання навикам мовлення у старших класах угорських середніх шкіл Закарпаття	24
2.1. Методи та хід дослідження.....	24
2.2. Об'єкт дослідження.....	24
2.3. Засоби дослідження	24
2.4. Хід дослідження.....	25
2.5. Результати дослідження	25
Розділ III 28	
3. Огляд практики навчання мовленню	28
3.1. Причини мовлення.....	28
3.2. Комунікативні вправи.....	30
3.3. Послідовність і комунікація	32
3.4. Рольові ігри	34
3.4.1. Проведення рольових ігор	35
3.4.2. Короткі сцени.....	35
3.4.3. Керована імпровізація	37
Висновки (Англійська)	38
Список використаної літератури	40
Резюме (Українське)	42
Додаток I	43
Додаток II.....	45
Додаток III.....	46

CONTENTS

Introduction	8
Chapter I.....	10
1. Theoretical Overview of Teaching Speaking. The Practice of Teaching Speaking Skills	10
1.1. Overview of Treatment of Speaking in Second Language Teaching Methods	12
1.2. Goals and Techniques for Teaching Speaking	13
1.3. Strategies for Developing Speaking Skills	14
1.3.1. Using minimal responses	14
1.3.2. Recognizing scripts.....	15
1.3.3. Using language to talk about language	15
1.4. Styles of speaking	16
1.5. Functions of speaking	16
1.6. Teaching speaking	16
1.6.1. What difference does age make to language learning?.....	16
1.6.2. The teacher's role	19
1.6.2.1. Helping learners hear	19
1.6.2.2. Helping learners make sounds	19
1.6.2.3. Providing feedback	19
1.6.2.4. Pointing out what is going on.....	20
1.6.2.5. Establishing priorities	20
1.6.2.6. Devising activities	20
1.6.2.7. Assessing progress	20
1.6.3. The learner's role	21

1.6.4. Teaching children	21
1.6.5. Teaching adolescents	23
Chapter II	24
2. Practical Research on Problems of Teaching Speaking in Senior Classes of the Transcarpathian Hungarian Secondary Schools	24
2.1. Methods and procedures	24
2.2. The research subjects	24
2.3. The instrument of the study	24
2.4. Research procedures	25
2.5. The research findings	25
Chapter III	28
3. Practical Overview of Teaching Speaking	28
3.1. Reasons for speaking	28
3.2. Communicative activities	30
3.3. Fluency and communication	32
3.4. Role play	34
3.4.1. Running a role play	35
3.4.2. Drama games	35
3.4.3. Guided improvisation	37
Conclusion	38
References	40
Summary (in Ukrainian)	42
Appendix I	43
Appendix II	45
Appendix III	46

Introduction

Speaking is a crucial part of foreign language learning and teaching. However, for many years, teaching speaking has been undervalued and English language teachers have continued to teach speaking just as a repetition of drills or memorization of texts. The requirements towards teaching and acquiring speaking skills, in particular, have changed recently in secondary schools of Ukraine. The goal is to improve students' communicative skills, because only in that way, students can express themselves and learn how to follow the social and cultural rules appropriate in each communicative circumstance.

The previous studies in the field of teaching EFL oral English shed lights on many of the unresolved problems. The literature review of the issue indicates that further studies in this area may provide more valuable experiences to aid EFL learners to speak English fluently and accurately. However, critical review of the subject shows that there are quite a number of unanswered questions in the two fields which still require further research.

Therefore, the subject matter of the present paper is the problems of teaching speaking in the senior classes in Hungarian secondary schools of Transcarpathia. The object of the paper will be to examine the problems of teaching speaking in senior classes of secondary schools.

The aim is to investigate and provide some speaking activities that can be effectively applied to EFL classroom settings, together with suggestions to change oral language teachers' attitude and ways of teaching and developing the speaking skill of the Hungarian secondary school students of Transcarpathia.

The present study will attempt to answer the following questions:

1. Are teachers of English in the Transcarpathian Hungarian schools willing to teach and develop speaking skills of the students;
2. What approaches and strategies of teaching English can improve the students' communicative skills.

The significance of this study is due to the fact that it attempts to determine the most effective ways of teaching speaking skills to Hungarian students of Transcarpathia at the secondary school level. Furthermore, the result of the research may provide EFL teachers with methods which they can use in their classroom to enhance their students' achievement in English.

In order to investigate the research problem the comparative method of analysis will be applied to find out the difficulties students have to face in the process of studying English and to identify effective ways of enhancing students' speaking.

One of the most essential problems of teaching English language responsibly well as a foreign language, is that pupils should acquire an adequate number of words and should know how to use them. Almost all English language teachers get students study grammar and vocabulary, practise functional dialogues, take part in productive skill activities, and become competent in listening and speaking.

The mastery of speaking skills in English is a priority for many second-language or foreign-language learners. Consequently, learners often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English classes on the basis of how much they feel they have improved their language proficiency.

The Bachelor thesis consists of an introduction, three chapters, and conclusions in English and in Ukrainian, an appendix and the bibliography list.

The first chapter is a critical overview of recent research on the subject. It gives us several methods and examples about teaching speaking in secondary schools. A great number of studies and articles have been written on the topic. The main specialists who have been dealing with the theme are the following Whitehall, H., Swan, M., Scrivener, J., and etc.

The second chapter is about the practical approach of the examined topic. Chapter two contains the research about the problems of teaching speaking in secondary schools.

Chapter three covers different teaching techniques and various activities which teachers can use in English classes to stimulate the teenagers for studying the language.

English has attained increasing importance throughout the world in general and in Ukraine in particular since certain changes have been brought into the secondary school curriculum as well as the introduction of the Independent Assessment Test for school leavers. English is officially the first foreign language taught in both Ukrainian and Hungarian schools of Transcarpathia. The methods of study used in Ukrainian schools and quite frequently Ukrainian even textbooks are identical to those used for Hungarian students. Therefore, Hungarian students of Transcarpathia encounter unique problems in their study of English. It is the third language that they study, and to Ukrainian, the second language, it is not linguistically related to Hungarian.

Chapter I

1. Theoretical Overview of Teaching Speaking. The Practice of Teaching Speaking Skills

Of the four skills speaking seems the most important and difficult to acquire for a foreign language student. People who know a language are referred to as speakers of that language, as if speaking included all other types of skills, and many if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak (Ur, 2006).

Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994; Burns and Joyce, 1997). According to Chaney speaking is „the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts” (Chaney, 1998, p. 13). Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs, including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes for speaking.

Speaking requires that learners not only know how to produce specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary (linguistic competence), but also they understand when, why and in what way to produce language (sociolinguistic competence) (Cunningham, 1999).

Current literature (Schmitt, 2002; Dornyei and Thurrell, 1994; Richards, 1994) indicates that, at present, there are two chief approaches to the teaching of speaking - Indirect and Direct.

The Indirect approach is based on a notion laid out by Krashen and Schmitt (Schmitt, 2002), which states that languages can be uncsciously acquired through conversation and exposure to „comprehensive input”.

The Indirect approach states that explicit or direct focus on form is unimportant because children learning their first language (L1) receive no such input, yet they eventually become competent users of language (Dornyei – Thurrell, 1994; Richards, 1994). Classes where the Indirect approach is emphasised tend to provide lots of opportunities for student - student interaction with an aim to completing a task.

However, the Indirect approach has its own drawbacks. The asseption of Krashen`s acquisition theory as being equally valid for second language learning seems to be its greatest drawback since the L2 learning process, not to mention the foreign language learning process, which is not identical to the L1 learning process. Indeed

Richards (1994) notes that Indirect approach fails to address other areas of competent speaking such as accuracy or sociolinguistic appropriacy. Furthermore, the Indirect approach often provides practice with transactional language, while opportunities to produce interactional language are minimised due to activity types used in such classes.

The Direct approach

Advocates of the Direct approach argue that speaking skills can and should be taught explicitly via consciousness raising activities (Hedge, 2004; McCarthy and O`Keeffe, 2004; Richards, 1994). The Direct approach raises learners` awareness of the nature systems and patterns involved in conversations.

Learners gain knowledge on how to use the fixed expressions, micro-skills, set phrases and discourse markers that are so abundant in spoken discourse. However, the Direct approach fails to account for the need to shift some of the knowledge to a stage where it can be acquired and automatically processed. Perhaps a balance of explicit awareness raising techniques and indirect /implicit based practice methods will provide a more even approach to producing competent speakers of English as a foreign language.

Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication.

Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

- Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation
- Functions (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building)
- Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

In the communicative model of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares students

for real-life communication situations. They help their students develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable (that is, comprehensible) pronunciation.

1.1. Overview of Treatment of Speaking in Second Language Teaching

Methods

Method/Approach	Treatment of Speaking
Grammar Translation	No speaking or listening is required of students
Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)	Focus on speech with heavy reliance on repetition and oral drills
Direct Method and Situational Language Teaching	Teacher does much of the talking; students engage in many controlled speaking activities centered on specific topics of situations
Silent Way	Teacher rarely speaks while students engage in speaking activities centered around grammatically sequenced forms.
Suggestopedia	Students listen to reading of dialogues or “concerts” by the teacher and later engage in controlled or guided speaking activities
Community Language Learning	Teacher acts as “human computer” to translate what the learner wishes to say in the target language
Comprehension Approach	Emphasize development of listening and reading skills; little attention to speaking and writing
Natural Approach	Early emphasis on listening comprehension with delayed guided speaking activities
Total Physical Response (TPR)	Students rarely speak but use physical actions to demonstrate listening comprehension
Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)	Focus on speech for communication; use of variety of authentic speaking activities
Task Based Learning	Speech centers around authentic tasks needed to accomplish real-world tasks

1.2. Goals and Techniques for Teaching Speaking

The goal of teaching speaking skills is communicative efficiency. Learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. They should try to avoid confusion in the message due to faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary, and to observe the social and cultural rules that apply in each communication situation.

To help students develop communicative efficiency in speaking, instructors can use a balanced activities approach that combines language input, structured output, and communicative output.

Language input comes in the form of teacher talk, listening activities, reading passages, and the language heard and read outside of class. It gives learners the material they need to begin producing language themselves.

Language input may be content oriented or form oriented.

- Content-oriented input focuses on information, whether it is a simple weather report or an extended lecture on an academic topic. Content-oriented input may also include descriptions of learning strategies and examples of their use.
- Form-oriented input focuses on ways of using the language: guidance from the teacher or another source on vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar (linguistic competence); appropriate things to say in specific contexts (discourse competence); expectations for rate of speech, pause length, turn-taking, and other social aspects of language use (sociolinguistic competence); and explicit instruction in phrases to use to ask for clarification and repair miscommunication (strategic competence).

In the presentation part of a lesson, a teacher combines content-oriented and form-oriented input. The amount of input that is actually provided in the target language depends on students' listening proficiency and also on the situation. For students at lower levels, or in situations where a quick explanation on a grammar topic is needed, an explanation on mother tongue may be more appropriate than one in English.

Structured output focuses on correct form. In structured output, students may have options for responses, but all of the options require them to use the specific form or structure that the teacher has just introduced.

Structured output is designed to make learners comfortable producing specific language items recently introduced, sometimes in combination with previously learned items. Instructors often use structured output exercises as a transition between the

presentation stage and the practice stage of a lesson plan. textbook exercises also often make good structured output practice activities.

In *communicative output*, the learners' main purpose is to complete a task, such as obtaining information, developing a travel plan, or creating a conversation. To complete the task, they may use the language that the instructor has just presented, but they also may draw on any other vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies that they know. In communicative output activities, the criterion of success is whether the learner gets the message across. Accuracy is not a consideration unless the lack of it interferes with the message.

In everyday communication, spoken exchanges take place because there is some sort of information gap between the participants. Communicative output activities involve a similar real information gap. In order to complete the task, students must reduce or eliminate the information gap. In these activities, language is a tool, not an end in itself.

In a balanced activities approach, the teacher uses a variety of activities from these different categories of input and output. Learners at all proficiency levels, including beginners, benefit from this variety; it is more motivating, and it is also more likely to result in effective language learning.

1.3. Strategies for Developing Speaking Skills

Students often think that the ability to speak a language is the product of language learning, but speaking is also a crucial part of the language learning process. Effective instructors teach students speaking strategies - using minimal responses, recognizing scripts, and using language to talk about language - that they can use to help themselves expand their knowledge of the language and their confidence in using it. These instructors help students learn to speak so that the students can use speaking to learn.

1.3.1. Using minimal responses

Language learners who lack confidence in their ability to participate successfully in oral interaction often listen in silence while others do the talking. One way to encourage such learners to begin to participate is to help them build up a stock of minimal responses that they can use in different types of exchanges. Such responses can be especially useful for beginners.

Minimal responses are predictable, often idiomatic phrases that conversation participants use to indicate understanding, agreement, doubt, and other responses to what another speaker is saying. Having a stock of such responses enables a learner to focus on what the other participant is saying, without having to simultaneously plan a response.

1.3.2. Recognizing scripts

Some communication situations are associated with a predictable set of spoken exchanges - a script. Greetings, apologies, compliments, invitations, and other functions that are influenced by social and cultural norms often follow patterns or scripts. So do the transactional exchanges involved in activities such as obtaining information and making a purchase. In these scripts, the relationship between a speaker's turn and the one that follows it can often be anticipated.

Instructors can help students develop speaking ability by making them aware of the scripts for different situations so that they can predict what they will hear and what they will need to say in response. Through interactive activities, instructors can give students practice in managing and varying the language that different scripts contain.

1.3.3. Using language to talk about language

Language learners are often too embarrassed or shy to say anything when they do not understand another speaker or when they realize that a conversation partner has not understood them. Teachers can help students overcome this reticence by assuring them that misunderstanding and the need for clarification can occur in any type of interaction, whatever the participants' language skill levels. Teachers can also give students strategies and phrases to use for clarification and comprehension check.

By encouraging students to use clarification phrases in class when misunderstanding occurs, and by responding positively when they do, teachers can create an authentic practice environment within the classroom itself. As they develop control of various clarification strategies, students will gain confidence in their ability to manage the various communication situations that they may encounter outside the classroom.

1.4. Styles of speaking

An important dimension of conversation is using a style of speaking that is appropriate to the particular circumstances. Different styles of speaking reflect the roles, age, sex, and status of participants in interactions and also reflect the expression of politeness. Consider the various ways in which it is possible to ask someone the time, and the different social meanings that are communicated by these differences. Lexical, phonological, and grammatical changes may be involved in producing a suitable style of speaking, as the following alternatives illustrate:

Have you seen the boss? / Have you seen the manager? (lexical)

Whachadoin? / What are you doing? (phonological)

Seen Joe lately? / Have you seen Joe lately? (grammatical)

Different speech styles reflect perceptions of the social roles of the participants in a speech event. If the speaker and hearer are judged to be of more or less equal status, a casual speech style that stresses affiliation and solidarity is appropriate. If the participants are perceived as being of uneven power or status, a more formal speech style is appropriate, one that marks the dominance of one speaker over the other. Successful management of speech styles creates the sense of politeness that is essential for harmonious social relations (Brown and Levinson, 1978).

1.5. Functions of speaking

Numerous attempts have been made to classify the functions of speaking in human interaction. Brown and Yule (1983) made a useful distinction between the interactional functions of speaking, in which it serves to establish and maintain social relations, and the transactional functions, which focus on the exchange of information. In workshops with teachers and in designing my own materials, I use an expanded three-part version of Brown and Yule's framework (after Jones, 1996, and Burns, 1998): *talk as interaction*; *talk as transaction*; *talk as performance*. Each of these speech activities is quite distinct in terms of form and function and requires different teaching approaches.

1.6. Teaching speaking

1.6.1. What difference does age make to language learning?

Many conventional assumptions about differences between children and adults in language learning may turn out, when subjected to careful examination or

research to be not quite so obvious or inevitably true as they seem. There are some statements that represent these assumptions.

- *Younger children learn languages better than older ones; children learn better than adults.*

This is a commonly held view, based on many people's experience seeing (or being) children transplanted to a foreign environment and picking up the local language with apparent ease. The obvious conclusion from this experience would seem to be that children are intrinsically better learners; but this has not been confirmed by research (Singleton, 1989). On the contrary: given the same amount of exposure to a foreign language, there is some evidence that the older the child the more effectively he or she learns (Snow and Hoefnagel-Hoehle, 1978; Ellis, 1994, pp.484-94); probably teenagers are overall the best learners. (The only apparent exception to this is pronunciation, which is learned more easily by younger children.) The reason for children's apparently speedy learning when immersed in the foreign environment may be the sheer amount of time they are usually exposed to the language, the number of 'teachers' surrounding them, and the dependence on (foreign-language-speaking) people around to supply their needs ('survival' motive).

The truth of the assumption that young children learn better is even more dubious if applied to formal classroom learning: here there is only one teacher to a number of children, exposure time is very limited, and the 'survival' motive does not usually apply. Moreover, young children have not as yet developed the cognitive skills and self-discipline that enable them to make the most of limited teacher-mediated information; they rely more on intuitive acquisition, which in its turn relies on a larger volume of comprehensible input than there is time for in lessons.

- *Foreign language learning in school should be started at as early an age as possible.*

Some people have argued for the existence of a 'critical period' in language learning: if you get too old and pass this period you will have significantly more difficulty learning; thus early learning in schools would seem essential. But this theory is not conclusively supported by research evidence: there may not be a critical period at all; or there may be several (Singleton, 1989; Long, 1990). The research-supported hypothesis discussed above – that children may actually become more effective language learners as they get older, particularly in formal teacher-

mediated learning situations – means that the investment of lesson time at an early age may not be cost-effective. In other words, if you have a limited number of hours to give to foreign language teaching in school, it will probably be more rewarding in terms of sheer amount of learning to invest these in the older classes.

Having said this, however, it is also true that an early start to language learning is likely to lead to better long-term results if early learning is maintained and reinforced as the child gets older (Long, 1990). In a situation, therefore, where there are as many teachers and teaching hours as you want, by all means start as early as you can.

- *Children and adults learn languages basically the same way.*

In an immersion situation, where people are acquiring language intuitively for daily survival, this may to some extent be true. In the context of formal courses, however, differences become apparent. Adults' capacity for understanding and logical thought is greater, and they are likely to have developed a number of learning skills and strategies which children do not yet have. Moreover, adult classes tend on the whole to be more disciplined and cooperative – as anyone who has moved from teaching children to teaching adults, or vice versa, will have found. This may be partly because people learn as they get older to be patient and put up with temporary frustrations in the hope of long-term rewards, to cooperate with others for joint profit and various other benefits of self-restraint and disciplined cooperation. Another reason is that most adults are learning voluntarily, have chosen the course themselves, often have a clear purpose in learning (work, travel, etc.) and are therefore likely to feel more committed and motivated; whereas most children have little choice in where, how or even whether they are taught.

- *Adults have longer concentration span than children.*

Teachers commonly notice that they cannot get children to concentrate on certain learning activities as long as they can get adults to do so. However, the problem is not the concentration span itself – children will spend hours absorbed in activities that really interest them – but rather the ability of the individual to persevere with something of no immediate intrinsic interest to them. Here older learners do exhibit noticeable superiority, because they tend to be more self-disciplined. One implication for teaching is the need to devote a lot of thought to the (intrinsic) interest value of learning activities for younger learners.

- *It is easier to interest and motivate children than adults.*

In a sense, this is true: you can raise children's motivation and enthusiasm (by selecting interesting activities, for example) more easily than that of older, more self-reliant and sometimes cynical learners. On the other hand, you can also lose it more easily: monotonous, apparently pointless activities quickly bore and demotivate young learners; older ones are more tolerant of them. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that younger learners' motivation is more likely to vary and is more susceptible to immediate surrounding influences, including the teacher; that of older learners tends to be more stable.

1.6.2. The teacher's role

1.6.2.1. Helping learners hear

Part of the role of the teacher is to help learners perceive sounds.

Learners will have a strong tendency to hear the sounds of English in terms of the sounds of their native language. If you've never seen a lime before you may think it is an unripe lemon because that is the nearest equivalent of the fruits you are familiar with. You may continue in your misperception until you actually eat one or until someone points out the difference to you. Sounds aren't like fruit (sound images are different from visual images), but the process of establishing categories is basically the same and each language has its own set of categories. Teachers need to check that their learners are hearing sounds according to the appropriate categories and help them to develop new categories if necessary (Kenworthy, 1989).

1.6.2.2. Helping learners make sounds

Some sounds of English do not occur in other languages. Sometimes learners will be able to imitate the new sound, but if they can't then the teacher needs to be able to give some hints which may help them to make the new sound(s) (Celce-Murcia, 1987).

1.6.2.3. Providing feedback

Both the above tasks require the teacher to tell learners how they are doing. Often learners themselves can't tell if they've 'got it right'; the teacher must provide them with information about their performance. In other cases, learners may overdo something - they may make inaccurate assumptions about the way English is

pronounced, perhaps because of the way it is written. This leads us to another task for the teacher (Mackenzie, 1967).

1.6.2.4. Pointing out what is going on

Learners need to know what to pay attention to and what to work on. Because speaking is for the most part unconsciously controlled, learners may miss something important. For example, they may not realize that when a particular word is stressed or said in a different way this can affect the message that is sent to the listener. Teachers need to make learners aware of the potential of sounds - the resources available to them for sending spoken messages (Ur, 1996).

1.6.2.5. Establishing priorities

Learners themselves will be aware of some of the features of their pronunciation that are 'different', but they will not be able to tell if this is important or not. They may notice that something about their pronunciation is not like the way English people do it and may automatically try to change this, but their efforts are misplaced because that feature is a refinement, or acceptable to the English ear, or not essential for intelligible speech. Learners need the help of the teacher in establishing a plan for action, in deciding what to concentrate on and when to leave well enough alone (Kenworthy, 1995).

1.6.2.6. Devising activities

Learning speaking is so complex that the teacher must consider what types of exercises and activities will be helpful. Which activities will provide the most opportunities for practice, experimentation, exploration? In designing activities for learning, teachers must also keep in mind that certain activities suit the learning styles and approaches of some learners better than others (Kenworthy, 1995).

1.6.2.7. Assessing progress

This is actually a type of feedback - learners find it difficult to assess their own progress so teachers must provide the information. This is especially difficult in the elusive activity of 'making sounds', but information about progress is often a crucial factor in maintaining motivation (Kenworthy, 1995).

1.6.3. The learner's role

Having listed the various aspects of the teacher's role, we could say very simply that all learners need to do is respond. But of course it is not as simple as that. This kind of attitude ignores the fact that ultimately success in speaking will depend on how much effort the learner puts into it. A major theme of Part One will be the importance of the learner's willingness to take responsibility for his or her own learning. The teacher may be highly skilled at noticing misses and pointing these out, but if learners take no action and do not try to monitor their own efforts, then the prospects of change or improvement are minimal.

1.6.4. Teaching children

In general, children have a greater immediate need to be motivated by the teacher or the materials in order to learn effectively. Prizes and similar extrinsic rewards can help, but more effective on the whole are elements that contribute towards intrinsic motivation: interest in doing the learning activity itself. Such elements are most likely to be effective if they are based on an appeal to the senses or activate the children in speech or movement.

Three very important sources of interest for children in the classroom are pictures, stories and games: the first being obviously mainly a visual stimulus; the second both visual and aural; and the third using both visual and aural channels as well as activating language production and sometimes physical movement.

- **Pictures**

Lack of aural stimulus is relatively easy to tolerate: even young learners will work for a while in silence without searching for something to listen to. This, however, is not true of the visual, which is a very dominant channel of input: so much so, that if young learners are not supplied with something to look at that is relevant to the learning task in hand they will find and probably be distracted by something that is not.

The most obvious type of visual material for children is the picture: and the more clearly visible, striking and colourful the better. On the whole, professionally drawn pictures or photographs are used: those in the textbook, or coloured posters, or pictures cut from magazines. But there is also a place for the teacher's own quick sketches on the board and of course for the children's own drawing.

- Stories

Young children love having stories told to them and older ones begin to read for themselves. Moreover stories – in contrast to pictures or even games – are pure language: telling a story in the foreign language is one of the simplest and richest sources of foreign language input for younger learners.

The most effective combination in teaching is pictures and stories together: and the success of use of picture-books with young learners has been attested by many.

- Games

Games are essentially recreational ‘time out’ activities whose main purpose is enjoyment; language study is serious goal-oriented work, whose main purpose is personal learning. Once you call a language-learning activity a ‘game’ you convey the message that it is just fun, not to be taken too seriously: a message considered anti-educational and potentially demoralizing. Very occasionally teachers do play real games in the classroom, (at the end of a course, for example, or as a break from concentrated work); but to call something a game when our goal is in fact serious learning may harm the learning as well as being dishonest.

Two further dangers are: first, the tendency of some teachers to call activities ‘games’ for the sake of raising initial motivation, when they are not in fact games at all (‘Let’s play a game: I’ll give you a word, you tell me how it is spelt!’); second, the danger that the obvious activity and enjoyment caused by a game may obscure the fact that its contribution to learning is minimal.

However, another definition of ‘games’ ignores the implication of non-serious recreation and concentrates rather on their quality as organized action that is rule-governed, involves striving towards a clear goal through performance of a challenging task, and provides participants and/or onlookers with a feeling of pleasurable tension. Children in general learn well when they are active; and when action is channelled into an enjoyable game they are often willing to invest considerable time and effort in playing it. If we design our games in such a way that they are productive of language learning they become an excellent, even essential, part of a programme of children’s learning activities.

1.6.5. Teaching adolescents

One source of guidance about how to teach adolescents successfully is books on developmental psychology. Another – arguably no less reliable, and perhaps under-used – is the adolescents themselves.

Teachers' views on the teaching of adolescents vary enormously. Some love it, and would not choose to teach any other age range. Probably almost as many, however, find it difficult, often more difficult the older the adolescent students become. The first important point to make, however, is that it is difficult, if not impossible, to generalise about 'adolescence'. There is enormous variation in the nature of the adolescent period from individual to individual, and from culture to culture. In some cultures, children seem to remain 'children' longer; in others they appear to grow up very quickly. Some adolescents find the movement from being 'a child' to being 'an adult' a very troublesome one, whilst others do not experience any particular problems. What is clear is that during the period of adolescence, an individual's sense of *who they are* may often go through many transformations. Bodily changes as well as rapid changes in opinions, tastes, habits and relations between the sexes may combine to give the impression that it is not one person that we are dealing with, but several!

Parents and teachers of adolescents often report that the period can place great strain on their relationships. Adolescents may be seeking independence and this may conflict with the views of the parents/teachers. As the time may be a period of great change for the adolescent, they may often seem restless - unsure if they are doing what they want to do or should be doing. They may also be anxious about the future: 'What is to become of me?', 'What next?', 'Will I cope?', 'What will happen if ...?' All of these things may require great patience from everyone concerned.

Summary:

Chapter I of the present paper gave definition of the term “speaking”. The study then addressed teaching approaches and defined the ways of treating speaking within these methods. In addition, it highlighted different aspects of teaching speaking in a foreign language classroom considering some factors affecting teaching.

Chapter II

Practical Research on Problems of Teaching Speaking in Senior Classes of the Transcarpathian Hungarian Secondary Schools

2.1. Methods and procedures

The subject of the present research is the problems of teaching speaking in senior classes of secondary schools. The aim of the research is to get information about how teachers teach English speaking in senior classes and what problems they have identified during the lessons. This chapter presents the methods and procedures followed in the research to find out the attitude of the teachers of English in the Transcarpathian Hungarian schools toward teaching and developing the students' communicative skills as well as the strategies and approaches used by them to improve students' speaking skills. The chapter begins with a description of the research subjects and research instruments, and concludes with the analysis of the achieved results.

2.2. The research subjects

To carry out the research a staff survey was designed to find out the teachers opinion on the subject. Seven schools with Hungarian as the language of instruction were deliberately chosen from the Hungarian secondary schools in settlements of Transcarpathia where the Hungarian population prevails. Besides, these schools were deliberately selected from other Hungarian secondary schools in the region because the EFL teachers in these schools are qualified and experienced in EFL teaching methods. Moreover, these schools were easily accessed. These schools are: Hungarian Grammar School of Beregszász, Secondary School №4 named after Lajos Kossuth, Secondary School №3 named after Ilona Zrínyi, Secondary School №6 of Beregszász, Secondary School №8 named after Kelemen Mikes, Secondary School of Gát named after Vilmos Kovács, and Secondary School of Nagydobrony.

The questionnaire can be seen in Appendix I.

2.3. The instrument of the study

To achieve the purpose of the study, a staff questionnaire was used. The questionnaire was designed to examine the teachers' attitudes towards developing the students' communicative competence in the lessons of English.

The questionnaire consisted of items about teachers' attitudes towards teaching speaking skills.

The questionnaire was administered to the participants in March, 2011.

In the present research 30 teachers were chosen to fill in the questionnaires, out of which 24 were returned. Teachers had one week to fill in the questionnaires and give it back for obtaining data and analysing the answers.

My informants had to answer 10 questions, consisting of both open ended and close format ones. The questions were focused on the teaching speaking to teenagers and the problems of it in the schools.

The teachers were asked to choose between the possible items or write their opinions and justifications. Having analysed the answers of the questionnaires, I could say that a significant proportion, 90% of the asked teachers completed them in a careful way. However, the rest of the informants filled the questionnaire with certain deficiencies. All the teachers think that it is important to organize speaking teaching in senior classes.

Most of the teachers are female, this shows that teaching is a female profession, and most of the asked teachers teach in 5-12 forms.

2.4. Research procedures

The study was carried out in the following way:

1. Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the teachers.
2. The relevant literature was reviewed to establish the theoretical background to the study.
3. The staff questionnaire was prepared.
4. The attitudinal questionnaire was administered in the schools. The results of the questionnaires were analysed both statistically and by means of descriptive analysis.
5. The findings of the study were analysed and discussed.

2.5. The research findings

The purpose of the current study is to find out the teachers' attitudes toward teaching and developing the students speaking skills in the lessons of English in the Hungarian secondary schools of Transcarpathia. In addition, to highlight methods and ways for effective development of the students' communicative competence.

The findings of the study are presented in this chapter according to the research question.

Findings related to the questions ranging from one to five.

Giving answers to the question whether it is important to organize teaching speaking in senior classes the teachers' response was that it is important to organize the teaching of speaking in senior classes. Teachers stressed that they considered it to be the skill that needed special attention.

The sixth question tried to examine the problems occurring in the process of teaching speaking skills. Answering to the question "What problems have you realised during the lessons?" the teachers mostly identified the next three problems:

- b) when students work in pairs or groups they just end up chatting in their own language,
- e) things take longer to achieve in the classroom,
- g) students do not have a sense of respect.

These answers mean that today's adolescents have self-problems, do not want to learn and do not respect the teachers. They think about other subjects and they cannot concentrate on the classroom activities.

These answers you can see in Appendix 2.

The answers to the question „In your opinion which is the most and the least important of these problems? Why?" the answers were quite different. 97% of asked teachers thought that the main problem was the lack of respect. They thought, that it was partly because of the family background. They highlighted the parents' responsibility for their children's behaviour and attitude they show towards the teachers in the school.

55% of the teachers thought that the least 'painful' problem was that the students seemed tired or unwilling to study.

45% of the teachers thought that the least uncontrollable problem was that students wanted to use their own individual talent instead of taking active part in the group work. They said it was because they were teenagers.

Answering the question "What exercises do you use when teaching speaking?" the teachers mostly wrote exercises like Breaking Telephone or What am I thinking about? But they also ticked some activities from the questionnaire, like whole class puzzles, brainstorming, discussions, and role plays.

These answers can be seen in appendix 3.

In response to the question "Which of these activities are the most effective ones? Why?" mostly all of the teachers wrote different games. They usually have their

own excersises on which they rely and they know how to control the situation during the activity.

The answers to the last question (Which excersices do the students mostly prefer? In your opinion why do they like it?) were almost the same: they like doing different activities instead of direct learning.

As it can be seen from the teachers answers they use task based exercises to develop the students' communicative competence in the lessons of English. The results can be explained by the fact that in a task based learning, the tasks are central to the learning activity. The method is based on the belief that students can learn more effectively when their minds are focused on the task, rather than on the language they are using. Learning to speak and to understand the language and interaction with language users. Furthermore, this method enables the teachers to improve the students' communicative skills, to provide opportunities for native like interactions. Unlike the conversational approach which moves the learner from accuracy to fluency, the most important feature of the task-based approach, like any other communicative focused activities, is that it moves the learner from fluency to accuracy. In a class like that, the atmosphere is comfortable, cooperative and non-threatening. Consequently, less confident students, who usually refuse to speak in public want to perform because they benefit from the activity so much that the psychological barriers such as stress, auxxiety and fear are put away.

Chapter III

3. Practical Overview of Teaching Speaking

3.1. Reasons for speaking

Many people outside the world of English language teaching seem to have the impression that running a discussion class is something anyone can do – you do not need any training or experience, surely. Just go in and talk. The truth is that a lesson is more likely to produce silence or a desultory sentence or two than a scorching debate.

Why this happens is not too hard to fathom. We could imagine ourselves as a student in a lesson. Probably we have no interest in the subject, no relevant knowledge or experience, no motivation, no desire or perceived need to speak about it and worst of all, a slight panic: The teacher wants me to say something and I haven't have time to think. Hence, as a result of all of these, there is nothing to say.

If we want to get students talking we need to answer all these objections. If the subject is relevant and interesting, if the students already know about, or are provided with information to give substance to the topic, if they feel motivated to talk about it, if they feel that they really want to say something, there is a good chance of something interesting happening.

There may be several aims for a discussion, but usually the main aim is to provide an opportunity to practise speaking, with more attention to improving fluency than to getting accurate sentences. Subsidiary aims may be to practise specific language (the function of interrupting; the vocabulary of ecology; etc.).

To achieve the main aim we often want to find ways of enabling as many students as possible to speak as much as possible. Sometimes an all-class speaking activity is useful, but if it takes up the whole lesson it actually offers very little speaking time to each individual student. It's usually a good idea to organize speaking activities in pairs, threes and small groups as well as with the class as a whole.

Here is a selection of ideas for getting speaking activities to work:

- Frame the activity well. Do not just jump in the deep end (not just give the topics without any commentary and the students have to speak from that time). It usually helps to find ways to lead in at the beginning and ways to close at the end. A lead-in may be no more than a brief focus on a picture; it could be a text that

everyone reads and which naturally flows into the topic. It could be a personal recollection from the teacher.

- Your students may need some quiet time before the speaking activity, not to write out speeches (this is to be a speaking activity, not a reading aloud one), but perhaps to look up vocabulary in their dictionaries, think through their thoughts, make a note or two, etc.

Don't feel that you can never bend the above rules, however, sometimes it may make sense to go straight into the discussion (perhaps because you want them to get some practice at unprepared speaking, or because the subject is burning so strongly that it just demands to be started immediately).

- Giving students brief role-cards sometimes helps. It can often be easier to speak in someone else's character than in your own.
- Rather than giving the students a general topic to discuss, try setting a specific, related problem. This is often challenging, more interesting and more realistic.
- 'Pyramid discussion' is a simple organizational technique that works particularly well with simple problem-based discussions (eg: What are the four most useful things to have with you if you are shipwrecked on a desert island?). It gives students time to rehearse their arguments in smaller groups before facing the whole class. Start with individual reflection followed by discussion in pairs. When the pairs have come to some sort of agreement or compromise combine the pairs to make fours; again they need to reach some sort of agreement. At this point they join with another four or with all the other students. The smaller groups are seedbeds for a variety of ideas and opinions, and even the weaker speakers tend to find their confidence grows as the activity proceeds and they are able to repeat arguments that they have already tested on others.
- Different variations of seating/standing arrangements can be useful. Sometimes these may enable students to talk secretly, when they don't want the other teams to overhear. Sometimes these arrangements may enable students to move around easily and talk to a variety of others.

3.2. Communicative activities

We normally communicate when one of us has information (facts, opinions, ideas, etc) that another does not have. This is known as an ‘information gap’. The aim of a communicative activity in class is to get learners to use the language they are learning to interact in realistic and meaningful ways, usually involving exchanges of information.

Here are examples of some communicative activities one may wish to try out. Note that in every case we are primarily concerned with encouraging communication, rather than with controlled use of particular items of language or with accuracy.

- Pairs interview

This is useful at the start of a course to help people get to know one another and to create a friendly working relationship. It also establishes the fact that speaking is an important part of a course right from the start.

Put the students into pairs. They should interview the other students, asking any question they wish, and noting down interesting answers. When finished they introduce the person they interviewed to the rest of the class (or to a small group of students).

If you are concerned that the class may not have enough language to be able to ask questions, you could start the activity by eliciting a number of possible questions from the students.

- Pairs compare

This activity goes a little deeper than the one before. It’s useful at the start of a course, but also at other points, to allow people to find out more about one another.

First stage: filling the grid dictation

Give a copy of a grid to each student. Give instruction for words or pictures to be put in each square. For example: Write the name of your favourite film in box 7; Draw your favourite food in box 2; Write your favourite English word in box 12; What is your dream? Draw it in box 6; What are you worried about at the moment? Put that in box 9; etc.

We can vary the instructions depending on the age, experience, English level, etc of the class. Once they have got the idea encourage them to offer instructions, too. Go on until the grid is filled.

Second stage: comparison, discussion

In pairs (or small groups) the students can now compare what they have put in the grid. Many small discussion topics can easily grow out of this.

Third stage: whole class

After sufficient time of a good conversation in the pairs or groups, you may want to draw together any particularly interesting ideas or comments with the whole class.

- Picture difference

In pairs, one student is given picture A, one picture B. Without looking at the other picture they have to find the differences (by describing the pictures to each other).

- Stamp collecting

Divide the class into groups of four students. Tell them that they are stamp collectors and that they desperately want three more stamps to finish their collection. They also have a number of stamps available to give away or swap. The students sit apart from each other so that they cannot see what stamps the others have got.

Photocopy groups of stamps a number of times. Cut the sheets up and make 'wants' cards – each with three stamps on. Hand these out and also randomly distribute a number of individual 'stamps'. The students must 'telephone' each other and describe the stamps they want, trying to find out if another student has them. They do not look at each other's collection! If they think they have found a stamp they want then make an agreement to exchange but still do not look or exchange. At the end of the game, when all bargains have been made, the students can then meet up and pass over the agreed stamps and see if they have got what they wanted or not!

- Planning a holiday

Collect together a number of advertisement or brochures advertising a holiday. Explain to the students that we can all go on holiday together, but we must

all agree on where we want to go. Divide the students into groups of three and give each group a selection of this material. Their task is to plan a holiday for the whole group (within a fixed budget per person). Allow them a good amount of time to read and select a holiday and then to prepare a presentation in which they attempt to persuade the rest of the class that they should choose this holiday. When they are ready, each group makes their presentation and the class discusses and chooses a holiday.

- Survival

Tell a lost in the forest story. Make it dramatic (invent the details). Include a disaster of some kind, eg. minibus crashes miles from anywhere, injuries, etc. Give them the map and the notes. Students must plan what they should do to have the best chance of survival.

- Whole class puzzle

Here is a fascinating whole class exercise. This is a remarkably simple exercise that really gets groups working together especially if the teacher offers minimal or no help. If we want to be really bold, give no instructions at all! Otherwise we may wish to explain that we have written some sentences about a common object – for example, a pen or a guitar, but every time the name of the object appears you have written splurg instead. The task is, of course, to find out what a splurg is.

Photocopy and cut up the splurg sentences. Hand out one or more to each student (so that they are all given out) and leave them to it. You do not need to help them or speak to them until they have agreed on an answer. If you find that you do wish to help them you could offer information on which sentences are true and which untrue.

3.3. Fluency and communication

If the main aim is to get the students to speak, then one way to help that would be for teachers to reduce their own contributions. Probably the less they speak, the more space it will allow the students. It could be useful to aim to say nothing while the activity is underway, and save any contributions for before and after.

Similarly, getting out of the way might be a help. If we stay at the front of the class, visible and clearly keeping an eye over everything, that might put students off talking. We might do well to slink away into a quiet back corner of the room and watch with interest, but unobtrusively.

The more 'present' we allow ourselves to be, the more likely we are to feel that we need to intervene or the more likely students will be to ask us for help. And the more we help, the more we make the task less challenging for the students, the more they will lean on us. The more involved we get, the more we end up doing the communication rather than them. Active 'not helping' may sound rather cruel, but there are times when the teacher can be most helpful by forcing students to face problems themselves.

A basic procedure for a communicative activity might be:

- Teacher introduces and sets up activity (teacher-centre-stage)
- Students do activity (teacher out of sight, uninvolved)
- Teacher gets feedback, does follow-on work, etc (teacher centre-stage again)

A useful thing for the teacher to do during stage 2 above is to take notes (unobtrusively) of interesting student utterances (correct and incorrect) for possible use later on (at the end of the activity, the next day, next week, etc).

Some ideas for correction work after a fluency activity:

- The teacher writes up a number of sentences used during the activity and discusses them with the students.
- The teacher writes a number of sentences on the board. She gives the chalks to the students and encourages them to make corrections.
- The teacher invents and writes out a story that includes a number of errors she overheard during the activity. She hands out the story the next day and the students, in pairs or as a whole group, attempt to find the errors and correct them.
- The teacher writes out two lists headed 'A' and 'B'. On each list she writes the same ten sentences from the activity. On one list she writes the sentence with an error; on the other she writes the corrected version.

The teacher divides the students into two groups, 'A' and 'B', and hands out the appropriate list to each group. The groups discuss their own list (without sight of

the other list) and try to decide if their version of each sentence is correct or not. If it is wrong they correct it. When they have discussed all the sentences, the group can then compare the two sheets (and perhaps come to some new conclusions).

3.4. Roleplay

Drama is an excellent way to get students using the language. It essentially involves using the imagination to make oneself into another character, or the classroom into a different place. It can be a starting point for exciting listening and speaking work and it can be utilized as a tool to provide practice in specific grammatical, lexical, functional or phonological areas.

By bringing the outside world into the classroom in this way we can provide a lot of useful practice (in cafes, shops, banks, businesses, streets, parties, etc) that would otherwise be impossible. There can also be a freeing from the constraints of culture and expected behaviour; this can be personally and linguistically very liberating. Curiously, it is sometimes the shyest students who are most able to seize the potential.

Success or failure of drama activities depends crucially on the perceived attitude of the teacher and of the students; without a certain degree of trust, acceptance and respect the chances for useful work are greatly diminished.

Six types of drama activity are commonly found in English language teaching classrooms:

- **Roleplay**

Students act out small scenes using their own ideas or from ideas and information on role-cards.

- **Simulation**

This is really a large-scale roleplay. Role-cards are normally used and there is often other background information as well. The intention is to create a much more complete, complex 'world', say of a business company, television studio, government body, etc.

- **Drama games**

Short games that usually involve movement and imagination.

- Guided improvisation

A scene is improvised. One by one the students join in in character, until the whole scene and possibly story take on a life of their own.

- Acting play scripts

Short written sketches or scenes are acted by the students.

- Prepared improvised drama

Students in small groups invent and rehearse a short scene or story that they then perform for the others.

3.4.1. Running a roleplay

- Make sure the students understand the idea of ‘roleplay’. Do they know what is going to happen? Do they know what is required of them? Are they comfortable to do that or not?
- Make sure the context or situation is clear.
- Do they understand the information on their own card? Allow reading time, dictionary time, thinking time (during which you can go round and help if necessary).
- Give them time to prepare their ideas before the speaking starts; maybe encourage note-making.
- ... but when the activity starts, encourage them to improvise rather than rely on prepared speeches and notes. The preparation work they have done will inform their roleplay, but could simply get in the way if they over-rely on it. (It may help to take away the cards when the roleplay starts.)

3.4.2. Drama games

- Walking

A good way to ‘become’ another character is to try to walk in the way they would. This also makes an interesting Short drama game in its own right. The students stand up and walk around the room, as a character of their choice. After a

while, various people can meet each other and have short conversations (eg: Marilyn Monroe meeting Shakespeare). Variation 1: the teacher calls out names or characters from a story, or the news or history, etc and the students all try to act in character. Variation 2: the students must walk in the manner of the word: for example, happy, young, tired, cold, tense.

- Making a picture

The teacher calls out a subject; the students must all together quickly form a frozen 'tableau' of that scene. For example: the teacher calls out airport; the students take different positions. Some are check-in clerks, some become desks, some become planes taking off, some become tourists, until the whole room 'becomes' an airport. An amusing variation is to divide the class in two. One half has two minutes to make their scene, while the other waits outside the room or in another room. When they return to view the tableau they must guess what the scene is. They are only allowed to ask questions that would have yes/no answers (eg: Are you a table? No. Are you holding something? Yes.)

- Puppets and dubbing

Puppets: Two people (A and B) sit. Two other people (C and D) sit directly behind them. A and B now hide their arms behind their backs while C and D put their arms out in front, so that they look as if they are A and B's real arms. A and B attempt to carry on a conversation while C and D move their arms and hands appropriately.

Dubbing: This time C and D sit slightly to one side of A and B. They provide the words that A and B speak by whispering into their ears. A and B are not allowed to say anything except what they are told to say.

- Interesting situations

Students call out any interesting or 'difficult' situation involving two people and two other students act it out. For example, a well-meaning hostess serving meat to a polite vegetarian. This technique could, in appropriate circumstances, be used to 'real-play' (ie act out and explore some of the students' own real-life problem situations).

3.4.3. Guided improvisation

The teacher selects a scene – say, a frozen winter landscape with a frozen lake. The idea is to turn the classroom into the scene, and to then let the story unfold in any way it can, by the group improvising together.

The teacher might start by describing the scene and getting students to become people in the landscape, slowly building up a living, moving scene, or he might jump in the deep end by adopting a character himself and encouraging others to join him in the improvisation as and when they are ready.

The skill of running this kind of complex improvisation is to find a balance between allowing a free-flowing, growing, alive improvisation and the necessity of keeping some control over it to ensure that it keeps momentum and avoids silliness or trite solutions. Most of the teacher's interventions to achieve this can be done subtly by saying something, in character, to some of the participants, rather than by stepping in and making grand announcements to everyone.

Conclusions

English has attained increasing importance throughout the world in general and in Ukraine in particular since certain changes have been brought into the secondary school curriculum as well as the introduction of the Independent Assessment Test for school leavers. In addition, curriculum designers set new standards for English which are higher as compared to the former ones. It is hoped that by the end of the 11th or 12th form students will reach a level adequate to internationally accepted standards.

English is officially the first foreign language taught in both Ukrainian and Hungarian schools of Transcarpathia. The methods of study used in Ukrainian schools and quite frequently even Ukrainian textbooks are identical to those used for Hungarian students. Therefore, Hungarian students of Transcarpathia encounter unique problems in their study of English. It is the third language they study, and it is not linguistically related to Ukrainian, their second language.

In addition, unlike Ukrainian schools Hungarian schools of Transcarpathia do not have English native-speaking teachers. All these conditions make English quite difficult for Hungarian students.

Almost all of the studies on the subject are related to the experience of teaching English as a second language. Only few deal with teaching English as a foreign language and no research results have been published yet concerning teaching English to the Hungarians of Transcarpathia. Besides, only few previous studies at a national level aim at offering solutions to the problem of improving students communicative skills in English.

In the current study, issues influencing the development of speaking competence in a foreign language classroom have been explored. The present paper consists of three main chapters.

In the first chapter a theoretical overview is given about teaching speaking.

The second chapter is a practical research which deals with the problems of teaching speaking in senior classes of secondary schools.

The third chapter is a practical overview about the practical approach of the examined theme.

Detracting the conclusion from my Bachelor thesis it can be said that teaching speaking to teenagers is a very complex issue which should contain a lot of different methods and strategies. We have examined several of the factors which may affect

better understanding about how teenagers should be taught. The question now is: 'Which of these factors can themselves be affective for teaching and training?'

Furthermore we can conclude that the majority of teachers do everything to get students acquainted with the strategies of learning speaking well.

In conclusion, it can be stated that the present research succeeded in highlighting the problems of teaching teenagers and thus outlined certain possibilities of enhancing the students knowledge.

Teaching speaking is a very important part of foreign language learning. It is essential that language teachers pay great attention to teaching speaking. Rather than leading students to pure memorization, providing a rich environment where meaningful communication takes place is desired. With this aim, various speaking activities such as those listed in part of the present paper can contribute a great deal to students in developing basic interactive skills necessary for communication.

References

1. BARKÁTS JENŐ: *Az évfolyam- és diplomamunka szerkezete, kivitelezése és védelme*. PoliPrint Kft, Ungvár, 2008.
2. BROWN, H. D.: *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Princenton University Press, Princenton, 1980.
3. CHANEY, A. L. AND T. L. BURK: *Teaching Oral Communication in Grades K-8*. Allyn and Bacon, Boston, 1998.
4. DI PIETRO ROBERT J.: *Szerepjátékok a nyelvórán. Stratégiai interakció*. Nemzeti Tankönyvkiadó, Budapest, 1994. 169 o.
5. DUBIN F., BYBCINA: *Teaching English as a second Language*. Akadémia Kiadó, Budapest, 1991.
6. DORNYEI, Z. – THURRELL, S.: *Teaching conversational skills intensively: course content and rationale*. 1994, *ELT Journal* 48, 1. pp. 40-49.
7. ELLIS, R.: *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1994. pp. 94-184.
8. FINOCCHIARO, M.: *English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice*. Regent Publication, New York, 1964.
9. FINOCCHIARO, M., BONONO, M.: *The Foreign Language Learner: A Guide for Teachers*. Regent Publishing Company, New York, 1973.
10. HARMER, J.: *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Longman, Harlow, 2004.
11. JONES, PAULINE.: *Talking to Learn*. PETA , Melbourne, 1996. pp. 12–26.
12. LEE W. R.: *Language-Teaching Games and Contests*. Oxford University Press, London, 1966.
13. LUOMA, SARI: *Assessing Speaking*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2004.
14. MATHEIDES MÁRIA: *The Name of the Game ... Nyelvi játékok az angol nyelv tanításához*. Tankönyvkiadó, Budapest, 1987. 190-223 pp.
15. RICHARDS, J. C.: *The Language Teaching Matrix*. Cambridge University Press, New York, 1990. pp. 67–85.
16. RICHARDS, J. C., LOCKHART, CH.: *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*. Cambridge University Press, New York, 1994.

17. RICHARDS, J. C., RENANDYA, W.: *Methodology in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press, New York, 2002. pp. 225–234.
18. RICHARDS, J. C., RODGERS, T. S.: *Approches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1986.
19. SCHMIDT, R. W., FROTA, S. N: *Talking to learn* . Newbury House, Rowley ,1986. pp. 237-326.
20. SCHMITT, N. (ed.): *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics*. Arnold, London, 2002.
21. SINGLETON, D. : *Language Acquisition: The Age Factor*. Philadelphia: Multilingual MATTERS, CLEVEDON, 1989.
22. SCRIVENER JIM: *Learning Teaching. A Guidebook for English Language Teachers*. Macmillan Publishers Limited, Oxford, 1998. 218 pp.
23. STREVENS, P.: *New Orientation in the Teaching of English*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1977.
24. S. LÁNYI I., MEDGYES P.: *English Language Teaching*. Tankönyv Kiadó, Budapest, 1991.
25. UR, P.: *A Course in Language Teaching Practice and Theory*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1996.
26. WIDDOWSON, H. G.: *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1978.
27. WRIGHT, T.: *Roles of Teachers and Learners*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1987.
28. WRAGG, E. C., WOOD, E. K.: *Classroom Teaching Skills*. Croom Helm, London and Sydney, 1984. pp. 79-96.
29. ФАБІАН М.П. : *Місце етикетних слів у лексичній системі сучасної англійської мови*. Сучасні дослідження з іноземної філології Випуск 5.
30. МИГОЛИНЕЦЬ О.І.: *Про проблеми класифікації функціональних стилів у сучасній англійській мові*. Проблеми іноземної філології Випуск 5.

Висновки

У даній курсовій роботі досліджується питання навчання говоріння у старших класах ЗОШ (загальноосвітньої школи). Робота складається із двох розділів.

У першому розділі проведено аналіз літератури по даній темі.

Другий розділ-це практичне дослідження проблеми навчання говоріння у старших класах ЗОШ.

Роблячи підсумки даної роботи, можна сверджувати, що вивчення говоріння учнями старших класів є дуже клопіткою справою, яка поєднує в собі різні методи і стратегії навчання. Ми повинні розглянути декілька факторів, які впливають на те, як краще навчити підлітків. А які ж це повинні бути фактори для ефективнішого навчання і практики?

Виходячи з вище сказаного, більшість вчителів, які вчать саме у цих класах, роблять все для того, щоб краще ознайомити студентів з різними стратегіями навчання.

Отже, додаючи до теоретичних висновків і практичного дослідження, які я проводила з учителями, можу стверджувати, що досягла поставленої мети в курсовій роботі.

Appendix 1

Staff Questionnaire

(about the problems of teaching speaking in senior classes of secondary schools)

1. The name of the school: _____

2. Sex:

a) Female

b) Male

3. How many years have you been teaching English in secondary school?
_____year(s)

4. Which forms do you teach in?

5. Do you think it is important to organize teaching speaking in senior classes?

Yes

No

Why?

6. What problems have you recognized during the lessons? (Tick ✓)

a) students do not talk or say anything

b) when students work in pairs or groups they just end up chatting in
their own language

c) when all the students speak together it becomes too noisy and out of hand
and I lose control of the classroom

d) conflicts between the students/a student and the teacher

e) things take longer to achieve in the classroom

f) students seem tired or unwilling

g) students do not have a sense of respect

h) study problems

i) students want to use their own individual talent instead of taking
active part of the groupwork

j) others: _____

7. In your opinion which is the most and the least important of these problems? Why?

Explain it, please.

Main:

Least:

8. What exercises do you use when teaching speaking? (Tick ✓)

- a) information gap
- b) jigsaw
- c) role plays
- d) discussions
- e) brainstorm
- f) pairs interview
- g) pairs compare
- h) picture difference
- i) planning a holiday
- j) survival
- k) whole class puzzle
- l) others _____

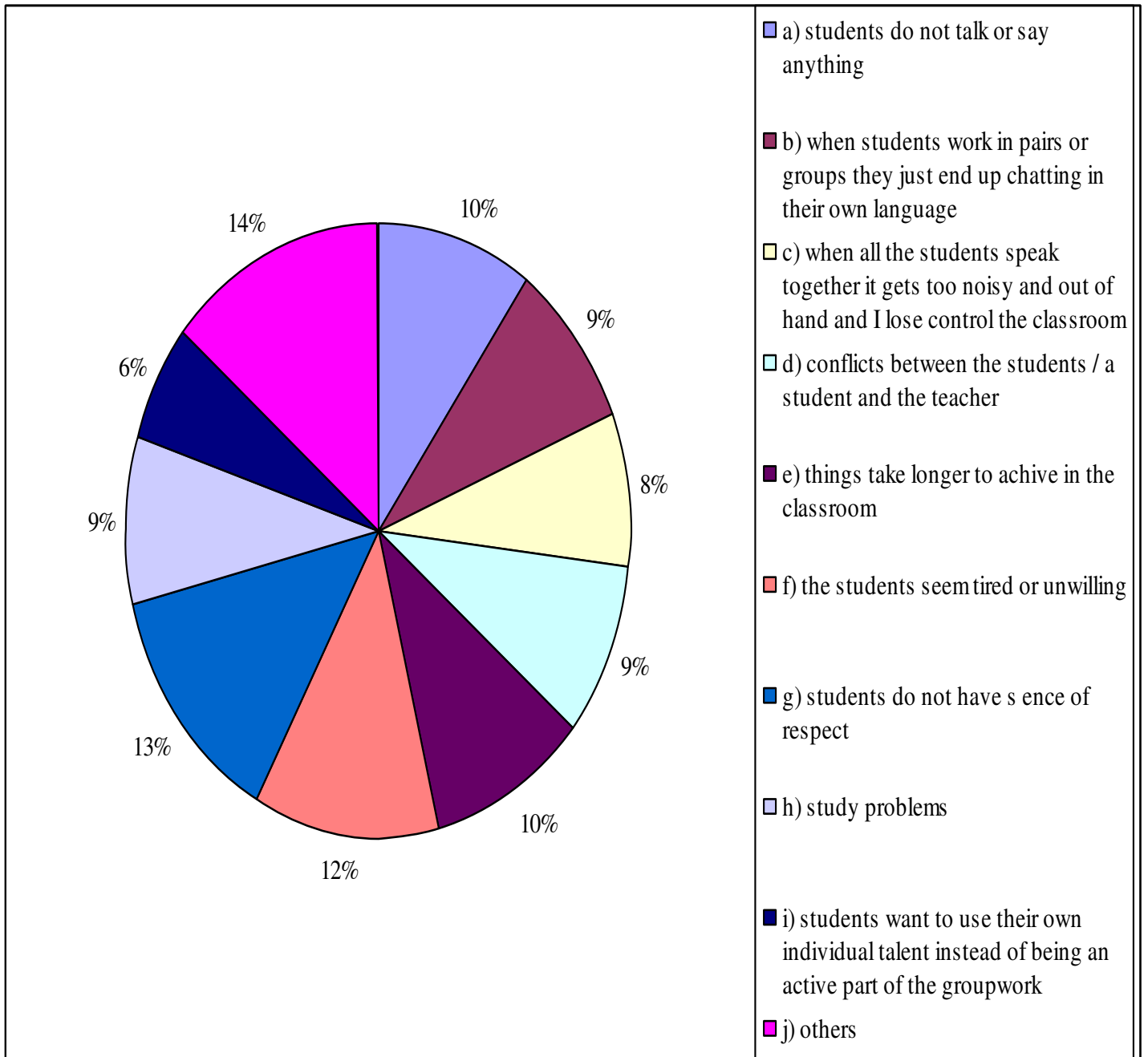
9. Which of these activities are the most effective ones? Why? Explain it, please.

10. Which exercises do the students mostly prefer? Why do they like it/them? Explain it/them, please.

Thank you for your answers!

Appendix 2.

Diagram 1.



Appendix 3.

Diagram 2.

