METHODS OF TEACHING

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ENGLISH

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МЕТОДИКА ОБУЧЕНИЯ АНГЛИЙСКОМУ ЯЗЫКУ

(на английском языке)

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Предлагаемая книга представляет собой курс лекций по методике преподавания английского языка и предназначена для студентов педагогических институтов.

В ней нашли отражение следующие вопросы: цели и задачи обучения иностранному языку, обзор основных направлений методики, содержание обучения, организация школьного обучения, контроль знаний учащихся, внеклассная работа, обучение иностранному языку дошкольников и младших школьников.

ОТ АВТОРА

Во многих педагогических институтах и на факультетах иностранных языков преподавание методики обучения английскому языку ведется на английском языке, в связи с чем возникла необходимость в создании учебного пособия "Methods of Teaching English". Пособие предназначено для студентов педвузов, однако оно может быть также использовано учителями английского языка в их практической работе.

"Methods of Teaching English" представляет собой курс лекций, читаемый автором на факультете английского языка МГПИ им. В. И. Ленина, и охватывает все основные разделы программы. В нем ставится цель, с одной стороны, изложить концепцию кафедры методики, выработанную на основе многолетней научно-исследовательской работы, с другой — помочь студентам овладеть методической и отчасти общепедагогической терминологией, встречающейся в английской литературе (для этого автор сознательно включает в книгу не один, а несколько терминов, существующих в английской методической литературе для передачи одного и того же понятия, например, для понимания речи со слуха используются слова: hearing, listening comprehension, auding, aural comprehension).

При изложении каждой темы автор придерживается следующего принципа: выделяются основные проблемы, с которыми сталкивается учитель при обучении иностранному языку в школе, раскрывается суть каждой из проблем, предлагается ее решение. Излагая материал, автор стремится показать, что действия учащихся с языковым материалом должны быть адекватны формируемой деятельности. Например, если употребление слов в речи связано с работой двух механизмов речи — отбором слов и включением их в высказывание (словесную цепь, по Н. И. Жинкину), то при изучении лексики упражнения должны быть направлены на то, чтобы учащиеся умели быстро находить в памяти нужное слово и употреблять его в связи с ситуациями общения. Или, если чтение связано с овладением графемно-фонемными соответствиями и расширением поля чтения, чтобы уметь быстро извлекать необходимую информацию из печатного текста, то и упражнения должны быть направлены на овладение техникой чтения вслух и про себя и на извлечение смысловой информации из текста.

Поскольку автор делает попытку предложить методическое решение, исходя из сути формируемой деятельности, то он счел возможным в данной работе ограничиться лишь принципиальным подходом к решению методических проблем. Что касается конкретных рекомендаций по работе в каждом классе школы, то они являются предметом обсуждения на практических занятиях и во время педагогической практики в школе. С этой целью в каждой главе книги студентам предлагается

серия вопросов-заданий для обсуждения и нахождения практического решения проблемы на конкретном материале, выбранном студентом или указанном преподавателем. Эти вопросы-задания можно также использовать в качестве тем для докладов на спецсеминаре, курсовых и дипломных работ.

Выбранный автором подход к раскрытию каждой темы, как представляется, позволяет изложить ее как нечто самостоятельное и законченное, а поэтому в случае использования пособия при чтении курса методики последовательность изложения тем может быть и иной.

Автор отнюдь не считает излагаемую в пособии концепцию единственно приемлемой. Он дает студентам возможность самостоятельно изучить, а затем подробно и аргументированно обсудить иные точки зрения по той или иной проблеме. В конце каждой главы дается список литературы, отражающей различные точки зрения по изложенной проблеме и конкретные вопросы для дискуссии.

В целях облегчения подготовки студентов к обсуждению темы на английском языке в книге дается список слов и выражений по курсу методики обучения иностранным языкам в школе (примерно 300 словарных статей, каждая из которых включает словосочетания, употребляемые в методической и педагогической литературе).

Книга состоит из 17 глав, библиографии и списка слов и выражений по методике обучения иностранным языкам в школе.

Автор выражает глубокую благодарность коллективам кафедры методики МГПИ им. В. И. Ленина, МГПИИЯ им. Мориса Тореза, а также А. П. Старкову, Л. П. Пушкаревой, А. Г. Гиляновой и Э. А. Яо за внимательное прочтение работы и ценные критические замечания.

Part One

GENERAL PROBLEMS
OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Chapter I

Methods of Foreign Language Teaching
and Its Relation to Other Sciences

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

(1) aims of teaching a foreign language;

(2) content of teaching, i. e. what to teach to attain the aims;

(3) methods and techniques of teaching, i. e. how to teach a foreign language to attain the aims in the most effective way.

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

P e d a g o g i c s is the science concerned with the teaching and education of the younger generation. Since Methods also deals with the problems of teaching and education, it is most closely related to pedagogics. To study foreign language teaching one must know pedagogics. One branch of pedagogics is called didactics. Didactics studies general ways of teaching in schools. Methods, as compared to didactics, studies the specific ways of teaching a definite subject. Thus, it may be considered special didactics. In the foreign language teaching, as well as in the teaching of mathematics, history, and other subjects taught in schools, general principles of didactics are applied and, in their turn, influence and enrich didactics. For example, the so-called "principle

of visualization" was first introduced in teaching foreign languages. Now it has become one of the fundamental principles of didactics and is used in teaching all school subjects without exception. Programmed instruction was first applied to teaching mathematics. Now through didactics it is used in teaching many subjects, including foreign languages.

Teaching a foreign language means first and foremost the formation and development of pupils' habits and skills in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. We cannot expect to develop such habits and skills of our pupils effectively if we do not know and take into account the p s y c h o l- o g y of habits and skills, the ways of forming them, the influence of formerly acquired habits on the formation of new ones, and many other necessary factors that psychology can supply us with. At present we have much material in the field of psychology which can be applied to teaching a foreign language. For example, N. I. Zhinkin, a prominent Soviet psychologist in his investigation of the mechanisms of speech came to the conclusion 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.

Effective learning of a foreign language depends to a great extent on the pupils' memory. That is why a teacher must know how he can help his pupils to successfully memorize and retain in memory the language material they learn. Here again psychological investigations are significant. For example, the Soviet psychologist, P. K. Zinchenko, proved that in learning a subject both voluntary and involuntary memory is of great importance. In his investigation of involuntary memory P. K. Zinchenko came to the conclusion that this memory is retentive. Consequently, in teaching a foreign language we should create favourable conditions for involuntary memorizing. P. K. Zinchenko showed that involuntary memorizing is possible only when

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pupils' attention is concentrated not on fixing the material in their memory through numerous repetitions, but on solving some mental problems which deal with this material. To prove this the following experiment was carried out. Students of group *A* were given a list of words to memorize (voluntary memorizing). Students of group *B* did not receive a list of words to memorize. Instead, they got an English text and some assignments which made them work with these words, use them in answering various questions. During the next lesson a vocabulary test was given to the students of both groups. The results were approximately the same. A test given a fortnight later proved, however, that the students of group *B* retained the words in their memory much better than the students of group *A*. This shows that involuntary memorizing may be more retentive under certain circumstances. Experiments by prominent scientists show that psychology helps Methods to determine the role of the mother tongue in different stages of teaching; the amount of material for pupils to assimilate at every stage of instruction; the sequence and ways in which various habits and skills should be developed; the methods and techniques which are more suitable for presenting the material and for ensuring its retention by the pupils, and so on.

Methods of foreign language teaching has a definite relation to p h y s i o l o g y of the higher nervous system. Pavlov's theories of "conditioned reflexes", of the "second signalling system" and of "dynamic stereotype" are the examples. Each of these interrelated theories bears a direct relation to the teaching of a foreign language.

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

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

Pavlov's theory of "dynamic stereotype" also furnishes the physiological base for many important principles of language teaching, e. g., for the topical vocabulary arrangement.

Methods of foreign language teaching is most closely related to l i n g u i s t i c s , since linguistics deals with the problems which are of paramount importance to Methods, with language and thinking, grammar and vocabulary, the relationship between grammar and vocabulary, and many others. Methods successfully uses, for example, the results of linguistic investigation in the selection and arrangement of language material for teaching. It is known that structural linguistics has had a great impact on language teaching. Teaching materials have been prepared by linguists and methodologists of the structural school. Many prominent linguists have not only developed the theory of linguistics, but tried to apply it to language teaching. The following quotation may serve as a proof of this:

"It has occurred to the linguist as well as to the psychologist that the foreign language classroom should be an excellent laboratory in which to test new theories of language acquisition." [1]

Methods of foreign language teaching like any other science, has definite ways of investigating the problems which may arise. They are:

(1) a critical study of the ways foreign languages were taught in our country and abroad;

(2) a thorough study and summing up of the experience of the best foreign language teachers in different types of schools;

(3) experimenting with the aim of confirming or refuting the working hypotheses that may arise during investi-

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[1] *Bosco F. J., Di Pietro R. J.* Instructional Strategies: Their Psychological and Linguistic Bases. — In: IRAL, v. VIII/1, 1970, p. 1.

gation. Experimenting becomes more and more popular with methodologists. In experimenting methodologists have to deal with different data, that is why in arranging research work they use mathematics, statistics, and probability theory to interpret experimental results.

In recent years there has been a great increase of interest in Methods since foreign language teaching has many attractions as an area for research. A great deal of useful research work has been carried out. New ideas and new data produced as the result of research are usually developed into new teaching materials and teaching techniques.

It should be said that we need research activities of the following types: descriptive research which deals with "what to teach"; experimental and instrumental research dealing with "how to teach". More research is now needed which compares different combination of devices, various teaching aids, etc.

Recommended Literature:

Anitchkov I., Saakyants V. Methods of Teaching English in Secondary Schools. М. — Л., „Просвещение", 1966, с. 11—26.

Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. Под ред. А. А. Миролюбова, И. В. Рахманова, В. С. Цетлин. М., 1967, с. 83—111.

Беляев Б. В. Очерки по психологии обучения иностранным языкам. М., 1965, с. 5—10.

Леонтьев А. А. Психолингвистические единицы и порождение речевого высказывания. М., 1969, гл. IV, § 4; Язык, речь, речевая деятельность. М., 1969, гл. IV, § 1.

Ляховицкий М. В. О сущности и специфике экспериментального исследования в методике обучения иностранному языку. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1969, № 4.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Compare several viewpoints on Methods as a science.
2. Give reasons to confirm that Methods is an independent science.
   — Methods possesses its own field of research. True or false?
   — Methods is interrelated with other sciences and is fed by them. In what way?
   — Methods utilizes various kinds of scientific investigation. Consider the kinds you find justifiable.

Chapter II

A Brief Review
on Foreign Language Teaching

INTRODUCTION

A student who starts studying Methods will be puzzled by the variety of "methods" he may come across in books and journals and, of course, there are good grounds for this. At different periods, depending on the aims of teaching and learning a foreign language, new methods sprang up. In each case the method received a certain name; sometimes its name denoted logical categories, for example: the synthetic method (synthesis), the analytic method (analysis), the deductive method (deduction), the inductive method (induction), [1] sometimes the method was named after the aspect of the language upon which attention was focused as in the cases of the grammar method, the lexical method, the phonetic method. A third set of methods received their names from the skill which was the main object of teaching. Among these are the translation method (translation), the oral method (oral language). Sometimes the method got its name from the psychology of language learning: in this category the following names occur: the intuitive method, the conscious method, the direct method. Finally, the method was sometimes named after its inventor. Thus we find: the Amos Comenius method, the Jacotot method, the Gouin method, the Berlitz method, the Palmer (West, Fries) method.

In some cases the methods bear coupled names: they represent two sides of teaching, for example, the leading aspect of the language and the skill the pupils acquire (the grammar-translation method), or the name of the author and the language activity which is the main aim in teaching — "Fries oral method", "the method of teaching reading by West". We may find even such names as "hear-say-see-say-read-write method" [2] and others.

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[1] See: *Грузинская И. А.* Методика преподавания английского языка. М., 1938, гл. 1.

[2] *Foster D. P., Williams C. M.* Aural-Oral-Written Versus Aural-Oral in Teaching Spanish to Fourth Grades. — "The Modern Language Journal", 1960, No. 4.

It would be impracticable in a short chapter such as this one to give a classification of methods. All that one can hope to do is to select for comment those methods which have had a long history and have influenced the contemporary methods of foreign language teaching, and live on in them. This brief review will deal with:

(1) the grammar-translation method, the oldest method of teaching foreign languages which had its origin in Latin schools;

(2) the direct method which began to be widely used in schools in the 1870's;

(3) contemporary methods.

THE GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD

The grammar-translation method was widely used in teaching the classics, namely Latin, and it was transferred to the teaching of modern languages when they were introduced into schools, first as an optional and then as a compulsory subject. In teaching a foreign language by means of the grammar-translation method attention was paid to the assimilation of grammar rules of the foreign language that pupils studied. The vocabulary was "tuned up" to grammar. Translation was extensively utilized both as a means of explanation of new words, grammar forms, and structures, and as a means of mastering the foreign language, all exercises for assimilating the language material being limited to translation from the mother tongue into the foreign language and from the foreign language into the mother tongue.

The distinguishing features of the grammar-translation method are (1) insistence upon grammatical analyses and (2) the assumption that grammatical categories can be defined in general terms with reference to meaning, the grammatical categories being the common denominator of all languages. According to the grammar-translation method the best way to say a sentence in a foreign language is to start with a sentence in the mother tongue, analyze it grammatically into such components as subject, i. e., one who performs the action, predicate, that which denotes the action, object, that which receives the action, etc. If necessary pupils go on with the analyses, for example, they name tense, mood, etc. Then the pupil is told to find the

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corresponding forms in the foreign language. Sounds, morphemes, words are always considered peculiar to one language alone, but the syntax, the patterns of language are thought of as universals that will allow the pupil to pass from one language to another. It is well known that many patterns of a foreign language do not conform to those of the native language, and these contrasting patterns have to be learned as "exceptions", i. e., exceptions of the one language from the stand point of the other language.

The grammar-translation method in its orthodox form was practised in schools in the 18th and 19th centuries. The development of pedagogics, psychology and linguistics brought changes in the grammar-translation method. It was greatly modified at the end of the 19th century and in the 20th century, and, first of all, these modifications dealt with the approach to the relationship of "two grammars". Instead of forcing the target language into the mold of the learner's native language, the "grammars" are compared with the result of better comprehension and retention in all points of difference and interference.

The grammar-translation method is often mentioned even nowadays when one wants to emphasize a traditional approach to foreign language teaching. The textbook is the essential teaching aid. The assumption is that proficiency in the language can be acquired by learning a set of grammatical rules, to which the language is supposed to conform, and that by mechanically applying these rules speed and fluency will grow with the use of the language. Primary objectives are mastery of the graphic skills, i. e., reading and writing, with secondary attention to hearing and speaking. Language performance in the classroom takes the form of reading, translating, and the working out of various exercises which require the application of grammar rules to selected data.

THE DIRECT METHOD

The direct method appeared as a reaction against the grammar-translation method.

The prerequisites that brought about the appearance of new method are as follows. The rapid development of various branches of industry and the tremendous development of international trade and colonial expansion required plenty

of officials who had a practical mastery of the language, people who could speak and write a foreign language and be able to communicate with foreigners. Therefore practical mastery of a foreign language becomes the main purpose of teaching this subject at school. The rapid development of pedagogics, psychology, namely, apperceptive psychology, and linguistics promoted the appearance of new methods. [1]

The characteristic features of the direct method are as follows:

(1) the practical direction in the teaching of foreign languages which is understood as teaching language skills and speaking in particular, therefore spoken language becomes the basis of teaching;

(2) the ignoring of the existence of the mother tongue as it is assumed that learning the mother tongue and learning a foreign language are similar processes, merely undertaken at different ages;

(3) restricted application or very often complete elimination of translation as a means of teaching a language which plays a leading part in the grammar-translation method; instead of translation, visual aids and various oral and written exercises are recommended on a large scale;

(4) the inductive approach to teaching grammar, i. e., the learner may discover the rules of grammar for himself after he has become acquainted with many examples (in the grammar-translation method the rule is first stated, and then sentences embodying the rule are studied; later the rule is put into practice by writing new sentences, generally by translating sentences from the mother tongue into the foreign language);

(5) great care in teaching pronunciation throughout the course, and especially the first weeks and months; correct pronunciation must be constantly practised since comprehension and speaking is possible if the learner has adequate pronunciation in the target language;

(6) great attention to the subjects of the texts, especially a topical arrangement of the material with the purpose of ensuring speech development.

The method is called direct because in teaching a foreign language an attempt is made to establish a direct connection

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[1] See: Основные направления в методике преподавания иностранных языков в XIX—XX вв. Под ред. чл.-кор. АПН СССР И. В. Рахманова. М., „Педагогика", 1972, с. 27—52.

between a foreign word and the thing or notion it denotes without the aid of the native language.

At the end of the 19th and in the beginning of the 20th century there appeared several varieties of the direct method which differed only in some details. The most orthodox advocates of the direct method were F. Gouin, M. Berlitz, M. Walter, B. Eggert. [1]

The teachers who accepted the method, involve the pupil from the first step of learning a new language in conversation and supply meaning by referring directly to objects and picture charts; they act out the meaning of sentences in order to make themselves understood.

The direct method found ready supporters. It stimulated enormously the pupil's curiosity to learn and make progress. But there were too many difficulties in the use of the method, the main of them being the following:

1. No scientific principles were applied to selection of study material and vocabulary in particular. The only principle applied was the topical one, i. e., the material was arranged in topics. As a result of such arrangement of vocabulary, the pupil had to assimilate a great number of words. For example, in textbooks compiled according to F. Gouin system the vocabulary listed 8 000 words.

2. School conditions did not favour the development of pupils' speech habits (too few periods a week, overcrowded classes, lack of visual materials, etc.).

3. In the hands of inexperienced and ill-equipped teachers the direct method did not work and the teachers had to return to the old grammar-translation method.

However during the period between the two wars it became possible to revive the main principles of the direct method: (a) by careful experimentation; (b) by taking note of the new developments in the field of linguistics (Ferdinand de Saussure) [2] and psychology (Thorndike) [3]; (c) by insisting that clear statements be made as to the aims and objectives of teaching.

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[1] See: *Рахманов И. В.* Очерки по истории методики преподавания новых западноевропейских иностранных языков. М., 1947, с. 84—109.

[2] Ferdinand de Saussure (1857—1915), a distinguished Swiss professor of Sanskrit at Geneva. His *Course de Linguistique Générale* (1916), posthumously edited from his students' lecture notes, is one of the foremost works giving stimulus and direction to modern linguistics.

[3] Thorndike Edward Lee (1874—1949), an American psychologist, -professor, author of *The Psychology of Learning* (1914), *The Measurement of Intelligence* (1926), *Fundamentals of Learning*, etc.

This was done by H. Palmer and M. West, prominent English methodologists.

The main points in P a l m e r's m e t h o d are:

1. In learning a foreign language the pupil must tread the path he has followed in acquiring the mother tongue, i. e., starting with oral language.

2. The teaching of a foreign language must be based upon carefully selected material. H. Palmer was one of the first methodologists who tried to work out the principles of vocabulary selection on a scientific basis. A special Research Institute was established in Tokyo and H. Palmer headed this Institute. The results of the work was a 3 000 word minimum vocabulary list.

3. Great attention should be given to the rationalization of study material to make the assimilation of a foreign language easier.

H. Palmer compiles a series of study guides for teaching oral language:

English Through Actions — where a system of excercise drills based upon the concrete showing of things and actions is given.

100 Substitution Tables — in which typical English sentences (sentence patterns) are arranged in tables for pupils to make up their own sentences, following the pattern. Since *Substitution Tables* is one of the innovations introduced by H. Palmer and they are widely used in contemporary methods, it is relevant to mention what such tables allow the learner to do while using them:

1. To present the most frequently used English words and word groups in such a manner as to form the greatest number of useful sentences of general application.

2. To serve as practical ear-training exercises, by the use of which the student will come to understand the most rapid speech.

3. To serve as a series of pronunciation exercises, by the use of which the student will acquire fluency and rapidity of expression with the appropriate stress and intonation.

4. To provide a simple context for each word in such a way as to encourage the student to learn words not as isolated elements but as component parts of sentences.

5. To serve as a simple scheme for analysis in which the function of the various parts of speech and the nature of group-words are clearly shown.

6. To offer an extensive choice of model sentences to be memorized providing a simple means for converting each memorized sentence into a vast number of others.

7. To enable the teacher to react against five of the ten vicious evils, to which most of all language students are subject, namely:

(a) literal translation from the mother tongue,

(b) artificial separation of words,

(c) non-recognition of group-words,

(d) preference for strong forms,

(e) over-reliance on visual memory.

8. To form the basis of a series of progressive exercises in the grammar inflexions and semantics of spoken English.

9. To serve as vocabulary and phrase-book, to be used with a key in the mother tongue for those who find it necessary or more convenient to study without a teacher. [1]

Here is an example from the tables:

I	saw	two	books	here	yesterday
You	put	three	letters	there	last week
We	left	a few	keys	on the table	on Sunday
They	found	some	good ones	in this box	this morning

This table will yield 4 096 perfectly rational sentences.

Systematic Exercises in English Pronunciation. In this book a graded system of exercises in pronunciation is presented.

Standard English Reader contains easy material which gradually becomes more complicated and interesting to read. The material is based on selected vocabulary.

English Through Questions and Answers is attached to these readers.

The books present a gradual transition from simple to complex questions on every text. Later on the books *Graded Exercises in English Composition* are added. These books contain various grammar and vocabulary exercises on each text of the *Standard Readers.*

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[1] See: *Palmer H.* Colloquial English. Part I. 100 Substitution Tables. Cambridge, 1916, p. V—VI.

Teaching is a long chain of stimuli applied by the teacher and a response chain of students' reactions. In learning a foreign language the students pass through the following stages.

1. R e c e p t i v e   w o r k   when the students only assimilate the teacher's speech:

(a) *Subconscious comprehension.* The teacher speaks. The students listen to his speech. There is no reaction on the part of the learners. They are plunged into a sea of foreign language sounds. For example, the teacher speaks pointing to objects and moving about the classroom.

> This is a book and that is a box. — Look at the book. Look at the box. — I am going to put the book on the table and the box on the chair. — Where's the book now? — It's on the table. — And the box? — It's on the chair. Is the book on the table? — Yes, it is. Is the book on the chair? — No, it isn't. The box is on the chair. — Now look at me; I am going to open the book and to open the box. — There! The book's open and so is the box. Now I am going to open the door. — Etc., etc. [1]

(b) *Conscious comprehension.* The teacher speaks; the pupils are given a definite assignment, for example, "Pay attention to intonation".

(c) *Exercises in fulfilment of instructions.* The teacher orders a pupil to do something. The pupil does it silently. In this way he shows that he has understood the teacher's order or request in the English language.

> Get up. Sit down. Get up. Come here. Go there. — over there. — to the door. — to the window. — to the blackboard. — to the table. Go back to your place. Sit down. [2]

At first the teacher accompanies his verbal command by gestures. Then he stops the gestures so that the pupil reacts to the verbal signals without visual props.

(d) *"Yes" and "No" work.* The teacher asks a question, the students answer "yes", or "no". In this way the students' comprehension is checked.

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[1] See: *Palmer H.* The Oral Method of Teaching Languages. Cambridge, 1921, p. 41—42. The book has been translated into Russian and published in our country in 1960.

[2] Ibid., p. 56.

In all the exercises mentioned above comprehension is ensured by vivid and visual presentation of the material by the teacher, by his demonstration where necessary of the actions required, and by arranging the pupil's activity in using material.

2. R e c e p t i v e - i m i t a t i v e w o r k. The teacher speaks. The students repeat certain speech units after him (Parrot work, as H. Palmer calls it). These may be:

(a) exercises in repetition of separate sounds and sound combinations;

(b) exercises in repetition of words and sentences;

(c) simple substitution tables. The teacher does his best to create conditions in which the students will not make mistakes in their speech.

3. C o n v e n t i o n a l c o n v e r s a t i o n. The students learn how to ask and answer questions of the following three types: general, alternative and special. For better assimilation of the material, teaching is conducted in consecutive order, i. e., they are taught how to ask questions of one type at a time. Finally, questions are asked at random.

For example: What can I do if I have a pen? knife? piece of chalk? etc. [1]

4. N o r m a l c o n v e r s a t i o n. The teacher and the pupils carry on a 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 end." 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 care of themselves."

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

In contrast to H. Palmer, M. W e s t proposes to begin by teaching to read. In support of such 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

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[1] *Palmer H*. The Oral Method of Teaching Languages. Cambridge, 1921, p. 69.

brought into easy contact with world culture it is necessary to begin by teaching 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 informational and scientific deficiency of his national literature. [1]

2. Reading is the easiest aspect of the language to acquire, for reading involves no active use of grammar and idioms and the memory of the vocabulary is merely recognition. M. West says [2] 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 and a feeling of what is idiomatic which would 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, supplementary 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, Book One* and *Book Two*. His book *Teaching English in Difficult Circumstances* was translated into Russian. [3]

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

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[1] *West M.* Bilingualism. Calcutta, 1926, Chapter V.

[2] *West M.* Learning to Read a Foreign Language. London, 1941, p. 3—6.

[3] *Уэст М.* Обучение английскому языку в трудных условиях. М., 1967.

1. They have raised the problem of careful selection of language material, worked out criteria of selection, and selected the material.

2. They have raised the problem of the necessity for rationalizing teaching materials and worked out systems of foreign language teaching: H. Palmer — speaking, M. West — both reading and speaking.

3. They have compiled series of guide books: H. Palmer for teaching speaking; M. West for teaching reading and speaking.

4. They have introduced a lot of new and effective exercises: H. Palmer for the development of speaking skills, M. West for the development of reading skills and comprehension of a foreign text as well as for the development of speaking.

CONTEMPORARY METHODS

All the points mentioned above are undergoing further development in contemporary Methods [1] abroad.

There are many methods of language teaching and a considerable amount of controversy as to the best way of foreign languages teaching abroad at present. However it is possible to group them into (1) traditional methods which have their origin in the grammar-translation method, and (2) audio-lingual methods which are considered to be a further development of the direct method line.

The traditional approach to foreign language teaching is characterized by (1) the use of the native language for explanation, retention and checking; (2) the deductive explanation of grammar and the use of grammar exercises; (3) the development of all the language skills, i. e., hearing, speaking, reading, and writing from the beginning of the course. This approach is called t r a d i t i o n a l because it has been prevalent in schools for a long time. The traditional methods,

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[1] It does not mean, of course, that there have been only these two methodologists who have contributed to the theory and practice of foreign language teaching in the direct method line. The choice bears rather a subjective than an objective character. H. Palmer and M. West have proposed complete systems of teaching English as a foreign language, and it is this language which is taught in the majority of schools in the Soviet Union. Besides, some of their books are available for students and teachers of English as they have been published in our country.

although they are adopting some kinds of innovation in teaching techniques and teaching materials, still retain those distinguishing characteristics which were mentioned above. Since these methods are often contrasted with a u-d i o - l i n g u a l methods, and the latter are considered to be contemporary·ones, we shall dwell upon the audio-lingual methods more thoroughly.

The main features of the contemporary methods are:

1. The development of audio-lingual skill first, i. e., listening comprehension and speaking, that is why the methods are called audio-lingual. [1] The justification of the priority of spoken language in foreign language learning is found in the observation that a language is first of all a system of sounds used for social communication; writing is a secondary derivative system people use for the recording of spoken language. Children normally learn spoken language before they learn written language. Even if the learner's aim is only to read or write the language he can attain a surer mastery of the foreign language if he passes through a substantial stage of work with the spoken language. It is thought that reading and writing might, at least in the beginning, interfere with the development of audio-lingual skills, and that especially the use of writing may lead to spelling pronunciation. The amount of delay between presentation of the spoken and the written material may vary from a short time to a very long time which depends on the aim of teaching, the student's age, the organization of the course, the conditions of instruction, etc.

2. Great care in teaching speaking so that the learner could use the spoken forms as accurately as possible, that is, with native-like sentence patterns and pronunciation. For this purpose the student should have some adequate model of speech — preferably in the person of a native or near-native speaker of the language, or in the form of a faithfully recorded voice of such a speaker. This is now becoming possible because of modern teaching equipment such as radio, television, language laboratories, and teaching machines.

3. The rejection of translation as the main tool of instruction. All the exercises performed by the student are usually within the target language. The use of the student's

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[1] Another name for the method is the confusing homophony of the phrase aural-oral.

native language is minimized. It is admitted to supply meaning to the student, although, even in this case the target language supported by whatever props, pictorial materials, or pantomimic gestures, is preferred.

4. Teaching grammar through pattern practice. The grammatical exercises usually take the form of drills in which the student is asked to substitute words for other words, or to make changes in sentences, e. g., from singular to plural, from past to present, from active to passive, following the model. Grammatical descriptions of patterns are taught only after the patterns are well on the way to being mastered at a purely oral level, and then only when it is felt that such descriptions will hasten the learning process or help ensure retention. Pattern practice with varying elements provides drill in the conscious application of structural elements and leads the student to the "automatic" use of the structural patterns. Such an approach to teaching grammar is justified on the basis of theories and observations as to how children learn their mother tongue, and how they use well-practised patterns of their native language.

5. Extensive use of "real-life" communication situations for stimulating the student's language activity. This is done to involve the student in the act of communication in the target language, and in this way to arouse his interest in language learning and increase his motivation. Modern teaching aids and teaching materials make such situations accessible, e. g., a filmstrip with foreign language sound track can represent realistic situations and context and "engage" the student in conversations.

6. The development of reading and writing first using the linguistic material the student has learned orally, and then the material characteristic of written language with the aim of getting information (reading) and sending information (writing).

These features of contemporary methods may be illustrated by *Voix et images de France* [1] and Fries' *American English Series*.

Voix et images de France is a French course which has been worked out by the Research Centre in Saint Cloud in France. The method is known as the Saint Cloud audio-visual method. The situations and speech patterns have been carefully se-

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[1] „Голос и образ Франции.“

lected. All these are reproduced by native speakers. Students "receive" the material through audio and visual perception, i. e., they see a picture (a series of pictures) on a screen or in the book and listen to the conversation from a tape-recorder. They assimilate the material by memorizing the language and the situations in which this material can be used. The work takes the student through the following stages: (1) r e c e p t i v e   s t a g e: the student listens to the conversation 2—3 times and tries to grasp it; (2) r e p r o d u c-t i v e   s t a g e: the student reproduces the phrases and sentences said by the speakers. Typically the material memorized consists of dialogues that the student can act out. The whole course includes a lot of conversations within a set of everyday situations. Students are taught reading and writing after they have acquired habits and skills in hearing and speaking. The method is popular with foreigners who come to France. [1] The course has been created for adult learners. It is an intensive course, i. e., students learn a foreign language for 3—6 months 20—25 hours a week, therefore it cannot be utilized in schools.

Fries' *American English Series* is a course of English as a foreign language. The material, carefully selected for easy assimilation, is distributed throughout the six textbooks. Each book is supplied with a guide book for teachers. There are many interesting exercises of a creative character which contrast favourably with H. Palmer's exercises. Palmer's exercises are known to be mechanical and they require "parrot work" on the part of the learner. Here are some of the exercises from *Book One* and *Book Two* which pupils can do after they have learned the material orally.

— Draw a picture of an animal. Colour it and write two statements about it.
— Write statements. Tell five things you do every day, and five things you did yesterday.
— Make statements about the objects that your teacher shows you.
— Plan a lunch for one day of the week.
— Write a paragraph on the blackboard about one

[1] See: *Вениери Т. Ю.* Ускоренный метод обучения иностранному языку. — „Иностранные языки в школе“, 1964, № 6; *Ляховицкий М. В.* Зрительно-слуховой метод и вопросы обучения иноязычной речи. — „Иностранные языки в школе“, 1965, № 5.

of the pupils in your class. Write two paragraphs about yourself.

— Write a paragraph about one of these pictures (*3 pictures are displayed*).

Play a guessing game with your teacher.

— Write a sentence about five people you know.

— Write as many sentences as you can about one of the rooms.

— Tell the class what you, some members of your family or a friend did yesterday morning, yesterday afternoon and last night.

— Guess what pupils in your class were doing at a certain time.

Charles Fries called his method "the oral approach" because pupils get acquainted with language material "through the ear".

He wrote, "... no matter if the final desire is only to read the foreign language, the mastery of the fundamentals of the language — the structure and the sound system with a limited vocabulary — must be through speech. Speech is the language. The written record is but a secondary representation of the language."[1] In the oral approach reading is deliberately postponed until the structure of the new language is firmly grasped. The language of the pupil is avoided as much as possible; it is admitted when necessary, to make sure that explanations are thoroughly understood. Fries emphasizes that "in teaching by 'the oral approach' there should be widely used every means which can be made to contribute to learning a language: the living voice, mechanical records, sound films, manuals, textbooks, written notes, written exercises." However "the oral approach" centres attention upon learning a language as a set of symbols to be spoken and understood when heard, i. e., upon oral language.

There are quite a number of prominent methodologists[2] who have contributed to foreign language teaching, and

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[1] *Fries C.* Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language. Univ. of Michigan, 1947, p. 10.

[2] See: *French F.* The Teaching of English Abroad. London, 1961; *Hornby A.* The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns. London, 1959; *Abercrombie D.* Problems and Principles. Language Study. Longmans, London, 1964; *Lado R.* Language Teaching. New York, 1964; *Brooks N.* Language and Language Learning. New York, 1960.

English in particular. Some of the most interesting articles and chapters from well-known books have been translated into Russian and published under the title „Методика преподавания иностранных языков за рубежом". Сост. М. М. Васильева, Е. В. Синявская. М., 1967.

In conclusion, it should be said that between the grammar-translation method however modified and the direct method in various modifications there have been mixed or in-between methods. The advocates of the latter methods try to avoid the extremes of the former. "Language Learning" by Peter Hagboldt is an example of such a method. [1]

It is not our purpose here to analyze teaching methods and weigh their relative merits since this may be a subject for special papers [2] and investigations. Besides there is a special book in which all these methods are thoroughly discussed. [3]

We have only introduced teaching methods to those who are going to become teachers of foreign languages, or already teach them in schools, so that they might learn their main characteristics and could read articles and books on foreign language teaching in the English language.

The chief tendency in the development of Methods abroad may be characterized by a scientific approach to the teaching of foreign languages, extensive use of linguistic science, psychology, psycholinguistics, and experimenting. The progress made in the sphere of phonetics, vocabulary, and grammar study has shed fresh light on the content of teaching, i. e., on what to teach, what linguistic material should be used for developing audio-lingual skills and written language (reading and writing). Different approaches are followed in the selection of linguistic material for teaching speaking and reading; for the former, recorded speech should be analysed with the aim of selecting those language units which are characteristic of spoken language and are necessary to cover

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[1] The book has been translated into Russian. See: Хэгболдт П. Изучение иностранных языков. М., 1963.

[2] The reader can find a critical analysis in the paper "On Some Contemporary Trends in Foreign Language Teaching" by Oleg Mutt in "Metodika". Tartu, 1972.

[3] See: Основные направления в методике преподавания иностранных языков в XIX—XX вв. Под ред. чл.-кор. АПН СССР И. В. Рахманова. М., „Педагогика", 1972.

the most frequently used situations; [1] for the latter, printed texts are analysed and the occurrences of words, phraseological units, and grammatical structures are counted in order to select those which the learner needs to read foreign texts.

The practical application of some theoretical views of American descriptive structural linguists and psychologists, such as the primacy of the spoken over the written language, has led to the oral approach to foreign language teaching; the treatment of language as a complex of habits and skills, as a form of social behaviour, has been realized in teaching a foreign language as behaviour, i. e., a reaction of the organism as a whole to a social environment. The learner should know what a native speaker's response would be in a certain situation.

In his article *Learning English as Behaviour* [2] M. West gives the following examples of wrong and right responses:

W r o n g	R i g h t
What's this? This is a book.	What's this? It's a book.
Where is the book? The book is on the table.	Where is the book? It's on the table (or: On the table.)
How many books are there on the table? There are three books on the table.	How many books are there on the table? There are three. (or: Three.)

He says that those who merely learn the language as a form of verbal expression cannot gain an understanding of foreign people. In order to understand the English it is not enough to know what they speak but how they speak, or rather how they converse. In a behavioural method of teaching it is necessary to combine a correct and systematic build-up of linguistic elements (structures and carefully selected vocabulary) and a vital and behavioural use of the language. This is possible provided real and close-to-real situations are created. So situational approach in foreign language teaching is essential. "Ideally one needs television or a film so that

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[1] See, for example: *Abercrombie D., Gougeneim G.* — In: „Методика преподавания иностранных языков за рубежом". М., 1967.
[2] See: *West M.* Learning English as Behaviour. — "English Language Teaching", v. 15, 1960, No. 1.

the pupil may not merely hear how the English language is behaved but see it behaved as well." [1]

The behaviouristic stimulus-response and reinforcement theory in psychology adopted by foreign language teaching has resulted in repetitive drill of certain patterns of language or in pattern practice; for this purpose language laboratories, programmed instruction, and other innovations have been offered. However, this has not brought the results which were promised and expected. Here is what American methodologists write on the point, "The 'New Look' proposed by theoretical linguists in the 1950's, the audio-lingual method, has not lived up to expectations, the NDEA [2] institutes failed to stimulate major improvements in language learning, the language laboratories have not become efficient replacements for live teachers, and, as a result, a great many students — and an increasing number of administrators — are actively questioning the relevance of foreign language in modern education. ... the opposition to the school learning of foreign languages is being generated by the failure to make language programs a meaningful, satisfactory, and successful learning experience." [3]

In the past few years the stimulus response theory (as applied to education) has begun to be strongly criticized by psychologists and by the teachers and students themselves. [4] As a consequence of this criticism the cognitive code-learning theory has been proposed. According to the cognitive code-theory a language is more than a system of habits which can be formed through repetitive drill. It is a specific system and the learner should know how this system works in actual communication. Cognitive processes imply recognition of form, perception of meaning, relations of universals and particulars, [5] generalization, and analogization. Since the cognitive code-learning approach is characterized by the

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[1] Ibid., p. 8.

[2] NDEA — National Defence Education Act.

[3] Bull W. E. and Lamadrid E. E. Our Grammar Rules Are Hurting Us. — "The Modern Language Journal", v. LV, 1971, No. 6, p. 449.

[4] See: Carroll J. B. The Contributions of Psychological Theory and Educational Research to the Teaching of Foreign Languages. — In: Trends of Language Teaching. Ed. A. Valdman. New York, 1966; Bolinger D. Let's Change Our Base of Operation. — "The Modern Language Journal", v. LV, 1971, No. 3.

[5] Relations of universals and particulars — отношения общего и частного.

use of exercises designed to teach grammatical understanding of the concepts being introduced; by the deductive explanation of all grammar prior to any practice with the structure; and by the practice of all the language skills from the beginning of the course, [1] it is considered a more modern and sophisticated version of the grammar-translation method.

The results of scientific analysis of the contrasts between the learner's language and the target language are taken into consideration in the arrangement of the material and the pupil's activity for its retention, because the typical learner's difficulties can be identified and predicted in advance on the basis of contrastive analysis in phonology, structure, semantics, and culture.

The development of engineering has made possible the introducing of new teaching aids and teaching materials: television courses, tape lessons, audio-visual courses; programmed instruction is being introduced into foreign language teaching. Textbooks have appeared which differ greatly from those used before; each new textbook is only a part of the teaching materials designed for a partucular set of pupils.

Considerable attention is given to testing in foreign language teaching, to measuring pupils' aptitudes and achievements in language learning. [2] Various tests have been suggested for measuring pupils' knowledge of vocabulary and structures, their comprehension of oral language and written language. Most of them are very primitive and inadequate. The problem of testing, because of the complexity of the subject, is still far from being solved.

There is a tendency towards more intensive language teaching since the requirement for people who can use a foreign language as a means of communication is increasing from year to year. To prove this we shall quote words which sound like a motto "more people, more often and more speedily". [3]

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[1] See: *Chastain K. D. and Woerdehoff F. S.* A Methodological Study Comparing the Audio-Lingual Habit Theory and the Cognitive Code-Learning Theory. — "The Modern Language Journal", v. LII, 1968, No. 5.

[2] See: *Lado R.* Language Testing: the Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests. London, 1962; Language Testing Symposium. Ed. Alan Davies. Oxford University Press, London, 1968; *Stack E. M.* The Language Laboratory and Modern Language Teaching. London, 1971, Chapters X, XI.

[3] *Van Willigen D. M.* Modern Languages in a Technical Age. — "Modern Languages", March, 1963, p. 7.

In this connection various intensive courses (in which the total number of hours of instruction is concentrated within a short period of time, for instance, 10, 20 or 30 hours per week instead of four or five) are suggested. The idea of greater intensity of teaching than is usually accepted has been borne out as a result of experimenting at various centres. The Intensive Course is an example. [1] The Intermediate Course, for instance, provides material designed for approximately four weeks of intensive study. It is recommended that each study unit be used for four to six hours of combined classroom and language laboratory work. The course consists of thirty lessons. They are of three types: lessons that introduce new reading and dialogue materials; lessons that provide dialogue practice, as well as intonation, pronunciation, and grammar drill; and two review lessons. All the materials except those marked Classroom Practice and Homework Only are recorded on tape.

In conclusion, we may say that much effort is being expended on the development of more effective methods of foreign language teaching and, although practical results are not yet encouraging, as one can judge from different publications on Methods, [2] one can hope that a scientific approach to foreign language teaching will bring considerable improvement.

SOVIET METHOD
OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

A scientific approach to foreign language teaching has always been followed in the Soviet Union. [3] Every pupil has to learn a foreign language and acquire habits and skills in using it. As early as 1932 the Decree of the Central Committee of the USSR Communist Party emphasized:

[1] Intensive Course in English. Volume I, Intermediate; Volume II and III, Advanced; Volume IV, Specialized Studies. English Language Services, Washington, 1960.

[2] See: *Savage J. F.* Whatever Happened to the Grammatical Revolution? — "Elementary English", v. 49, 1972, No. 4, p. 559. He writes: "We've had the revolution in theory but not the revolution in practice."

[3] *Карпов И. В., Миролюбов А. А.* Сорок лет советской методике преподавания иностранных языков. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1957, № 5; *Рогова Г. В.* Итоги и перспективы. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1967, № 5.

„Признать необходимым, чтобы средняя школа обязательно обеспечила знание одного иностранного языка каждому оканчивающему школу".

Since then intensive research work has been carried out in this field. As a result our schools have received new courses adjusted to the needs of Soviet schooling; various textbooks and books on the improvement of teaching methods have been published.

Further development of foreign language teaching has been encouraged by the Decree of the Council of Ministers of the USSR "On Improving Foreign Language Learning" adopted in 1961. This gave rise to extensive research work with the emphasis on experimentation. The result is new textbooks and a whole series of supplementary teaching materials now in use in schools. These are the main features of the method which we believe may be recommended for the teaching of foreign languages in schools: [1]

1. The aims of our teaching are practical, educational and cultural. The teaching of a foreign language must first and foremost lead pupils to practical mastery of it. There are four abilities to train: hearing, speaking, reading, writing with understanding as the main ingredient in each.[2] This indicates that the teacher's chief concern should not be only over difficulties of pronunciation, the growth of vocabulary or grammar, but over language abilities, that is, over getting pupils' language abilities into action. The learning of any new language can add to the pupil's mental equipment, sharpen his wits and develop his intelligence. Foreign language teaching in schools should also contribute to the pupil's general development.

2. The method is based upon a scientific approach to the determination of the content of teaching. This implies careful selection of linguistic material, a clear idea of the desired result in terms of the habits and skills that should be acquired by pupils; in other word, the exact knowledge of what one expects to achieve at every stage of instruction.

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[1] See also: *Михайлова О. Э., Пассов Е. И., Шатилов С. Ф.* Основные черты современного метода преподавания иностранного языка в советской школе. Тезисы докладов семинара по повышению квалификации преподавателей методики обучения иностранным языкам педагогических институтов РСФСР. Пятигорск, 1970.
[2] See the syllabi for secondary schools.

3. The method is guided by the following principles:

(a) oral language is the principal means of teaching a foreign language to achieve any objective the teacher sets;

(b) the method is based on the following sequence of language activities: pupils assimilate the material orally before they read and write it;

(c) active teaching techniques are widely used: visual, audio and audio-visual aids, teaching materials for stimulating the pupil's speech activities;

(d) a special emphasis is laid on a definite sequence in forming language skills:

— getting information about a language unit;

— various drill exercises within the target language sufficient for fixing the material in pupils' memory and forming habits in using it;

— a large number of creative exercises for the pupils to participate actively in the process of communication;

(e) the method strives for the constant increase of active time for each pupil to practise in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing.

All this should find its reflection in a sequence of lessons as well as in each separate lesson. It should also be applied to work after classes (extra-curricular work and optional course).

Since the distinguishing features of the method are (1) a conscious approach to language learning, and (2) the acquisition of the language through pupils' practice in using it, we may accept the name offered by B. V. Belyaev,[1] the conscious-practical (сознательно-практический), to emphasize the path followed in the acquisition of the language skills from conscious approach to automaticy. Such an approach to foreign language teaching is psychologically sound and fully justified as has been proved by numerous investigations and experiments carried out by Soviet methodologists.

Since it is the teacher who teaches pupils a foreign language, a few words should be said about his work.

Teaching a foreign language is hard work. But hard work will nearly always bring success when a teacher does his best

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[1] A well-known Russian psychologist, author of the book „Очерки по психологии обучения иностранным языкам" (М., 1959) and a number of articles on the problem.

to make his pupils do the work. [1] P. Gurrey is right when he says that few people realize what an unceasing expenditure of thought and energy is essential for teaching this subject. Indeed, a foreign language teaching requires so much mental and physical activity because of the complexity of language learning. On the one hand, the teacher must provide his pupils with the knowledge of different aspects of the language (phonetics, grammar, and vocabulary), on the other hand, he should equip them with habits and skills in hearing (listening comprehension), speaking, reading, and writing. Hence, the teacher of a foreign language needs: (1) a good command of the language he teaches, and a sufficient knowledge of its phonic, graphic, grammar systems and vocabulary; (2) a knowledge of pedagogics and psychology; the nature of the learner and the nature of teaching and learning processes; (3) a knowledge of teaching methods and techniques, the best and most effective ones to use; an understanding of the purpose and aim of each method and device he uses; (4) confidence and skill in his handling of teaching techniques.

This will allow the teacher to find the right approach to each particular situation and, therefore, to be really proficient.

Recommended Literature:

Основные направления в методике преподавания иностранных языков в XIX—XX вв. Под ред. чл.-кор. АПН СССР И. В. Рахманова. М., „Педагогика", 1972, с. 17—20; 27—69; 119—230; 235—244.

Рахманов И. В. Очерки по истории методики преподавания новых западноевропейских языков. М., 1947, с. 58—64.

Грузинская И. А. Методика преподавания английского языка. М., 1938, с. 25—51.

Пальмер Г. Устный метод обучения иностранным языкам. М., 1960, с. 5—7.

Уэст М. Обучение английскому языку в трудных условиях. М., 1966, с. 3—10.

Гинзбург Р. С. Чарльз Фриз, его лингвистические и методические взгляды. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1963, № 5.

Бланк Л. Д. Работа над речевыми моделями в учебниках Ч. Фриза.— „Иностранные языки в школе", 1964, № 2.

Вениери Т. Ю. Ускоренный метод обучения иностранному языку. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1964, № 6.

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[1] Gurrey P. Teaching English as a Foreign Language. Longmans, London, 1963, p. 1.

Ляховицкий М. В. Зрительно-слуховой метод и вопросы обучения иноязычной спонтанной речи. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1965, № 5.

• Методика преподавания иностранных языков за рубежом. Сост. М. М. Васильева, Е. В. Синявская. М., 1967. Статьи по выбору лектора.

Леонтьев А. А. Язык, речь, речевая деятельность. М., 1969, гл. IV, § 1.

Рогова Г. В. Итоги и перспективы. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1967, № 5.

Беляев Б. В. Об основном методе и методиках обучения иностранным языкам. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1965, № 3.

Questions for Discussion:

1. The grammar-translation method.
   — Mention the main do's and don'ts of the method.
   — Principles of the grammar-translation method can be applied nowadays. Give reasons to support your statement.
2. The direct method.
   — Recall the distinguishing features of the method. Compare the grammar-translation with the direct method and state the difference.
   — Express your own opinion on the direct method.
3. H. Palmer is the prominent advocate of the direct method. Do you agree with it?
   — Make a survey of the main points in H. Palmer's method.
   — H. Palmer fights against some vicious evils to which most of the students are subject. Name them. Say how far you agree with the views of H. Palmer.
4. Make a survey of the main points in M. West's method and recall the arguments he advances to justify them.
5. H. Palmer and M. West have enriched methods of teaching foreign languages. In what way?
6. Make a review of the main features of the contemporary methods. Illustrate your statements with some concrete examples from *Vois et images de France*, Fries' *American English Series*, *Language Learning* by P. Hagboldt.
   — In teaching a foreign language considerable attention is paid to all kinds of tests. Express your own opinion on the subject.
   — Lately one witnesses a vividly expressed tendency towards more intensive language teaching. What are the practical results of this?
7. Soviet method of foreign language teaching.
   — Outline the main characteristics of the method used in teaching foreign languages in Soviet schools. Do you believe they are fully justified? Give your reasons.

Chapter III

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

AIMS OF TEACHING

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

„Процесс обучения представляет собой переход учащихся из одного состояния в другое... Задачи обучения состоят в том, чтобы переместить обучающихся из их начального состояния в определенное состояние (или, точнее, во множество состояний), означающее наличие у них определенных знаний, навыков и умений" [1].

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

The terms "aims" and "objectives" are clearly distinguished in this work in accordance with the suggestion given by R. Roberts.[2] Here is what he writes: "The term 'aims' be reserved for long-term goals such as provide the justification or reason for teaching second languages ... the term 'objectives' be used only for short-term goals (immediate lesson goal), such as may reasonably be achieved in a classroom lesson or sequence of lessons." In this chapter we shall deal with long-term goals, that is, with the aims of foreign language teaching which dictate the teacher's approach to this subject.

The changes the teacher must bring about in his pupils may be threefold: p r a c t i c a l — pupils acquire habits and skills in using a foreign language; e d u c a t i o n a l — they develop their mental abilities and intelligence in the process of learning the foreign language;

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[1] *Гнеденко Б. В.* О математических моделях в педагогике. — „Вестник высшей школы", 1966, № 9.

[2] *Roberts R.* Aims and Objectives in Language Teaching. — "English Language Teaching", v. XXVI, 1972, No. 3, p. 224.

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c u l t u r a l — pupils extend their knowledge of the world in which they live. Therefore there are three aims, at least, which should be achieved in foreign language teaching: practical, educational, and cultural.

Practical aims. The foreign language as a school subject differs from other subjects of the school curriculum. Whereas the teaching, for instance, of history is mostly connected with the imparting of historical laws and facts which pupils are to learn and the teaching of the mother tongue leads to the mastery of the language as a system (which is already used for exchanging thoughts and feelings) so that pupils will be able to use it more effectively in oral and written language, the teaching of a foreign language should result in the pupil's gaining one more code for receiving and conveying information; that is, in acquiring a second language for the same purpose as the native language: to use it as a means of communication. In this connection we should like to quote G. Perren [1]: "Whatever a new language is being taught as a curricular extra ... or as an essential medium for education it will be learned by the young child only if it obviously makes possible some purposeful activity other t h a n l a n g u a g e l e a r n i n g. If it does not do this, attempts to teach it may be largely a waste of time."

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

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

The Soviet Union is establishing closer economic, political, scientific, and cultural relations with various peoples of the world. International relations are extended and strengthened through the exchange of delegations as well as

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[1] *Perren G.* New Languages and Younger Children. — "English Language Teaching", v. XXVI, 1972, No. 3, p. 238.

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

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

The length of the course, the frequency of the lessons, the size of groups should also be taken into consideration in adopting practical aims. The amount of time for language learning is one of the most decisive factors in-mastering and maintaining language proficiency since learners need practice. The more time is available for pupils' practice in the target language, the better results can be achieved. Moreover, for the formation of speech habits frequency of lessons is a more essential condition than the length of the course. It is not necessary to prove (it has already been proved) that intensive courses are more effective than extensive ones, for example, six periods a week for three years are more effective for language learning than three periods a week for six years. In our secondary schools, however, we cannot afford an intensive course because school curriculum includes a lot of essential

subjects and the foreign language is one of many which should be taught. The time which can be allotted to foreign language learning is distributed throughout the six years with the following frequency of lessons: V — 4; VI—VII — 3; VIII—X — 2 periods a week. As to the size of groups, large forms are divided into two groups for foreign language lessons so that a group should not exceed 20—25 pupils. Proceeding from these considerations the school syllabus emphasizes reading and speaking as the chief practical aims of language teaching. Writing is restricted to teaching the ability to compose simple letters on everyday topics. Thus the syllabus sets out to teach pupils to carry on a conversation in a foreign language and to read texts with complete comprehension.

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

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

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

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

(1) read and understand a foreign text both with and without a dictionary;

(2) understand oral language and speak within the topics and material required by the syllabus;

(3) write a letter.

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

At the present time, however, foreign language teaching in school does not quite meet the demands of our society; better results are desirable. In this connection we should welcome O. I. Moskalskaya's proposal [1] to investigate the

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[1] *Москальская О. И.* Понятие 'практическое владение иностранным языком'. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1971, № 2.

aims of foreign language teaching to be able to establish what can really be achieved under school conditions.

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

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

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

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

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

knowledge about foreign countries, and by acquainting them with progressive traditions of the people whose language they study. Through learning a second language the pupil gains a deeper insight into the nature and functioning of language as a social phenomenon.

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

CONTENT
OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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

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

worked at. This is a new "qualitative step" for pupils in understanding oral language. If in the 9th form pupils should read with the speed of 1 000 signs per academic hour, in the 10th form the speed of reading is 1 300.[1]

The second component of "what to teach" is language (textual) material, arranged in topics and serving as starting points for the development of oral language and written language, which allows the teacher to reach the practical, educational, and cultural aims set by the syllabus. For example, in the junior stage (the 5th and 6th forms) pupils should speak and read about school, home, town and countryside, nature, physical training and sports. In the senior stage the textual material should cover the following topics: the life of the youth in the USSR and abroad; sport in the USSR and abroad; industry, agriculture, and science in the USSR and abroad; history and geography of the country whose language pupils study; art and literature in the USSR and abroad.[2] Topics for speaking and reading are developed from form to form, i. e., the pupil's ability to read and speak on a certain topic is widened as his vocabulary and grammar are enriched.[3]

The third component of the content of foreign language teaching is linguistic material, i. e., phonology, grammar, and vocabulary carefully selected for the purpose. The selection of linguistic material, the compiling of the so-called minima, for instance, minimum vocabulary and minimum grammar, has always been one of the most important and difficult problems to be solved and, although a great deal of work has been done in this respect,[4] we are still on the way to its solution. A limited body of linguistic material is required by pupils who have about 600 class hours at their disposal spread over six years (extensive course), and at the same time it must be large enough to serve as a sound basis for developing pupils' language skills.

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

[1] See: Программы средней школы. Иностранные языки. М., „Просвещение", 1966, с. 5—6.

[2] Ibid.

[3] See, for instance, the topic "School" in the 5th and the 6th forms.

[4] See: Словарь наиболее употребительных слов английского, немецкого и французского языков. Под ред. проф. И. В. Рахманова. М., 1960.

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(1) language skills: hearing, speaking, reading, and writing;

(2) language (textual) material;

(3) linguistic material; vocabulary; grammar, phonological minima.

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

PRINCIPLES
OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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

The principle of conscious approach to language learning implies comprehension of a linguistic phenomenon of language material by the pupil usually through the medium of the native language, or the arrangement of the material in sentence patterns graded in difficulties with the emphasis on some elements which are singled out as "teaching points". In all cases pupils understand both the form and the content of the material they are to learn, and they are aware of how they should treat the material while performing various exercises which aim at developing habits and skills in using it. Such an approach to language learning usually contrasts with "mechanical" learning through repetitive drill. A great deal of research work has been carried out in Soviet psychology and Methods, and it has been proved that conscious approach to learning a foreign language promotes the acquisition of the subject. V. A. Artemov, a prominent psychologist, puts forward a theory of the unity of the language rule and the speech activity (language behaviour) in foreign language teaching. He writes, „Язык по самой своей природе есть система правил; 'система' потому, что в ней все основано на противопоставлении, а 'правил' потому, что язык есть орудие общения, а орудие без правил его употребления не есть орудие. Но правила языка не раскрыты наукой до конца и в наши дни, а люди подчиняются этим правилам в своей

речи. Следовательно, у человека имеется возможность создавать посредством деятельности коры больших полушарий мозга программу, правила языка. Эта программа все время совершенствуется по закону обратной связи речевого действия с его правилом" [1].

In teaching a foreign language therefore, it is more reasonable to help pupils in assimilating language rules which function in this language by introducing the rules, rather than to wait until the learners deduce these rules through speech activity. V. A. Artemov warns the teacher against putting this hard work on the learner's shoulders. Here is what he writes: „... не бояться языкового правила, не перекладывать труд его выработки на плечи бесконечно повторяющего и бессмысленно подражающего учащегося, а искать оптимальное сочетание языкового правила и речевого действия в процессе научения речи на иностранном языке. ... Объединение правила и действия в любом виде деятельности ведет к оптимально краткому времени работы и максимальной ее эффективности" [2].

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

B. V. Belyaev, whose contribution to foreign language teaching is considerable,[3] insists on a similar conscious approach to foreign language teaching as do B. A. Artemov and others. In his opinion „Приобретение теоретических знаний должно только способствовать процессу образования речевых навыков и умений в результате иноязычной речевой деятельности. Эти навыки и умения вырабатываются значительно быстрее и значительно прочнее усваиваются в том случае, когда процесс их образования под влиянием рече-
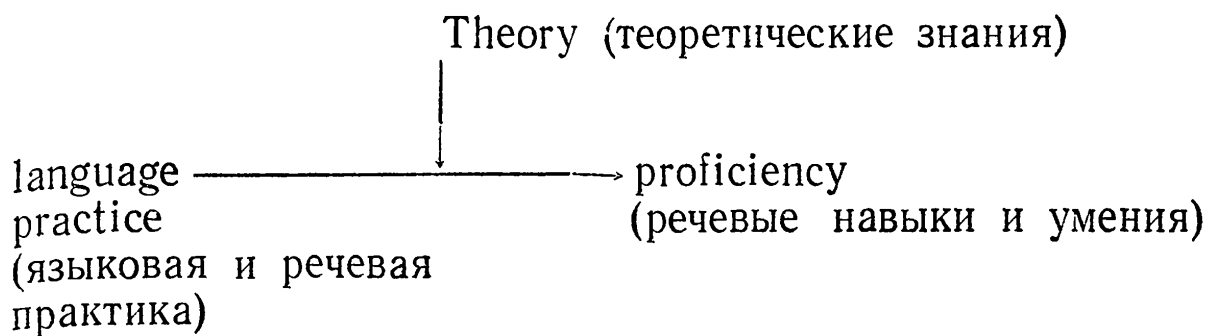
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[1] *Артемов В. А.* Психология обучения иностранным языкам. М., 1969, с. 128—129.

[2] Там же, с. 137.

[3] See: *Беляев Б. В.* Очерки по психологии обучения иностранным языкам. М., 1965, and other works.

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вой практики подвергается должному осмыслению“. He presents the above-mentioned process like this:

Theory (теоретические знания)

language ─────────────────→ proficiency
practice   (речевые навыки и умения)
(языковая и речевая
практика)

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

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

intermediate link — the native language — fades, and foreign language words come into the pupil's consciousness directly in connection with the concepts they express. Mastery of the language means formulating one's thoughts within the foreign language.

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

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

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

language, its distinctive features, its characteristics, and, on the other hand, constant practice in the foreign language that helps to overcome interference in developing pupils' habits and skills in the foreign language.

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

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

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

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

"A habit may be regarded as an instance of learning in which a relatively simple response is made, automatically and fairly frequently, to a relatively simple kind of situation." [1]

„Навыки — это усвоенные и упрочившиеся путем упражнений способы действия" [2].

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[1] *Thyne J. M.* The Psychology of Learning and Technique of Teaching. London, 1965, p. 63.

[2] *Запорожец А. В.* Психология. М., „Просвещение", 1965, с. 161.

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

As to skills, they are defined as follows:

"A skill might be defined as an economical organization of behaviour achieving an intended effect." [1]

„Умением называют и самый элементарный уровень выполнения действия, и мастерство человека в данном виде деятельности" [2].

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

We agree with P. Y. Galperin [3] as to the approach to the problem and distinguish the following stages in teaching a foreign language the pupils should pass through:

(1) the singling out of the structural signals or the "orienting points" of a foreign language phenomenon being assimilated, followed by their cognition;

(2) the mastering of these "orienting points" by performing operations with the material under study, following a model;

(3) the performing of operations with the material under study without any "props";

(4) the using of the given phenomenon in communication in connection with a set task.

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[1] *Thyne J. M.* The Psychology of Learning and Technique of Teaching. London, 1965, p. 183.

[2] Психология. Под ред. А. Г. Ковалева, А. А. Степанова, С. Н. Шаболина. М., „Просвещение", 1966, с. 431.

[3] *Гальперин П. Я.* Психология мышления и учение о поэтапном формировании умственных действий. — В сб.: Исследования мышления в советской психологии. М., 1966.

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

In modern psychology activity is now generally considered to be a main characteristic of cognitive processes. Activity arises under certain conditions. According to the Sets Theory [1] the learner should feel a need to learn the subject, and have necessary prerequisites created for the satisfaction of this need. The main sources of activity are motivation, desire, and interest.

Young people in our country want to know foreign languages. To illustrate this we may refer to the entrance examinations of language departments of higher schools where the competition is great; to the growing number of people who wish to study at various foreign language courses; to the desire of parents to send their children to specialized schools, etc. I. F. Komkov [2] gives the following data obtained by means of questionnaires among 3368 pupils of town and village schools. 81 per cent of the pupils want to study a foreign language. About 11 per cent of pupils name it their favourite subject. The greatest desire to study a foreign language is observed among pupils of the 5th form, i. e., beginners (93 per cent). In other forms there is a tendency to the loss of interest in language learning. This shows that there is something wrong in teaching this subject. The teachers fail to sustain and develop the desire to learn which pupils have when they start the course.

Practice and special observations prove that pupils' interest depends on their progress in language learning. If pupils make good progress in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing, they become interested in learning the foreign language. In this connection I. F. Komkov writes: „... успешное обучение, обеспечивающее хорошее усвоение материала, формирует у учащихся активное, положительное отношение к изучаемым языкам. Отсюда лишний раз ста-

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[1] *Узнадзе Д. Н.* Экспериментальные основы теории установки. Тбилиси, 1961.

[2] *Комков И. Ф.* Активный метод обучения иностранным языкам в школе. Минск, 1970, с. 12.

новится очевидной первостепенная роль методов обучения"[1].

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

Here are what pupils wrote in their questionnaires. „При изучении иностранного языка узнаем много нового, интересного". „Каждый культурный человек должен знать иностранный язык". „Люблю разучивать песни на французском языке"[2].

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

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

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

If pupils are not involved in the act of communication in the target language and remain on the level of performing drill exercises, they soon lose interest in the subject and become passive at the lessons. One needs a lot of practice in the use

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[1] *Комков И. Ф.* Активный метод обучения иностранным языкам в школе. Минск, 1970, p. 13.

[2] Ibid., p. 14.

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of the language to master it. Consequently the problem arises how to enlarge the real time available for each pupil during the class-period to make him an active participant of the lesson, of the work done during the lesson. It is pupils who should work, and not the teacher as is often the case.

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

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

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

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

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

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

The principle of visualization has always been very important for language learning since the gaining-of knowledge begins either with sense perception or with what has been formerly perceived, that is, with previous experience. Visualization, as it is understood here, may be defined as specially organized demonstration of linguistic material and language behaviour characteristic of the target language with the purpose of helping the pupil in understanding, assimilating, and utilizing this in connection with the task set. Since pupils acquire a second language in artificial conditions and not in real life, as is the case when children assimilate their mother tongue, visualization should be extensively used in foreign language teaching. Through visual presentation of the material and the pupils' observation of language behaviour of native speakers they acquire the necessary habits and skills

in spoken language, namely, in intonation, word usage, and grammar. Visualization allows the teacher to create natural conditions for pupils' oral practice and "free conversation". Visualization can be utilized in teaching various aspects of the language: phonology, vocabulary, and grammar, and in developing different language skills: hearing, speaking, reading, and writing.

Soviet psychologists distinguish various kinds of visualization. For instance, B. V. Belyaev suggests the following classification for visualization. [1] (See p. 51.)

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

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

Например, диафильмы содержат наглядность: объектную, изобразительную, перцептивную, реальную (схематическую), однорецепторную (зрительную), синтетическую (аналитическую) и аспектную — и вовсе не содержат наглядности поступочной" [2].
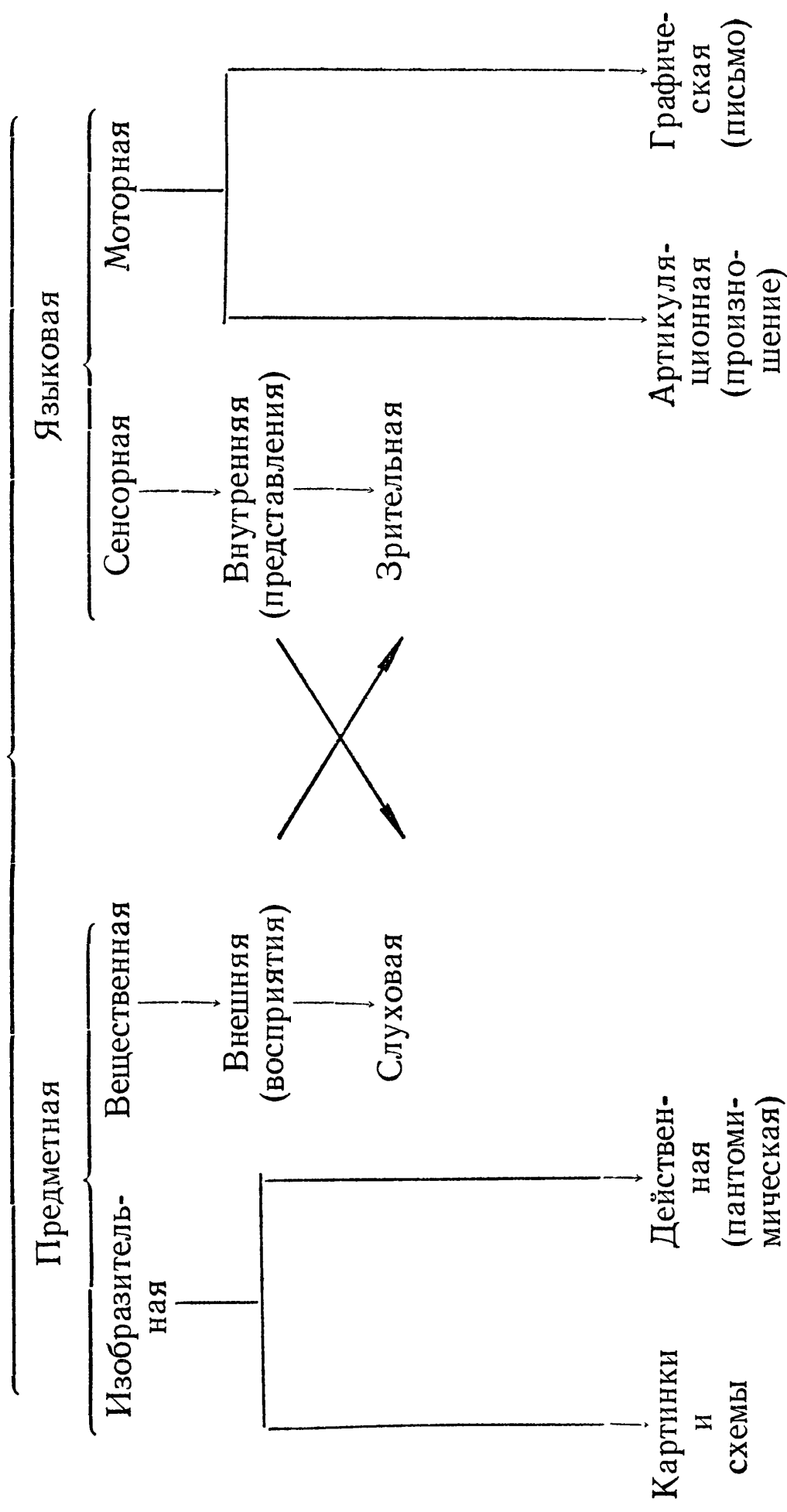
These classifications show that a good deal of research work has been carried out on the problem, and now it is obvious that visualization plays an important role in teaching and learning a foreign language since it provides conditions for sense perception of the material and ensures pupils' activity in the target language. „Психологическая особенность и ценность чувственно-наглядного преподнесения материала обучения состоит также в том, что оно мобилизует психическую активность учащихся, а именно: вызывает интерес к занятиям языком, переводит произвольное внимание

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[1] *Беляев Б. В.* Очерки по психологии обучения иностранным языкам. М., „Просвещение", 1965, с. 85.

[2] *Артемов В. А.* Психология обучения иностранным языкам. М., „Просвещение", 1969, с. 226.

Наглядность

Предметная — Языковая

Изобразительная — Вещественная — Сенсорная — Моторная

Внешняя (восприятия) → Слуховая

Внутренняя (представления) → Зрительная

Картинки и схемы

Действенная (пантомимическая)

Артикуляционная (произношение)

Графическая (письмо)

в послепроизвольное, расширяет объем усваиваемого материала, снижает утомление, тренирует творческое воображение, мобилизует .волю, облегчает весь процесс научения"[1].

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

Visualization implies an extensive use of audio-visual aids and audio-visual materials throughout the whole course of foreign language teaching for presentation and retention of the linguistic material, and for developing oral and written language, although they are to be used differently depending on the stage of instruction, the age of pupils, their progress in the target language, and other factors.

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

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

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

The foreign language syllabus is the main document which lays down the aims and the content of teaching foreign languages in schools. A school, like any other educational institution, has a curriculum which states the subjects to be

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[1] *Артемов В. А.* Психология обучения иностранным языкам. М., „Просвещение", 1969, с. 228.

studied, the number of hours (periods) allotted to the study of each subject, the sequence in which the subjects are introduced.

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

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

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

In the evening school a foreign language is an optional subject and as such it should be taught for three years (in the 9th, 10th and 11th forms). The number of hours allotted to the study of a foreign language is 315 (see the syllabus).

Consequently, in the curriculum one can find where (in what forms) a foreign language is studied, how many periods a week, and the total number of hours that are allotted to its study. The aims and the content of the teaching as well as the method of instruction are stated by the syllabus.

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

The syllabus includes: 1. T h e e x p l a n a t o r y n o t e. Here the teacher will find the aims of foreign language teaching in school. He will also find some suggestions as to the approach to teaching oral language, reading, and writing, vocabulary, and grammar. Besides, in the explanatory note he will find some indications about pupils' independent work, homework, i. e., what a home task must consist of and how much time it should take

to be done; how to keep a record of pupils' progress in a foreign language and, finally, how to carry on extra-curricular work in a foreign language at school. 2. T h e s y l-l a b u s i t s e l f. The teacher will find the requirements for the command of knowledge in English (German, French), i. e., pupils' habits and skills in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing; topics for every form (5, 6, etc.) for speaking and reading, the amount of class periods for every form.

For example: The 5th form.
140 class-periods.

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

— to ask questions and to answer questions on a given topic, on the contents of a text read, and on pictures;

— to make up a story on a picture;

— to speak about a topic suggested;

— to understand when the teacher speaks about the topics already covered, and the classroom expressions (in the English language) the teacher uses while conducting a lesson;

— to recite rhymes and easy poems.
Reading. The pupil must be able:

— to read aloud correctly and understand both familiar and new texts based upon the language material already assimilated;

— to divide the text he has read into sense units; to find the answers to the questions in the text.
Writing. The pupil must be able:

— to write questions and answers (within the language material and topic already covered);

— to write dictations (within the material assimilated).

Approximate topics for speaking and reading:

1. School. Coming to school. The description of a classroom. School things. At the foreign language lesson. To be on duty. Going home from school. After classes.

2. At home. A room. My house. My family. Playing in the yard.

3. A town and a village. The description of a street.

4. Physical culture and sports. Winter and summer sports.

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

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

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

Recommended Literature:

Программы восьмилетней школы. Иностранные языки. М., „Просвещение", 1967.

Программы средней школы. Иностранные языки. М., „Просвещение", 1966.

Программа по английскому языку для школ с преподаванием ряда предметов на английском языке. М., Изд. АПН РСФСР, 1962.

Программы вечерней (сменной) средней общеобразовательной школы. Иностранные языки (факультативный курс); Программа по иностранным языкам для занятий с учащимися IX—X классов средних общеобразовательных школ. М., „Просвещение", 1970.

Anitchkov I., Saakyants V. Methods of Teaching English in Secondary Schools. М.—Л., „Просвещение", 1966, p. 36—52.

Беляев Б. В. Психологический анализ новейших методических принципов обучения иностранным языкам. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1968, № 3.

Артемов В. А. Психология обучения иностранным языкам. Раздел „Психология научения иностранным языкам". М.,-1969.

Леонтьев А. А. Мышление на иностранном языке как психологическая и методическая проблема. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1972, № 1.

Рогова Г. В. О принципах обучения иностранным языкам. — — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1974, № 6; Содержание обучения иностранному языку в школе. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1974, № 3; Цели и задачи обучения иностранным языкам. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1974, № 4.

Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. Под ред. А. А. Миролюбова, И. В. Рахманова, В. С. Цетлин. М., 1967, гл. 1.

Методика преподавания иностранных языков за рубежом. Сост. М. М. Васильева, Е. В. Синявская. М., 1967, с. 55—62.

Questions for Discussion:

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

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

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

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

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

Chapter IV

Teaching Aids and Teaching Materials

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

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

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

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

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[1] The Way Teaching Is. Report of the seminar on teaching. Washington, 1966, p. 24.

TEACHING AIDS

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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[1] See: *Бурлак Д. Г.* Об опыте использования кроки. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1970, № 6; Об одном способе создания учебной ситуации. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1972, № 5.

to be the most important aid in teaching and learning a foreign language;[1]

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

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

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

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

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

teaching machines [2] which can be utilized for presenting information to the pupils, for drilling, or testing; the teaching machine can provide an interaction between the pupil and the "programme"; the learner obtains a stimulus and a feed-back from his response; thus, favourable conditions are created for individual pupils to learn, for instance, vocabulary, grammar, reading, etc.;

a language laboratory, this is a special classroom designed for language learning. It is equipped with individual private or semi-private stalls or booths. They are connected with a network of audio wiring, the nerve centre of which is the monitoring console which has a switch board and tapedecks, making it possible to play tapes and send the programme to all

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[1] See: *Юдковский М. М.* О некоторых речевых упражнениях, выполняемых с помощью магнитофона и эпидиаскопа. — „Иностранные языки в школе“, 1972, № 5; *Дарман И. Г.* Использование магнитофона для выработки навыков неподготовленной речи. — „Иностранные языки в школе“, 1972, № 5.

[2] There is a great variety of teaching machines which one can see displayed at exhibitions devoted to education. In teaching practice, however, they are seldom used because they are expensive, require special teaching materials, and the teacher's readiness to use them.

or any combination of booths. The teacher at the monitoring console can listen in, or can have a two-way conversation with any pupil.

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

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

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

The language laboratory keeps a full class of pupils working and learning for the entire period, and thus enables the teacher to teach the foreign language more effectively.[1]

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

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

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[1] *Глускин В. М.* Оправдывают ли себя языковые лаборатории. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1971, № 6; *Юрих М. Д., Полубудкин Ю. А.* Класс комплексного использования проекционного и звукотехнического оборудования. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1970, № 1.

[2] See: Приказ Министерства просвещения СССР от 31 декабря 1968 г. № 107 об утверждении „Перечней типовых учебно-наглядных пособий и учебного оборудования для общеобразовательных школ". М., 1969.

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

TEACHING MATERIALS

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

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

A teacher's book must be comprehensive enough to be a help to the teacher. This book should provide all the recorded material; summaries of the aims and new teaching points of each lesson; a summary of all audio and visual materials required; suggestions for the conduct of the lesson and examples of how the teaching points can be developed.

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

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

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

1. The textbooks should provide pupils with the knowledge of the language sufficient for developing language skills, i. e., they must include the fundamentals of the target language.

2. They should ensure pupils' activity in speaking, reading, and writing, i. e., they must correspond to the aims of foreign language teaching in school.

3. The textbooks must extend pupils' educational horizon, i. e., the material of the textbooks should be of educational value.

4. The textbooks must arouse pupils' interest and excite their curiosity.

5. They should have illustrations to help pupils in comprehension and in speaking.

6. The textbooks must reflect the life and culture of the people whose language pupils study.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Exercises for developing pronunciation should help pupils to acquire correct pronunciation habits. Special exercises should be provided for the purpose, among them those designed for developing pupils' skills in discriminating sounds, stress, or melody. It is necessary that records and tape-recordings should be applied, and they should form an inseparable part of the textbook.

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

Most of the exercises should be communicative by nature:

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

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

— they should reflect pupils' environment;

— they should stimulate pupils to use the given words.

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

Grammar exercises should develop pupils' habits and skills in using the grammar items to be learnt in speaking, reading, and writing. The teaching of grammar may largely be carried on through sentence patterns, phrase patterns, words as a pattern, and the ample use of these patterns in various oral and written exercises. Grammar, therefore, must be divided into small fragments, each taught in response to an immediate need "... It is not the grammar of English that is so difficult: it is English usage. "[1] Therefore grammar exercises must be suggested in connection with situations, and remind us of the real usage of grammar forms and structures in the act of communication.

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

In all stages of teaching exercises for developing oral language should prepare pupils to carry on a conversation within the material assimilated. This is possible provided pupils are taught to use the words and the sentence patterns

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[1] *Gurrey P*. Teaching English as a Second Language. Longmans, London, 1963, p. 78.

they learn in various combinations depending on the situations offered, on the necessity to express their own thoughts and not to learn (to memorize) the texts arranged in topics, which is often the case in school teaching practice.

Exercises designed for developing oral language should prepare pupils:

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

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

— to discuss what they have read and heard.

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

As to monologue pupils should have exercises which help them: (1) to make statements, different in structure (statement level); (2) to express their thoughts or to speak about an object, a subject, using different sentence patterns, combining them in a logical sequence (utterance level); (3) to speak on the object, subject, film, filmstrip, story read or heard, situations offered (discourse level). The textbook should include exercises which prepare pupils for reciting the texts, making oral reproductions, etc.

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

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

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

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

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

The modern textbooks which are now in use in ten-year schools meet most of the requirements given above. [1]

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

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

Dictionaries. For learning English there are some English-Russian dictionaries available, for instance, the *Learner's English-Russian Dictionary*, compiled by S. K. Folomkina and H. M. Weiser (M., 1962); *Англо-русский словарь.* Сост. В. Д. Аракин, 3. С. Выгодская, Н. Н. Ильина (М., 1971).

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

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

The main features of programmed learning are as follows:

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

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

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

Programmed learning creates a new individualized relationship between the learner and his task. He learns for himself and the programme teaches him. Programming is concerned

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[1] Here we do not mean textbooks for specialized schools.

with effective teaching since it is aimed, as carefully as possible, at a particular group of pupils and leads them through a number of steps towards mastering a carefully thought-out and circumscribed teaching point. [1] Programming allows the teacher to improve the effectiveness of teaching by constructing materials which will guide the pupil through a series of steps towards the mastery of a learning problem. These steps should be of appropriate size and require the pupil's active cooperation; he may be asked to answer a question, to fill in a blank, to read, etc. It is very important to grade progress of steps throughout the programme so carefully that each pupil get every step right.

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

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

Here are some sample programmes [2] of linear programming.

Programme on Comparatives


```
1
Age: 40.                                          Mr. Brown
How old is Mr Brown? He is _____.
```

[1] See, for example: *Рогова Г. В.* К вопросу составления программированных пособий. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1966, № 5; *Гохлернер М. М., Ейгер Г. В.* Опыт составления и экспериментальной проверки программированных материалов. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1966, № 5; *Есипович К. Б.* Составление программированного пособия для обучения немецкому языку в V классе. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1966, № 5.

[2] The sample programmes have been borrowed from *Programmed Learning and Language Teacher* by Anthony P. R. Howatt (Longmans, London, 1969) as they cover various aspects of the language and language skills.

2 Age:? Mrs Brown Mrs Brown was born 5 years after Mr Brown. How old is she? She is _____ .	He is **40.**
3 Mrs Brown is 35. But Mr Brown is older than his wife. He is 40. So, _____ Brown is older than _____ Brown.	She is **35.**
4 _____ Brown is old- _____ than his w- _____ .	So, **Mr** Brown is older than **Mrs** Brown.
5 John Brown is 40. Mary Brown, his wife, is 35. So, _____ Brown is older _____ his wife.	**Mr** Brown is older than his **wife.**
6 They have two children: Anne Jim Age: 8. Age: 10. So, _____ is o- _____ _____ _____ .	So, **John** (Mr) Brown is older **than** his wife.

66

7

Westminster Abbey   St. Paul's Cathedral
900 years old   300 years old

So, Westminster Abbey is _____ _____
   St. Paul's Cathedral.

So, **Jim** is **older than** Anne.

8

Big Ben   Buckingham Palace
315 feet high   200 feet high

So, _____ _____ is _____ _____B-_____
_____.

So, **Westminster Abbey** is **older than** St. Paul's Cathedral.

9 London is a very large city, ten million people live there. But Dover is small; only thirty-five thousand people live there.

So, London is . . . .

So, **Big Ben** is **higher than** Buckingham Palace.

10 The Atlantic Ocean is very wide. In fact it is three thousand miles wide. But the English Channel between Dover and Calais is only twenty miles wide. So, ...	So, London is larger than Dover.

Practice Programme. Talking about People

1

Scotland   Glasgow

Margaret

This is Margaret. She is Scottish. She comes from Scotland, and she lives in Glasgow.

M- _____ _____ from Scotland, and she _____ in
G- _____ .

Margaret comes from Scotland, and she lives in Glasgow. .

2

England   Liverpool

Jim

Jim is English. He c- _____ _____ England, and _____
l- _____ in L- _____ .

He comes from England, and he lives in Liverpool.

3

Wales   Cardiff

Mary

Mary is Welsh. She _____ _____ W-_____ , and _____
_____ _____ C-_____ .

She comes from Wales, and she lives in Cardiff.

4
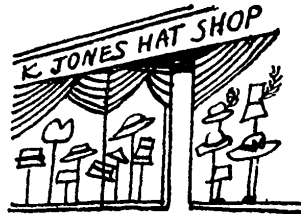
Glasgow
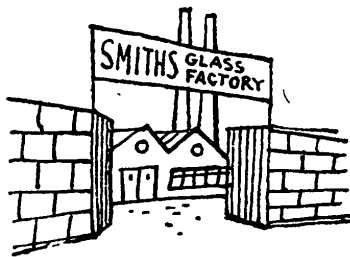
Margaret

Margaret lives in Glasgow, and she works there, too.
She works in a hat shop.

M-_____ w-_____ in a _____ _____ in G-_____ .

Margaret works in a hat shop in Glasgow.

5

SMITHS GLASS FACTORY

Liverpool

Jim

J-_____ works in a glass factory.
He _____ in a _____ _____ in L-_____ .

Jim works in a glass factory.
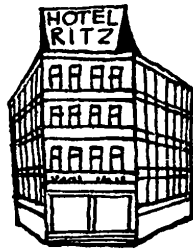He works in a glass factory in Liverpool.

6
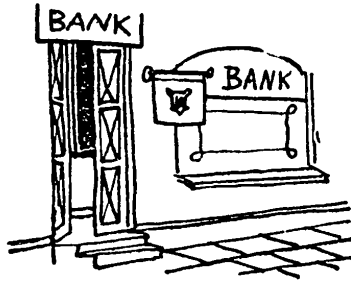
Cardiff

Mary

Mary c-_____ from Wales, and she l-_____ in Cardiff.

_____ _____ in a _____ in C-_____ .

Mary comes from Wales and she lives in Cardiff.
She works in a bank in Cardiff.

7

Brighton

Bill

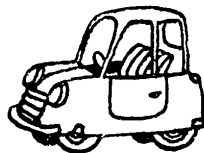_____ _____ from England, and _____ in Brighton.
_____ _____ in a _____ in B- _____ .

Bill comes from England, and lives in Brighton.
He works in a hotel in Brighton.

8

Mary goes to work every day.
She _____ to work by _____ .

Mary

Mary goes to work every day.
She goes to work by car.

```
9                                    _____ goes  to   work
                                     e-_____ day, too. He_____
                                     to  work  by _____ .
```
Jim

Jim goes to work every day, too.
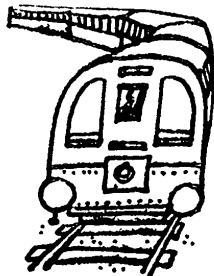He goes to work by bicycle.


```
10                                   _____ _____ to work _____
                                     day,  too. _____ _____ to
                                     work  by_____ .
```
Margaret   Bus

Margaret goes to work every day, too.
She goes to work by bus.


```
11                                   _____ _____ to  work
                                     _____ _____ , too.
                                     _____ _____ to  work
                                     _____ _____ .
```
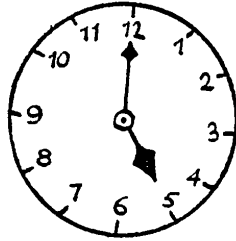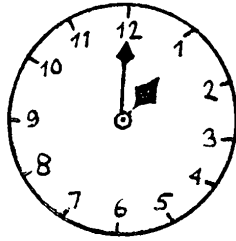Bill

Bill goes to work every day, too.
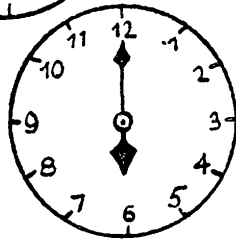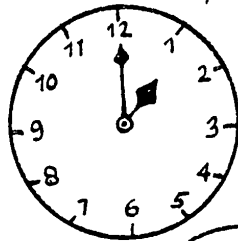He goes to work by train.

12

_____ has lunch at one o'clock, and he c- _____ home at five.

Jim

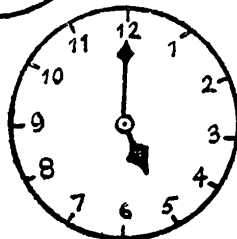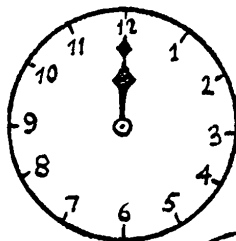Jim has lunch at one o'clock and he comes home at five.

13

Margaret has lunch at _____ o'clock, and she _____ home at _____ .

Margaret

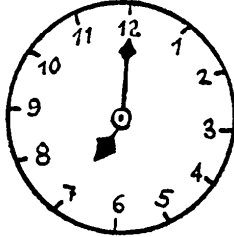Margaret has lunch at one o'clock, and she comes home at six.

14

_____ _____ lunch at _____ _____ ' _____ , and _____ _____ home at _____ .

Mary

Mary has lunch at twelve o'clock, and she comes home at five.

15

Bill
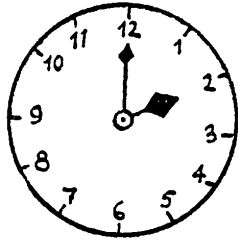
_____ _____ , _____ at
_____ _____ , _____ ,
and _____ _____ _____
at _____ .

Bill has lunch at two o'clock, and he comes home at seven.

16

Margaret c- _____ from Scotland, and she l- _____ in Glasgow.

Margaret comes from Scotland, and she lives in Glasgow.

17

Bill _____ from England, and he _____ in Brighton.
He w- _____ in a hotel.

Bill comes from England, and he lives in Brighton.
He works in a hotel.

18

Jim _____ from England, too, and _____ _____ in Liverpool.
He _____ in a glass factory, and he g- _____ to work by bicycle e- _____ day.

Jim comes from England, too, and he lives in Liverpool.
He works in a glass factory, and he goes to work by bicycle every day.

Mary _____ from Wales, and _____ _____ in Cardiff.
She _____ in a bank, and _____ _____ to work by car
_____ d- _____ . She h- _____ _____ at twelve o'clock,
and c- _____ home at five.

Mary comes from Wales, and she lives in Cardiff.

She works in a bank, and she goes to work by car every day.

She has lunch at twelve o'clock, and comes home at five.

20

Now write a story about Clare ...

America

New York
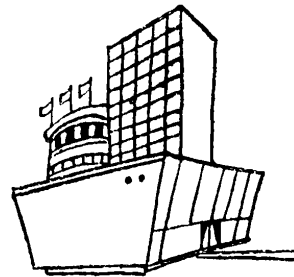
Clare

Clare . . . .
. . . .
. . . .
. . . .

Clare comes from America, and she lives in New York.
She works in a hotel, and she goes to work by car every day.
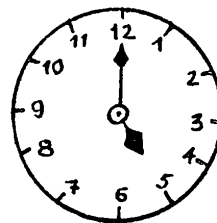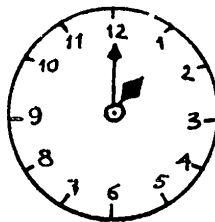She has lunch at one o'clock, and comes home at five.

Vocabulary Programme. For Sale!

1

The Browns want to sell their flat:

---

the kitchen	the bathroom	the back bedroom
the living room	the hall	the front bedroom

the front door
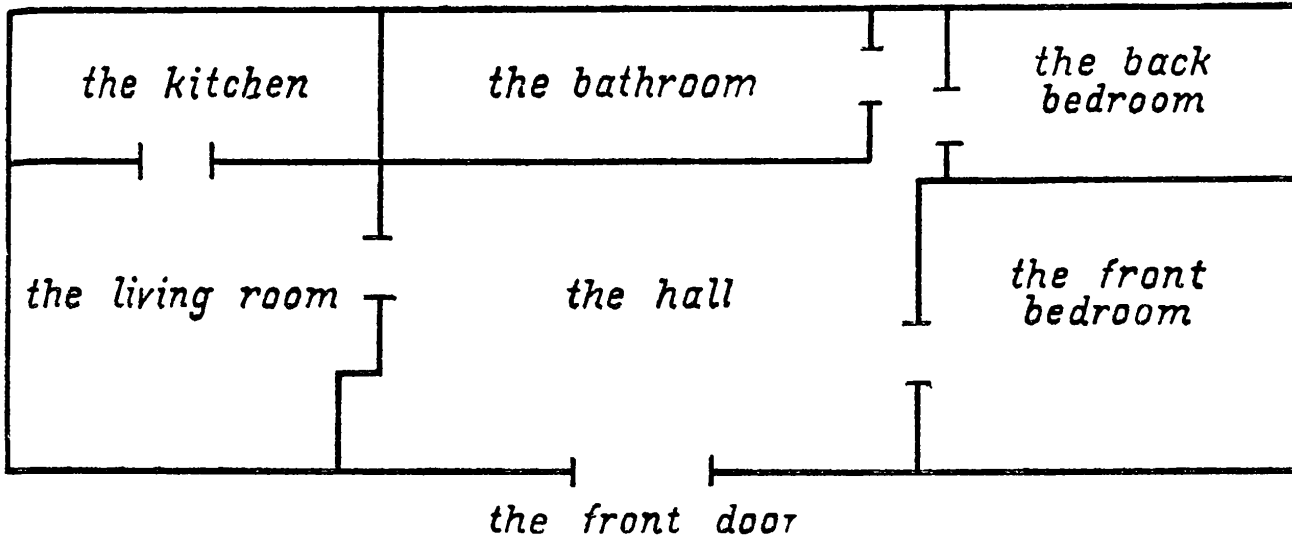
So, a week ago they put an advertisement [əd'və:tis-mənt] in the newspaper:

FOR SALE. Nice, modern flat. Two b-_____ s; l-_____ room; b-_____ ; k-_____ ; and h-_____ .
Price: £ 3,500. Please phone Barton 3510, after 6 p. m.

FOR SALE. Nice modern flat. Two **bedrooms**; **living room**; **bathroom**; **kitchen**; and **hall**.
Price: £ 3,500. Please phone Barton 3510, after 6 p. m.

2

Two days later Mr and Mrs Smith came to see the flat.
M r s B r o w n *(opening the front door):* Good evening. Have you come to see the flat?
M r S m i t h: Yes, that's right.
M r s B r o w n: Please come in.
M r a n d M r s S m i t h: Thank you.
M r s B r o w n: Well, as you can see, this is the h-_____ .

75

3 M r s   B r o w n: Well, as you can see, this is the **hall**.
M r   a n d   M r s   S m i t h: I see.
M r s   B r o w n: Can I take your coats?
M r   a n d   M r s   S m i t h: Yes, thank you.

(*Mrs Brown hangs the coats on a hook.*)

M r s   S m i t h (*looking round*): Yes, I like the————.
   Don't you, Jim?
M r   S m i t h: Oh yes, very nice, very nice indeed.

---

4 M r s   S m i t h (*looking round*): Yes, I like the **hall**.
   Don't you, Jim?
M r   S m i t h: Oh yes, very nice, very nice indeed.

(*Mrs Brown comes back to the Smiths.*)

M r s   B r o w n: Well, shall we see the rest of
   the————?
M r   a n d   M r s   S m i t h: Yes, please.

---

5 M r s   B r o w n: Well, shall we see the rest of the
   flat?
M r   a n d   M r s   S m i t h: Yes, please.

Note: Look at the plan of the flat very carefully when you
answer the next questions in the programme.

M r s   B r o w n: Well, on the left of the hall is
   the———— room, and on the right is one of
   the————-s.

---

6 M r s   B r o w n: Well, on the left of the hall is the
   living room, and on the right is one of the
   bedrooms.
M r s   S m i t h: How many bedrooms are there?
M r s   B r o w n:————.

7 Mrs Brown: Two.
   (*They go and look at the living room.*)
   Mr Smith. Mmmm, very nice.
   Mrs Smith: Yes, I like this room. It's nice and
   large. Do you eat in here?
   Mrs Brown: No, we usually eat in the_____.
   It's in here, at the back of the house.

8 Mrs Brown: No, we usually eat in the **kitchen**.
   It's in here, at the back of the house.
   Mr Smith: I see.
   Mrs Brown: And beside the kitchen is the_____.

9 Mrs Brown: And beside the kitchen is the **bath-
   room**.
   (*The Smiths look at the kitchen and then
   at the bathroom.*)
   Mrs Brown: Well, shall we look at the_____-s
   now? One is at the back of the flat and the other
   is at the front. The front _____ is very sunny.

10 Mrs Brown: Well, shall we look at the **bedrooms**
   now? One is at the back of the flat and the
   other is at the front. The front **bedroom** is very
   sunny.
   (*The Smiths looked at the bedrooms,
   and came back into the living room to talk to Mr
   and Mrs Brown. They liked the _____ very much.*)

11 They liked the **flat** very much.
   **Now here is the plan of the flat again. You can see
   the way that Mr and Mrs Smith went.**

the k-_____

the b-_____ the back
b-_____

the l-_____ room

the h-_____

the front
b-_____

the front door
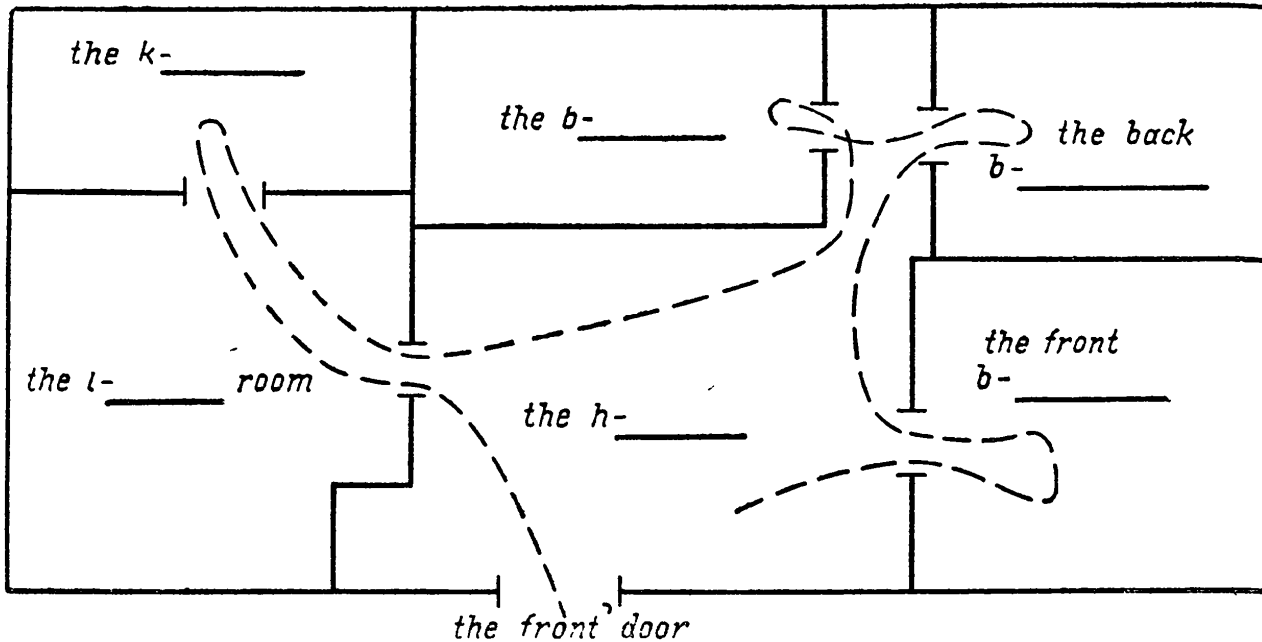
Now try to say what Mr and Mrs Smith did.
Mr and Mrs Smith came into the_____ and took off
their coats. Then they looked at the_____ _____.
Then they went to the back of the flat to see the_____
and the_____. Finally, they looked at the two_____
and came back to the_____again.

12

Mr and Mrs Smith came into the **hall** and took off their
coats. Then they looked at the **living room**. Then they
went to the back of the flat to see the **kitchen** and the
bathroom. Finally, they looked at the two bedrooms and
came back to the **hall** again.
A week later Mr and Mrs Smith bought the flat.
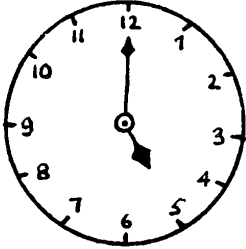
Situation Programme. Let's Go to the Pictures

What happens when Jennifer goes to the pictures? Look
at each picture carefully.

1

Good_____.

2

Good **afternoon.**   Good_____,
madam.

3

Three Complete
Performances
Every Day!!

Good **afternoon,**
madam.

When does the next
p-_____begin?

4

Next Performance at
5. 15. p. m.

When does
the next
performance
begin?

At a_____
_____ five,
madam.

5

At a **quarter**
past five,
madam.

I see. Have
you any t-_____
left?

6

I see. Have you
any **tickets** left?

_____, we have, madam.
Where would you like to
sit?

7

Balcony
Stalls

Yes, we have, madam.
Where would you like
to sit?

Downstairs,
please.
In the_____.

8

Front Stalls
Back Stalls

Downstairs, please.
In the **stalls**.

_____ stalls or
_____stalls,
madam?

9

Front stalls or
back stalls, madam?

How much are the
back stalls?

10

Back Stalls
5/6

How much are the
back stalls?

_____ and _____,
madam.

11

Five and six, madam.

Oh dear, that's expensive. How _____ are the f- _____ _____, then?

12

Oh, dear, that's expensive. How **much** are the **front stalls,** then?

Front
Stalls
3/6

_____ _____ _____, madam.

13

Three and six, madam.

That's better. I'll have two seats in the _____ _____, please.

14

That's better. I'll have two seats in the **front stalls,** please.

That's _____ shillings, please.

15

That's **seven** shillings,
please.

_____ _____.

16

Thank you.

Oh, hallo,
Dora.
I've got two
s-_____
in the_____
_____.
Is that all
right?

17

Oh, hallo, Dora.
I've got two
seats in
the **front stalls.**
Is that all
right?

Wonderful!
Let me pay
you for my
t-_____.

18

Wonderful!
Let me pay
you for my
ticket.

No, of course
not.
You're my guest
today.
Come on, or
we'll be late.

Textual Programme. Hiking

1

Here is a short text about a visit to a Youth Hostel. If you have not studied it already in class, you should now read it very carefully and make sure you understand everything.

We arrived at the village just before sunset and made our way to the Youth Hostel. It had been raining all day, but now it had stopped and the sky was very beautiful.

'I hope it'll be fine tomorrow,' I said.

'So do I,' replied Jane.

We had a good meal, and then played cards for a short time before going to bed.

2

In the rest of the programme you will be asked to complete more and more of the text until you will know it quite well.

You can always look at paragraph 1 for the answers, but try to do it yourself first.

3

We arrived at the _____ just before sunset and made our way to the _____ _____. It had been _____ all day, but now it had _____ and the sky was very _____.

'I hope it'll be fine _____,' I said.

'So do I,' _____ Jane.

We had a _____ meal and then played _____ for a short time before going to _____.

4

Now try it again.

We _____ at the _____ just before _____ and made our _____ to the _____ _____. It had been _____ all day, but now it had _____ and the _____ was very

_____.

'I _____ it'll be _____ _____,' I said.

'_____ do I,' _____ Jane.

We had a _____ _____ and then _____ _____ for a short time before _____ to _____.

5

Try it again. This time there are some letters to help you because so many words have been left out.

We _____ at the _____ j- _____ before _____ and m-_____our_____to the_____ _____. It_____ _____ r-_____ all day, but now it _____ st- _____ and the _____was very b-_____. 'I_____it'-_____be f-_____ _____,' I said. '_____ _____ _____,' repl-_____Jane. We_____ a g-_____m-_____and then pl-_____ _____ for a sh- _____ t- _____ before _____ to _____.

6

Now try it once more; this time there are no letters to help you.

We _____ at the _____ _____ before _____ and _____ our _____ to the _____ _____. It _____ _____ _____ all day, but now it _____ _____ and the _____ was very _____.
'I _____ it'- _____ be _____ _____, ' I _____.
'_____ _____ _____, ' _____ Jane.
We _____ a _____ _____ and then _____ _____ for a _____ _____ before _____ to _____.

7

Finally, take another piece of paper and see how much you can remember.

Textual Programme. About Myself

1

Here is a text with the answers already written. Read the text carefully. It is about Ian MacDonald.

My name is **Ian MacDonald**. I come from **Scotland**, and I live in **Edinburgh**. I am a **baker** and I work in a **shop**. I usually spend my summer holiday in **Majorca**. I like **swimming** but I don't like **cricket**.

2

Now you fill in the text in the same way. Write about yourself.

My name is [_____] .

I come from [_____] ,

and I live in [_____] .

I am a (n) [_____]

and I work in a [_____] .

I usually spend my summer holiday in [_____] .

I like [_____] .

but I don't like [_____] .

3

Now do the text again. Try to remember the words which are left out. Look at the answers (in paragraph 2) afterwards.

My _____ is [_____] .

I _____ from [_____] ,

and I live _____ [_____] .

I am a (n) [_____] ,

and I work in a [_____] .

I usually spend my sum-
mer h- _____ in [   ] .

I l- _____ [   ]

but I don't _____ [   ] .

4

Now try it again. This time you should remember
more words. Look at the answers afterwards.

_____ name is [   ] .

I _____ _____ [   ] ,

and I _____ _____ [   ] .

I _____ a (n) [   ] ,

and I _____ in a [   ] .

I usually _____ my sum-
mer _____ in [   ] .

I _____ [   ]

but I _____ _____ [   ] .

5

Once more! This time you must remember nearly
everything.

_____ _____ _____ [   ] .

_____ _____ _____ _____ [   ] ,

and ———— ———— in ————.

I ———— a (n) [   ] ,

and I ———— in a [   ] .

I u-———— ————

my s-———— ———— [   ] .

I ———— [   ]

but I ———— ———— ————.

6

Now take another piece of paper. Try to remember everything.

In these sample programmes the materials are constructed according to a predetermined plan. Each programme has a precise objective. For instance, "Programme on comparatives" teaches the pattern "X is something -er than Y". In the last frame the learner is asked to make a statement of comparison unaided by the wording of the frame.

Every frame contains a blank for the pupil to respond to. The correct response is supplied one step below on the right, or under the frame so that the learner receives immediate confirmation of his responses. As the steps are small and an unlimited number of repetitions is possible weak pupils are not discouraged. Such programmed materials may be presented as textual frames in the book and in combination with the tape recorder.

In a branching programme the information is followed by a multiple-choice question and the learner's answer to this determines the material he sees next. If he selects the right answer he will be presented with a new unit of information. If he selects a wrong answer he is told he is wrong and the likely nature of his mistake. The student is either directed back to the original frame to make another attempt at the question or he is directed to a remedial sequence before

being returned to the original frame. Here is an example of a branching programme on Sequence of Tenses in the English language:

	Page 5
In his letter John wrote that he lived with his uncle. В своем письме Джон писал, что он живет с дядей. Какое время употреблено, Past Indefinite или Present Indefinite? Выберите ответ и перейдите к странице, указанной против ответа.	

Answer Page	Page 5
Past Indefinite 7 *Present Indefinite* 11 *I don't know* 15	

	Page 15

Вы ответили: *I don't know.*
  Вспомним, что в Present Indefinite (настоящем неопределенном) глаголы в 3-м лице ед. числа принимают окончание -s:
 	
to work — работать   he works — он работает
to play — играть   he plays — он играет
 	
  Большинство глаголов в Past Indefinite (прошедшем неопределенном) оканчиваются на -ed:
 	
to like — любить, нравиться
he liked — он любил (ему нравилось)
 	
  А теперь вернитесь на стр. 5 и выберите правильный ответ.	

An able pupil who will see only frame at p. 7 will progress through the material far more quickly than a pupil who has to go through the remedial frames (p. 15, 11). Thus the time that a pupil spends on a branching programme will depend not only on the speed with which he deals with each of the frames but also on the amount of information he has to deal with in any remedial frames.

Programmed foreign language instruction properly utilized is a useful medium which allows the teacher to individualize his pupils' work at the foreign language and create favourable conditions for language learning.

Visual materials.

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

Flashcards. A flashcard is a card with a letter, a sound symbol or a word to be used for quick showing to pupils and in this way for developing pupils' skills in reading and pronunciation. Flashcards are usually made by the teacher

or by the pupils under the teacher's direction, though there are some ready-made flashcards. [1]

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

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

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

For example: The letter C

[k]	[s]
cat	pencil
music	face

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

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

Pictures. There are at least three types of pictures which are used in teaching a foreign language: object pictures (e. g., the picture of a bed), situational pictures (e. g., the picture of a boy lying in bed), topical pictures (e. g., the picture of a bedroom). They may be big enough to be hung in the classroom or small to be distributed among the pupils for each one to speak on his own. Pictures may be utilized separately (as single units) and in sets to be used as "props" for oral composition or re-telling a story. For example, there is a set of pictures by M. S. Kaplunovsky which can be used for creating vivid situations on a flannelboard.

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[1] See: *Рогова Г. В., Рожкова Ф. М.* Лексические таблицы по развитию речи на уроках английского языка в V—VI классах. Вып. I. М., 1968 и 1975 г. There are object pictures in this set of charts with words printed on the back of each picture.

Printed pictures are available for the teacher to use in the classroom. However, they cannot cover the teacher's needs in these materials. So he should make pictures. The teacher either draws or paints them himself or asks some of his pupils to do this. [1] He can also use cut-outs (pictures cut out of some periodicals).

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

Albums. An album is a book of pictures or photographs which is used for developing pupils' language skills. It usually contains textual material to supply pupils with necessary information, and in this way make their work easier in describing these pictures. [2]

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

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

Filmstrips. A filmstrip [3] represents a series of pictures, as a rule, situational pictures in certain sequence which a learner sees while listening to a story from the teacher or the tape to reproduce it later. Special filmstrips are available. They last about 5—10 minutes and can be used with synchronized tapes. When a picture appears on the screen, the tape is heard. See, for example, "Great Britain", "London".

Audio materials. Tapes and records or discs belong to audio materials. Tapes are usually prepared by the teacher (he selects the material and the speaker for recording). Tapes

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[1] See: *Тимошенко Н. М., Шейченко А. П.* Делайте наглядные пособия сами. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1968, № 5.

[2] See: *Вятютнев М. Н., Рогова Г. В.* Альбом для развития устной речи по моделям на уроках английского языка в VI—VIII классах. М., „Просвещение", 1967; *Рогова Г. В., Рожкова Ф. М.* По городам Англии и Соединенных Штатов Америки. М., „Просвещение", 1975.

[3] See: *Широков Е. Д.* О подготовке диафильмов с поэтапным контролем и самоконтролем усвоения нового материала. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1972, № 5.

and records [1] are used for teaching listening comprehension, speaking, and reading aloud.

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

Sound film loops are becoming popular with the teachers. They are short (each lasts 1.5—1.7 min.) and the teacher can play the film loop back as many times as necessary for the pupils to grasp the material and memorize it. [2]

Films. Specially prepared educational films for language teaching have appeared, e. g., "The Mysterious Bridge", "Robert Burns", "Australia", "New York", "Winter Sports". [3]

Young children like to sing and play various games, that is why songs and games should constitute an important part of teaching materials. [4] Folksongs and popular current songs develop a feeling for the distinctive culture being studied. They furnish a frame work for pronunciation practice. Games give an opportunity for spontaneous self-expression in the foreign language and can be used as a device for relaxation.

Practical and educational functions of teaching materials are as follows:

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

These materials are valuable for presentation, exercises, revision, testing, [5] etc.

Visual materials have an important role to play in the

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[1] See: *Левит Р. Н.* Использование грамзаписи для развития навыков восприятия иностранной речи на слух. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1971, № 2.

[2] See: *Дубровин М. И.* О некоторых вопросах создания кинокольцовок и использования их в V—VI классах. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1972, № 2.

[3] *Кулешов Ю. П.* Как мы используем учебный кинофильм „Зимний спорт" в VIII классе на уроках английского языка. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1969, № 6.

[4] See: *Антропов В. А., Петоян П. Т.* Английская песня на начальном этапе обучения. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1967, № 5.

[5] See: *Невоструев Е. К.* О некоторых приемах контроля речевых умений и навыков при пользовании лингафонными кабинетами ЛК-67 и ЛК-68. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1971, № 6.

development of hearing and speaking skills. Carefully devised they help to get rid of the necessity for constant translation and assist the teacher in keeping the lesson within the foreign language.

By portraying the context of situation, the gestures and expressions of the speakers, and even their personalities, visual aids allow immediate understanding and provide a stimulus to oral composition. [1]

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

Graded materials are also important for the development of writing skills. [2] Appropriately designed and selected these materials are needed to cover all stages from the introduction to writing through copy writing, memory writing and dictation to guided composition, and finally to free composition. Visual aids can provide a useful stimulus for writing, especially at the stage of guided composition.

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

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

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

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

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

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[1] See: *Халбаева М. С.* Об использовании наглядных пособий и технических средств обучения на уроках иностранного языка. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1970, № 6.

[2] This may be the case in specialized schools.

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

A p p r o p r i a t e n e s s. To fulfil the role of motivating the learner and sustaining his enthusiasm, teaching materials must be appropriate to the age, interests, and abilities of pupils. They must also be appropriate to the functions which are required of them, i. e., whether the teacher needs them for presentation, exercises, testing, etc.   ＇

In conclusion it may .be said, according to A. Spicer, "The purpose of teaching materials is not to usurp the role of the teacher, nor even to make his work easier. Their main purpose is to make it possible for the teacher to teach more effectively, more interestingly, and more economically. It is equally important that the materials should help the pupil to learn more easily and more rapidly." [1]

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

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

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

The main difference lies in the organization of teaching beginners. S. K. Folomkina, H. M. Weiser, E. I. Kaar start by teaching beginners all the language skills, i. e., hearing,

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[1] *Spicer A.* The Nuffield Foreign Languages Teaching Materials Project. — "English Language Teaching", v. 23, 1968.

speaking, reading, and writing simultaneously, [1] although they give seven introductory lessons which are to be conducted orally. [2] A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon, Z. V. Starkova start with the oral introductory course and teach hearing and speaking first for more than a term. [3] During the oral introductory course, beginning with the fifth lesson, pupils start writing English letters and combinations of letters. They begin reading at the 40th class-period. [4]

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

They differ in their introduction of new material. S. K. Folomkina, H. M. Weiser, E. I. Kaar, A. D. Klimentenko use oral presentation of linguistic materials. Pupils grasp the vocabulary or grammar items by ear so as to assimilate them mainly for auding. Oral work at linguistic material does not exceed one class-period, as a rule. [5]

The second group of authors follow the oral approach in teaching linguistic material, i. e., pupils can use the material in auding and speaking before they can read and write it. [6]

One more difference is in the use of the mother tongue in teaching English. They both admit the use of the mother tongue for presenting linguistic material whenever it is necessary to ensure comprehension of what pupils learn. As to translation exercises for developing pupils' language skills, they are used in pupil's books by the first group of authors, [7] and are not utilized by the second.

They differ in presenting grammar too. The first group ot authors present the matetial in sentences which

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[1] See: *Folomkina S., Weiser H., Kaar E.* Teacher's Guide. Book One. M., 1969, p. 3.

[2] Ibid., p. 94.

[3] See: *Starkov A., Dixon R., Starkova Z.* Fifth Form English. Teacher's Book. M., 1969, p. 5.

[4] Ibid., p. 188—197.

[5] See: *Folomkina S., Weiser H., Kaar E.* Teacher's Guide. Book One. M., 1969, p. 3—4.

[6] See: *Starkov A., Dixon R., Starkova Z.* Fifth Form English. Teacher's Book. M., 1969, p. 3.

[7] See: *Folomkina S., Weiser H., Kaar E.* Teacher's Guide. Book One, Book Two, Book Three, etc. M., 1969.

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

There is a considerable difference in the authors' approach to the development of speaking and reading skills. S. K. Folomkina, H. M. Weiser, E. I. Kaar, A. D. Klimentenko, for instance, give preference to monologue as a form of speech that should be developed (see exercises in Book One, Book Two, etc.). A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon, Z. V. Starkova prefer developing dialogic speech first. In both systems oral language in its two forms, dialogue and monologue, is developed. As to general approach to teaching speaking and reading they have but little in common, and especially at the junior stage (5—6 forms). [2]

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

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

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[1] See: *Starkov A., Dixon R., Starkova Z.* Fifth Form English. Teacher's Book. M., 1969, p. 4.

[2] See: *Starkov A., Dixon R., Starkova Z.* Fifth Form English. Teacher's Book, p. 3—8 and Teacher's Guide, p. 3—9. M., 1969.

Languages" (Great Britain), "The Modern Language Journal", "Language Learning" (USA).

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

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

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

new words the way they did before. They go on with the old approach to vocabulary instruction. For many years teachers have widely used translation as a type of exercise for consolidating linguistic material and in reading texts. They got accustomed to translation and liked it. And now they had to restrict the usage of translation and use instead various exercises within the English language utilizing audio-visual aids and materials as both sets of teaching materials require.

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

Consequently, to solve the problem it is necessary:

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

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

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

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

Recommended Literature:

Две серии учебников по английскому языку для 5—10-го классов. Книги для учителя к учебникам.

Перечни учебных комплексов по английскому, немецкому, французскому языкам для средней общеобразовательной школы (5 — 10-е классы). — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1975, № 3.

Учебные пособия для учителя: таблицы, наборы картинок и аппликаций, диафильмы, кинофильмы и т. д.

Пособия для учащихся: книжки для чтения, грамматика и др.

Questions for Discussion:

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

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

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

4. Compare the teacher's books by different authors [1] and say whether they are written in a similar way or not. Confirm your statement. Say which teacher's book you like best. State the reason for your choice.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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[1] Here we mean teacher's books for the same form (any you will choose).

Part Two

TEACHING VARIOUS ASPECTS OF THE LANGUAGE AND FORMING SKILLS

Chapter V

Teaching Pronunciation

THE IMPORTANCE OF CORRECT PRONUNCIATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

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

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

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

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

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

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

There are many difficult sounds in English for Russian learners, [w], [ð], [θ], [r], [ə:], [ou], [ɛə] for example. To Russian-speaking pupils the combination of sounds [θs], [ðz] which occurs in English at the end of a word (*months, clothes*) is strange and they find great difficulty in pronouncing a word with this sound combination. The same may be said about the sound [ŋ]. In English it comes in the middle or at the end of many words: *English, think, song, sitting, longer* and presents a lot of trouble to pupils to produce it correctly as there is no sound like this in the Russian language.

The sounds of English may be arranged in three groups: vowels, double vowels or diphthongs, and consonants. There are twelve vowel sounds in English: [ɪ], [e], [æ], [ɔ], [u], [ʌ] and [ə] may be considered as short, but their actual lengths vary to a limited extent in the same way as those of [iː], [ɑː], etc. For instance, the vowels of [bɪt] *bit*, [let] *let*, [fut] *foot* are shorter than those of [bɪd] *bid*, [led] *led, lead*, [wud] *wood*. There is a modern tendency in South-Eastern English to lengthen some or all of the traditionally short vowels [ɪ], [e], [æ], [ɔ], [u], and [ʌ] in many situations. Words like *fit* and *feet*, *cot* and *caught*, *wood* and *wooed* are, or may be, distinguished by vowel quality only, instead of by a complex of duration and quality. [1]

"Some authorities, writes D. Jones, consider the state of tension of the tongue to be an important factor in the production of various vowel qualities, and they distinguish tense vowels from lax vowels; the [iː] of [liːp] *leap* has a tenser articulation than the [ɪ] of *lip*, and that the [uː] of [buːt] *boot* has a tenser articulation than the [u] of [fut] *foot*. This can be tested by placing the finger against the outside of the throat about half way between the chin and the larynx. When

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[1] See: *Jones D*. The Pronunciation of English. Cambridge, 1967, p. 137.

pronouncing the vowel of [lɪp] this part feels loose, but when pronouncing the vowel of [li:p], it becomes tenser and is pushed forward." [1]

Therefore such opposites as [i:] — [ɪ]; [u:] — [u]; [ə:] — [ə] are different in quality, not only in length. [2]

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

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

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

Consonants may vary in length. In this connection D. Jones writes that when final they may be observed to be longer

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[1] *Jones D.* The Pronunciation of English. Cambridge, 1967, p. 16.
[2] To show that the sounds differ in quality new symbols have been introduced for [u] — [ʋ]; for [ɔ] — [ɒ]; for [ə:] — [ɜ:]

after short vowels than they are after long vowels... The [n] in *bent* is much shorter than that in *bend*; the [l] in *gulp* is shorter than that in *bulb*. [1] The teacher of English should know this to be able to help his pupils in pronouncing words as close to the pattern as possible.

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

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

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

THE CONTENT OF TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

Pupils should study English literary pronunciation which constitutes received pronunciation. This is the language of radio, TV, theatres, universities and schools. In our schools we teach pupils literary pronunciation which is characterized by: (a) clear stress in all the rhythmic groups,

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[1] See: *Jones D.* The Pronunciation of English. Cambridge, 1967, p. 140.

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(b) clear pronunciation of the sounds, for example, *give me* and not *gimme* admitted by colloquial English; (c) typical abbreviations in auxiliary words: *it's, won't, doesn't, can't, shouldn't,* etc.

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

1. The sounds of the English language, its vowels and consonants. They should be able to articulate these sounds both separately and in different phonetic contexts.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(4) the problem of integration, i. e., learning to assemble the phonemes of a connected discourse (talk) with the proper

allophonic variations (members of a phoneme) in the, months, hard times;

(5) the problem of automaticy, [1] i. e., making correct production so habitual that it does not need to be attended to in the process of speaking.

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

HOW TO TEACH PRONUNCIATION

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

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

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[1] The term is used by John B. Carroll in *Research on Teaching Foreign Languages*. Tunis, 1967.

Each sound is also contrasted with the foreign phonemes which come close to it and with which it is often confused. The contrast is brought out through such minimal pairs as: *it — eat*; *spot — sport*; *wide — white*, *cut — cart*, *full — fool*, *boat — bought*. The experience of the sound contrast is reinforced audio-visually:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Teaching a foreign language in schools begins with teaching pupils to hear and to speak it, that is, with the oral introductory course or the oral approach. Since the aural-oral and the oral approach should be used, the unit of teaching is the sentence. We speak with sentences. Therefore pupils hear a long chain of sounds or a sound sequence from the very beginning. The teacher's task is to determine which sounds the pupils will find hard to pronounce, which sounds they can assimilate through imitation, and which sounds require explanations of the position of the organs of speech while producing them.

The following procedure in teaching pronunciation should be observed:

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

E. g. My name is ...
    name
    [n]

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

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

My name is ...

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

Teacher

a sentence — My name is ...   The book is thick.
a word — name   thick
a sound — [n]   [θ]

Pupil

a sound — [n]   [θ]
a word — name   thick
a sentence — My name is ...   The book is thick.

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

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

R e c o g n i t i o n   e x e r c i s e s   are designed for developing pupils' ability to discriminate sounds and sound sequences. Indeed the assimilation of correct English pronunciation by Russian-speaking pupils depends to a great extent on their ability to aud. In auding the reference is solely to language perception. The ability to aud is developed if the teacher uses the aural-oral method and the oral approach method in teaching the language. In our schools we use

both the aural-oral method when the oral introductory course is conducted and pupils are taught only hearing and speaking, and the oral approach and oral presentation mainly in the eight-year school when pupils get acquainted with linguistic material first by ear. Pupils should have ample practice in listening to be able to acquire the phonic aspect of the language. It can be done:

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

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

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

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

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

The teacher pronounces English phrases with a rising or falling-tone and asks pupils to raise their hands when they hear a falling tone, e. g., on the ˌtable — on the ˈtable; with my ˈfriend — with my ˌfriend; in his ˈhand — in his hand; to the ˌSouth — to the ˈSouth.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

[t]	[d]	[ɪd]
wash — washed	open — opened	want — wanted
thank — thanked	close — closed	skate — skated
work — worked	live — lived	recite — recited
stop — stopped	smile — smiled	rest — rested

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

buy	— bought	sit	— sat
think	— thought	sing	— sang
bring	— brought	begin	— began
teach	— taught	run	— ran

The teacher may select words difficult for pronunciation, such as:

[ʃuə] Sure. I am sure. I am sure he will come.
I am sure he will come soon. We are sure. He is sure.
He was sure they would help him.

['juərəp] Europe. There are many countries in Europe.
One part of our country is in Europe.
England is also in Europe.
France is in Europe, too.

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

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

[ɛə]:

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

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

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

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

— I hate being late.
— It's time for me to go.
— I can't stay any longer.

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

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

(1) through auditory perception only;

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

The techniques the teacher uses may be as follows:

pupils aud (they listen either to the teacher or to a speaker);

pupils show they understand what they listen to (the teacher checks their comprehension);

pupils listen to the sound, the word, etc. again;

they pronounce in imitation of the teacher (or speaker) in unison and individually, first bright, then average, and finally slow pupils.

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

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

(1) allows speech to be reproduced with correct pronunciation and intonation in particular;

(2) permits the same text to be repeated several times for pupils to have an opportunity to listen to it again and again;

(3) makes it possible for the teacher to develop his pupils' abilities to understand English spoken at various speeds;

(4) helps the teacher in developing his pupils' ability to speak;

(5) gives pupils an opportunity to listen to texts read by native speakers.

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

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

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

listening to tape-recordings and records develops the pupil's ability to hear erroneous pronunciation when comparing the pattern pronunciation of the speaker with that of his own.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Recommended Literature:

Программы восьмилетней школы. Иностранные языки (Фонетика). М., „Просвещение“, 1967.

Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. Под ред. А. А. Миролюбова, И. В. Рахманова, В. С. Цетлин. М., 1967, гл. VIII, с. 383—409.

Книги для учителя к учебникам V класса и др.

Беседы об уроке иностранного языка. Авт.: Пассов Е. И., Ко-

лова Т. И , Волкова Т А и др Л , „Просвещение“, 1975. (Беседа седьмая.)

Хэгболдг П. Изучение иностранных языков. М., 1963, с. 10—18, 40—42.

Questions for Discussion:

Correct pronunciation is attainable when teaching a foreign language at school.
1. What is meant by correct pronunciation?
2. What does a teacher need for teaching pupils pronunciation successfully?
3. Why is pupils' pronunciation far from being satisfactory?
4. What should a teacher do to improve pupils' pronunciation?

Activities:

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

Chapter VI

Teaching Vocabulary

THE IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING VOCABULARY

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

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

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

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

Modern tendency is to apply this principle depending on the language activities to be developed. For developing reading skills pupils need "reading vocabulary" (M. West), thus various printed texts are analysed from the point of view of word frequency. For developing speaking skills pupils need "speaking vocabulary". In this case the material for analysis is the spoken language recorded. The occurrences of words are counted in it and the words more frequently used in speaking are selected.[2]

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

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

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[1] Today we are greatly enlightened on the question of word values as the outcome of studies conducted by Thorndike and Horn in the USA, H. Palmer in Japan, M. West in India, E. Richards and C. K. Ogden in England. In the Soviet Union a great deal of work has been done on the problem of word selection by I. V. Rakhmanov and his colleagues in APS RSFSR in the 50's. As a result, first a list of words called „Словарь-минимум" and then „Словарь наиболее употребительных слов" have appeared.

[2] See: *Гугенейм Г.* Некоторые выводы статистики словаря. — В кн.: Методика преподавания иностранных языков за рубежом. Сост. М. М. Васильева и Е. В. Синявская. М., „Прогресс", 1967, с. 299—305.

1. Words that we talk with or f o r m (s t r u c t u r a l) w o r d s which make up the form (structure) of the language.

2. Words that we talk about or c o n t e n t w o r d s.

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

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

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

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

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

DIFFICULTIES PUPILS EXPERIENCE
IN ASSIMILATING VOCABULARY

Learning the words of a foreign language is not an easy business since every word has its form, meaning, and usage and each of these aspects of the word may have its difficulties. Indeed, some words are difficult in form (daughter, busy, bury, woman, women) and easy in usage; other words are easy in form (enter, get, happen) and difficult in usage. Consequently, words may be classified according to the difficulties pupils find in assimilation. In methodology some attempts have been made to approach the problem.[1]

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[1] See: Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. М., 1967, с. 286—304.

The analysis of the words within the foreign language allows us to distinguish the following groups of words: c o n c r e t e, a b s t r a c t, and s t r u c t u r a l.

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

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

PSYCHOLOGICAL AND LINGUISTIC FACTORS WHICH DETERMINE THE PROCESS OF TEACHING VOCABULARY

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

— You have relatives, haven't you?

— Yes, a grandmother.

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

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

N. I. Zhinkin writes: „Человек вообще никогда не говорит отдельные слова, если они в то же время не являются фразами. Никто ни с того ни с сего не скажет *яблоко, паутина* и т. п. В разных ситуациях этими словами будут высказываться разные сообщения и побуждения: *вот яблоко, хочу яблоко, где яблоко, не хочу яблока, это не яблоко* и т. д."[2]

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[1] *Fries Ch.* The Structure of English. Longmans, London, 1957, p. 183.

[2] *Жинкин Н. И.* Механизмы речи. М., 1958, с. 20.

This idea was also emphasized by I. A. Gruzinskaya, a prominent Soviet methodologist. She wrote: „Слово живет и развивается только в целостном речевом комплексе, только в окружении других слов, во взаимоотношении с ними" [1].

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

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

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

We fully agree with I. A. Gruzinskaya who writes: „При введении нового слова оно должно фигурировать сначала в предложении, а затем закрепляться в связанном контексте, в котором только и можно проследить многозначность слова. С изолированным словом мы будем иметь дело только после того, как оно воспринято в связном языковом целом, причем выделяем, изолируем мы слово только временно, для того чтобы фиксировать на нем внимание, объяснить его, опять поместить его в связное языковое окружение" [2].

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

Speech is taken in by ear and reproduced by the organs of speech.

„Есть все основания считать, что местом образования и накопления слов является речедвигательный анализатор. Слуховой анализатор лишь контролирует способ образования слов, но не содержит их в себе. Только то слово может быть понято и узнано, которое уже образовано и двигательные следы которого хранятся в двигательном анализаторе.

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[1] *Грузинская И. А.* Методика преподавания английского языка. М., 1938, с. 98.

[2] Ibid., p. 97—98.

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Незнакомое слово должно быть (под контролем слуха) предварительно усвоено речедвигательным анализатором"[1].

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

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

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

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

For instance: *see* — *sea; too* — *two; one* — *won* (in pronunciation); *answer* — *reply; answer* — *ask; small* — *little* (in meaning); *bought* — *brought; caught* — *taught; night* — *right* (in spelling); *to fight somebody* — бороться против кого-либо; *to doubt something* — сомневаться в чем-либо; *to mention something* — упоминать о чем-либо (similar word combination).

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

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

(1) to furnish explanation, i. e., to present the word, to get his pupils to identify the concept correctly;

(2) to get them to recall or recognize the word by means of different exercises;

(3) to stimulate pupils to use the words in speech.

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

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[1] *Жинкин Н. И.* Механизмы речи. М., 1958, с. 132.

Hence there are two stages in teaching vocabulary: presentation or explanation, retention or consolidation which are based on certain psycholinguistic factors.[1]

HOW TO TEACH VOCABULARY IN SCHOOL

P r e s e n t a t i o n   o f   n e w   w o r d s. Since every word has its form, meaning, and usage to present a word means to introduce to pupils its forms (phonetic, graphic, structural, and grammatical), and to explain its meaning, and usage.

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

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

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

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

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[1] See works by Leontiev A. A.

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

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

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

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

Then the teacher shows another picture with two houses in it — a small house and a big house, and he asks another

pupil to point to the small house, to the big house, and so on. The teacher may use gestures, for example, for conveying the meaning of stand up, sit down. He says: *Lena, stand up.* He shows with his hands what she must do. Lena stands up. *Now, sit down.* Again with the movement of his hands he shows the girl what she has to do. The other pupils listen to the teacher and watch what Lena is doing. Then many pupils are invited to perform the actions.

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

Teacher: It was hot. We had nothing to drink. We were *thirsty.* Do people need water or bread when they are thirsty?

Pupil$_1$: They need water.

Teacher: What do people need when they are thirsty?

Pupil$_2$: They need water (or something to drink).

Teacher: It was hot. We had nothing to drink. We were thirsty. Were we thirsty?

Pupil$_3$: Yes, you were.

Teacher: Were we thirsty or hungry? (The pupils are familiar with the word *hungry.*)

Pupil$_4$: You were thirsty.

Teacher: Why were we thirsty?

Pupil$_5$: You were thirsty because it was hot.

Teacher: Are you thirsty, Pete?

Pete: No, I am not.

Teacher: Who is thirsty?

Ann: I am.

Teacher: What did she say, Mike?

Mike: She said she was thirsty.

There is no need to turn to the mother tongue as pupils can grasp the meaning of the word *thirsty* from the context. Besides, while presenting the new word a conversation takes place between the teacher and the class, so they have practice in listening comprehension and speaking.

The teacher may use a definition.

Teacher: The new word is *blind.* A blind person is one who cannot see. Can a blind person see?

P u p i l₁: No, he can't.

T e a c h e r: What can't a blind person do — see .or hear?

P u p i l₂: He can't see.

T e a c h e r: He can't see because he is blind. Why can't he see?

P u p i l₃: Because he is blind.

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

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

T e a c h e r: You know the words: *worker, teacher* ... Now guess the meaning of the word *writer.* Write — writer. Name a writer you like, children.

P u p i l₁: Tolstoy.

P u p i l₂: Chekhov.

P u p i l₃: Gorky.

T e a c h e r: That's right.
Is Sholokhov a writer?

P u p i l₄: Yes, he is.

T e a c h e r: Is Repin a writer?

P u p i l₅: No, he is not.

T e a c h e r: Is Kataev a writer or a teacher?

P u p i l₆: He is a writer.

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

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

teacher — teach

T e a c h e r: Who teaches you English?

P u p i l₁: You do.

T e a c h e r: Who teaches you geography?

P u p i l₂: Maria Ivanovna does.

T e a c h e r: Does M. V. teach you English or Russian?

P u p i l₃: She teaches us Russian.

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

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

Pupil l_1: Leningrad is a city.

Pupil l_2: Kiev is a city.

Pupil l_3: Minsk is a city.

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

Pupil l_1: Zagorsk.

Pupil l_2: Noginsk.

Teacher: That's right.

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

It is difficult to cover all the techniques the teacher may have at his disposal to convey the meaning of new words directly without the help of the mother tongue. There are teachers, however, who do not admit that pupils can understand what a new word means without translating it into the native tongue, and though they use some techniques of the direct method for conveying the meaning of new words, they immediately ask their pupils to say *what is the Russian for...?* Here are a few examples. Teacher N. presented the word *ball* in the fifth form. She had brought a ball. She showed the ball to the pupils and said: *This is a ball ... a ball. The ball is red and blue. What is the Russian for 'a ball', children? Who can guess?* Of course everyone could. They cried: мячик. What is the use of bringing the ball if the teacher turns to the mother tongue? So instead of developing pupils' abilities and skills in establishing associations between the English word and the object it denotes, she emphasized the necessity for the use of the mother tongue in learning the word. Then she presented the word *football*. She used a picture in which some boys were playing football. She said: *Look at the picture, children. You can see some boys in the picture. They are playing football. What is the Russian for 'football'? Who can guess?* The pupils were not enthusiastic to answer this question because they probably found it silly. (It does not mean, of course, that the teacher cannot turn to the mother tongue to check pupils' comprehension when he uses the direct method of conveying the meaning of some

difficult words not like those mentioned above — when he is not sure that everyone has understood them properly.) Consequently, the direct method works well provided that the teacher is good at applying visual aids and using verbal means when he explains new words to the pupils. Moreover, he must do it vividly to arouse his pupils' interest in the work performed, and thus to provide optimum conditions for understanding the meaning of the words and their assimilation through the foreign language. Besides various accessories (objects, pictures, movements, gestures, facial expressions, etc.) should be widely used. If the teacher cannot work with visual aids and is not an actor to a certain extent (after all, every teacher ought to be something of an actor), it is he, but not the method, who fails in conveying the meaning of new words.

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

T h e   t r a n s l a t i o n   m e t h o d may be applied in its two variants:

1. Common (proper) translation:

to sleep — спать
flower — цветок
joy — радость

2. Translation — interpretation:

to go — ехать, идти, лететь (движение от говорящего)
to come — ехать, идти, лететь (движение к говорящему)
to drive — вести (что?) машину, поезд, автобус, трамвай
education — воспитание, образование
afternoon — время с 12 ч. дня до 6 ч. вечера
in the afternoon — днем

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

visual presentation prevails in junior forms;
verbal means prevail in intermediate and senior forms;
translation in all the forms, especially in senior forms.

From psychology it is known that the process of perception is a complicated one; it includes various sensations and, at the

same time, is closely connected with thinking and speech, with pupils' attention, their will, memory, and emotions. The more active the pupils are during the explanation of new words the better the results that can be achieved.

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

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

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

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

1. Psychological factors:

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

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

2. Pedagogical factors:

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

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

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

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

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

3. Linguistic factors:

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

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

Whatever method of presenting a new word is used pupils should be able to pronounce the word correctly, listen to sen-

tences with the word, repeat the word after the teacher individually and in unison both as a single unit and in sentences. However this is only the first step in approaching the word. Then comes the assimilation which is gained through performing various exercises.

R e t e n t i o n   o f   w o r d s. To attain the desired end pupils must first of all perform various exercises to fix the words in their memory.

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

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

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

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

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

G r o u p   I may include:

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

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

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

or (b) which denote size:

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

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[1] *Жинкин Н. И.* Механизмы речи. М., 1958, гл. VI.

— Choose the right word:

The horse is a *(wild, domestic)* animal.

They *(ate, drank)* some water.

The *(sheep, fly)* is an insect.

The *(rode, road)* leads to Minsk.

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

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

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

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

— Fill in the blanks: *They saw a little —— in the forest The hut was ——.*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

G r o u p II may include:

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

— Combine the words:

(a)		(b)	
sky	fine	speak	late
rain	blue	run	fast
snow	heavy	come	loudly
weather	white		

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

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

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

— Connect the sentences:

You must be careful	because they had to complete their work.
He should stay at home	because the traffic is heavy in the street.
They couldn't come in time	because he has caught cold.

(Pupils should join the sentences on the left with these on the right.)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(1) the number of exercises to be used;

(2) the type of exercises to be used;

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

In solving these problems the teacher should take into consideration:

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

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

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

At both stages of teaching vocabulary the teacher should constantly use all kinds of vocabulary testing to see how his pupils assimilate the form, the meaning, and the usage of the words. For testing the retention of the written form dictations may be suggested. For testing the meaning special tests may be recommended such as writing synonyms, antonyms, de-

rivatives, identification, and some others. For testing the usage of the words the teacher may administer such tests as composing sentences using the words given, composing a story on a picture or a set of pictures, and some others. The teacher should bear in mind that most of the exercises offered for the stages of presentation and retention may be fruitfully utilized for vocabulary testing.

Recommended Literature:

Программы восьмилетней школы. Иностранные языки (Лексика). М., „Просвещение", 1967.

Грузинская И. А. Методика преподавания английского языка. М., 1938, § 31, 32.

Деннингхауз Ф. Проблемы одноязычной семантизации. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1966, № 3.

Беседы об уроке иностранного языка. Авт.: Пассов Е. И., Колова Т. И., Волкова Т. А. и др. Л., „Просвещение", 1975. (Беседа третья.)

Николаев Н. В. О необходимости дифференцированного подхода к иноязычному учебному лексическому материалу. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1966, № 6.

Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам. Под ред. А. А. Миролюбова, И. В. Рахманова, В. С. Цетлин. М., 1967, гл. VI, с. 286—304.

Questions for Discussion:

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

Activities:

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

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Chapter VII

Teaching Grammar

THE IMPORTANCE OF GRAMMAR
IN LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

In order to understand a language and to express oneself correctly one must assimilate the grammar mechanism of the language studied. Indeed, one may know all the words in a sentence and yet fail to understand it, if one does not see the relationship between the words in the given sentence. And vice versa, a sentence may contain one, two, and more unknown words but if one has a good knowledge of the structure of the language one can easily guess the meaning of these words or at least find them in a dictionary. For instance, one can hardly understand the following sentences without a knowledge of grammar even if all the words are familiar: *We saw him book a ticket. It made me return home. (It made me happy.)* because each of them includes some grammar difficulties for Russian-speaking pupils, namely, the infinitive construction in both of them, and an unusual meaning of the familiar words *book* and *make*. However if a pupil has assimilated the model of the Complex Object in the English language he will understand that in the sentence *We saw him book a ticket* the word *book* is not a noun, it cannot be a noun since *him book* is a complex object. In this sentence *book* is an infinitive, therefore, the pupil must look it up in a dictionary under *v*. In the second sentence the verb *make* is used in the meaning of заставлять since there is the infinitive construction *to make somebody do something* which the pupil can easily recognize if he has learnt it.

No speaking is possible without the knowledge of grammar, without the forming of a grammar mechanism. If a learner has acquired such a mechanism, he can produce correct sentences in a foreign language. Paul Roberts writes: "Grammar is something that produces the sentences of a language. By something we mean a speaker of English. If you speak English natively, you have built into you the rules of English grammar. In a sense, you are an English grammar. You possess, as an essential part of your being, a very complicated apparatus which enables you to produce infinitely many sentences, all English ones, including many that you have never specifi-

cally learned. Furthermore by applying your rule you can easily tell whether a sentence that you hear is a grammatical English sentence or not." [1]

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

THE MOST COMMON DIFFICULTIES PUPILS HAVE IN ASSIMILATING ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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

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

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

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

The use of modal verbs in various types of sentences is very difficult for the learner. For example, he should differentiate

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[1] *Roberts P.* English Sentences. New York, 1962, p. 1.

the use of *can* and *may* while in Russian the verb мочь covers them both. Then he should remember which verb must be used in answers to the questions with modal verbs. For instance, *May I go home? No, you mustn't. May I take your pen? Yes, you may. Must I do it? No, you needn't.*

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

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

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

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

THE CONTENT OF TEACHING GRAMMAR

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

By grammar one can mean adequate comprehension and correct usage of words in the act of communication, that is, the intuitive knowledge of the grammar of the language. It is a set of reflexes enabling a person to communicate with his associates. Such knowledge is acquired by a child in the mother tongue before he goes to school. This "grammar" functions without the individual's awareness of technical nomenclature, in other words, he has no idea of the system of the language; he simply uses the system. The child learns to speak the language, and to use all the word-endings for singular and plural, for tense, and all the other grammar rules without special grammar lessons only due to the abundance of auding and speaking. His young mind grasps the facts and "makes simple grammar rules" for arranging the words to express various thoughts and feelings. This is true because sometimes

little children make mistakes by using a common rule for words to which that rule cannot be applied. For example, a little English child might be heard to say *Two mans comed* instead of *Two men came*, because the child is using the plural *s* rule for *man* to which the rule does not apply, and the past tense *ed* rule for *come* which does not obey the ordinary rule for the past tense formation. A little Russian child can say ножов instead of ножей using the case-ending ов for ножи to which it does not apply. Such mistakes are corrected as the child grows older and learns more of his language.

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

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

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

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[1] See: Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам. М., 1967, гл. VII, с. 332—346.

$$-ing \begin{cases} \text{Gerund} \\ \text{Present} \\ \text{Participle} \\ \text{Verbal Noun} \end{cases}$$

$$-ed \begin{cases} \text{Past Indefinite} \\ \text{Past Participle} \end{cases}$$

$$-s\ (es) \begin{cases} \text{Plural of nouns} \\ \text{The 3d person singular of Present Indefinite} \end{cases}$$

The selection of grammar material involves choosing the appropriate kind of linguistic description, i. e., the grammar which constitutes the best base for developing speech habits. Thus the school syllabus reflects a traditional approach to determining grammar material for foreign language teaching. The textbooks reflect a structural approach to grammar (see, for example, the textbooks by A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon); pupils are given sentence patterns or structures, and through these structures they assimilate the English language, acquire grammar mechanisms of speech. Consequently, the syllabus and the textbooks emphasize different aspects of grammar. The syllabus emphasizes w h a t t o t e a c h and gives it in terms of traditional grammar. The textbooks emphasize h o w t o t e a c h and present grammar in sentence patterns, structures (structural approach). That is how the syllabus and the textbooks present grammar. The amount of grammar material pupils should assimilate in school, and the way it is distributed throughout the course of study, may be found in the syllabi for eight-year schools and for ten-year schools. In teaching grammar the teacher follows the recommendations given in Teacher's Books and instructs pupils through sentence patterns and structures presented in Pupil's Books. Although the content of grammar teaching is disputable among teachers and methodologists, and there are various approaches to the problem, pupils should, whatever the content of the course, assimilate the ways of fitting words together to form sentences and be able to easily recognize grammar forms and structures while hearing and reading, to reproduce phrases and sentences stored up in their memory and say or write sentences of their own, using grammar items appropriate to the situation.

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HOW TO TEACH GRAMMAR

Some General Principles of Grammar Teaching and How to Use Them

Teaching grammar should be based upon the following principles:

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

The teacher draws pupils' attention to the new element in the sentence pattern. The teaching point may be presented in the form of a rule, a very short one. It is usually done in the mother tongue. For example: Помни, что во множественном числе к существительному прибавляется окончание -s [s, z] или -es [ɪz]. Or: Помни, что в отрицательных предложениях ставится вспомогательный глагол *do not (does not)*. The rule helps the learner to understand and to assimilate the structural meaning of the elements. It ensures a conscious approach to learning. This approach provides favourable conditions for the speedy development of correct and more flexible language use. However it does not mean that the teacher should ask pupils to say this or that rule. Rules do not ensure the mastery of the language. They only help to attain the practical goal. If a pupil can recognize and employ correctly the forms that are appropriate, that is sufficient. When the learner can give ample proof of these abilities we may say that he has fulfilled the syllabus requirements.

Conscious learning is also ensured when a grammar item is contrasted with another grammar item which is usually confused. The contrast is brought out through oppositions. For example:

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

He has come. ⎱ The Present Perfect is contrasted
He came an hour ago. ⎰ with the Past Indefinite.

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

Give me the book (you have promised).	The definite article is contrasted with the indefinite article.
Give me a book (to read in the train).	

I like soup (more than any other food).	The zero article is contrasted with the definite article.
I like the soup (you have cooked).	

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

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

2. P r a c t i c a l a p p r o a c h to the assimilation of grammar. It means that pupils learn those grammar items which they need for immediate use either in oral or written language. For example, from the first steps of language learning pupils need the Possessive Case for aural comprehension and speaking about things or objects which belong to different people, namely, *Mike's textbook, Ann's mother, the boys' room*, etc. In the senior stage (9—10 forms) pupils need the Sequence of Tenses mainly for reading to be able to understand such sentences as *He said he had been there. We hoped Mary would come soon.* The learner masters grammar through performing various exercises in using a given grammar item.

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

3. S t r u c t u r a l a p p r o a c h to the teaching of grammar, i. e., grammar items are introduced and drilled in structures or sentence patterns. It has been proved and accept-

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

Pupils are taught to understand English when spoken to and to speak it from the very beginning. This is possible provided they have learned sentence patterns and words as a pattern and they know how to adjust them to the situations they are given.[1]

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

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

4. S i t u a t i o n a l   a p p r o a c h to the teaching of grammar. Pupils learn a grammar item used in situations. For example, the Possessive Case may be effectively introduced in classroom situations. The teacher takes or simply touches various things and says *This is Nina's pen; That is Sasha's exercise-book*, and so on. Complex Object *I want somebody to do something* may also be presented in classroom situations. For example, the teacher addresses a boy, he says: *Pete, I want you to give me your exercise-book. Please, give it to me. Lena, I want you to help Nick with his English. Please, help him with his reading. Andrew, I want you to clean the blackboard. Will you?*

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[1] See: *Вятютнев М. Н.* Модели обучения иностранным языкам в работах Г. Пальмера. Ф. Френча, А. Хорнби, Г. Менона, Ч. Фриза и Р. Ладо; *Бессмертный А. З.* Усвоение речевых моделей с помощью наглядных пособий. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1963, № 3.

[2] See: *Степанова М. Д.* Грамматическое моделирование; *Аракин В. Д.* Подстановочные таблицы; *Бим И. Л.* Моделирование устной речи в методических целях. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1963, № 3; *Старков А. П.* Грамматические структуры английского языка. ВГУ, 1962.

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

5. D i f f e r e n t a p p r o a c h to the teaching of active grammar (grammar for conversation) and passive grammar (grammar for reading). Grammar items pupils need for conversation are taught by the oral approach, i. e., pupils aud them, perform various oral exercises, finally see them printed, and write sentences using them.

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

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

While preparing for the lesson at which a new grammar item should be introduced, the teacher must realize the difficulties pupils will meet in assimilating this new element of the English grammar. They may be of three kinds: difficulties in form, meaning, and usage. The teacher thinks of the ways to overcome these difficulties: how to convey the meaning of the grammar item either through situations or with the help of

the mother tongue; what rule should be used; what exercises should be done; their types and number. Then he thinks of the sequence in which pupils should work to overcome these difficulties, i. e., from observation and comprehension through conscious imitation to usage in conversation (communicative exercises). Then the teacher considers the form in which he presents the grammar item — orally, in writing, or in reading. And, finally, the teacher plans pupils' activity while they are learning this grammar point: their individual work, mass work, work in unison, and work in pairs, always bearing in mind that for assimilation pupils need ample examples of the sentence pattern in which this grammar item occurs.

Types of Exercises
for the Assimilation of Grammar

The following types of exercises may be suggested.

R e c o g n i t i o n   e x e r c i s e s which are the easiest type of exercises for pupils to perform. They observe the grammar item in structures (sentence patterns) when hearing or reading. Since pupils only observe the new grammar item the situations should be natural and communicative. For example:

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

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

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

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

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

1. Mother was cooking dinner ⎱ when I came.
   Mother had cooked dinner ⎰

2. Mary was sending letters ⎱ when I saw her in the
   Mary had sent letters ⎰ Post Office.

3. It was raining ⎱ when they left home.
   It had rained ⎰

— Read the sentences and choose the correct form of the verb. The following sentences may be suggested:
1. I *(go, went)* to the library last Monday.
2. Tom *(takes, took)* a bus when he goes to school.
3. The children *(say, said)* good-bye to the teacher and ran away, etc.

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

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

D r i l l   e x e r c i s e s are more complicated as they require reproduction on the part of the pupils. In learning a foreign language drill exercises are indispensable. The learners cannot assimilate the material if they only hear and see it. They must reproduce it both in outer and inner speech. The more often they say it the better they assimilate the material. Though drill exercises are those in which pupils have only one difficulty to overcome, they should also be graded:

(a) Repetitive drill. Pupils pronounce the sentence pattern after the teacher, in imitation of the teacher, both individually and in unison. For example:

T e a c h e r: They are dancing in the park.
C l a s s: They are dancing in the park.
I n d i v i d u a l s: They are dancing in the park.

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

— Is Ann dancing now?
— No, she isn't.
— What is she doing?
— She is watching television.

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

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

The children are dancing in the park.
The children are dancing in the garden.
The children are dancing in the street.

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The children are dancing in the yard.
The children are dancing in the hall.
The children are dancing after classes.
The children are dancing at the party.

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

They are singing in the park.
They are working in the park.
They are walking in the park.
They are playing in the park.
They are running in the park.
They are talking in the park.
They are watering flowers in the park.
They are planting trees in the park.
They are helping the workers in the park.

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

Kate	helping her mother
Your sister	doing her homework
This girl	working on the farm
	reading a book
	listening to the radio
	washing windows

They work in pairs.

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

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

T e a c h e r: Look at the picture.
Mike is ... .
P u p i l: Mike is getting up.
C l a s s: Mike is getting up.

T e a c h e r: Mike is ... .
P u p i l: Mike is dressing.
C l a s s: Mike is dressing.

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

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

T e a c h e r: Is Mike getting up?
P u p i l$_1$: Yes, he is.
T e a c h e r: Who is getting up?
P u p i l$_2$: Mike is.
T e a c h e r: What is Mike doing?
P u p i l$_3$: He is getting up.

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

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

C r e a t i v e   e x e r c i s e s   (speech exercises). This is the most difficult type of exercises as it requires creative work on the part of the learners. These may be:

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

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

(c) Speaking about the situation offered by the teacher. For example, one pupil gives commands to perform this or that action, the other comments on the action (actions) his classmate performs.[1]

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[1] This exercise was introduced by H. Palmer. See his book *The Oral Method of Teaching Languages,* Cambridge, 1921.

P u p i l₁: Go to the door, Sasha.
P u p i l₂: Sasha is going to the door.
P u p i l₃: Open the door.
P u p i l₄: Sasha is opening the door.

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

He has opened the door.
He opened the door a minute ago.

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

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

P u p i l₁: I have read an interesting book.
P u p i l₂: What is it about?
P u p i l₁: Indians.
P u p i l₂: Will you give it to me to read?
P u p i l₁: Why not?

(f) Dramatizing the text read. For example, pupils read the text *Nancy's Best Picture* in persons. [1]

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

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

(i) Translating into English.

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

T e a c h e r: What's the weather like, children?
Is it cold today? Do you like it when it's cold?

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

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

As to the grammar items pupils need only for reading, pupils assimilate them while performing drill exercises and reading texts. This is usually done only in senior grades where the grammar material is not necessarily used in oral

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[1] See: English 7 by H. M. Weiser and A. D. Klimentenko, p. 121—123.

language. The teacher should train pupils in observing and determining the devices which signal their structural meaning to the learner. Pupils must know the functional words as they are of great importance in comprehending difficult sentences such as: *since, for, despite, in spite of, by means of, with the help of, according to,* etc.

All the exercises mentioned above are designed:

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

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

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

G r a m m a r   t e s t s. A check on the assimilation of grammar material is carried out through:

(1) auding (if a pupil understands what he auds, he knows grammar);

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

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

(4) tests.

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

For example:

— Choose the correct word:
Last year he (reads, read) a lot of books.
— Open the brackets:
When I came home, Nick (to do) his lessons.
— Make it negative:
He likes to get up early.
— Complete the sentences:
If the weather is fine ... .

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— Make statements on the pictures given.

— Translate the following sentences from Russian into English.

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

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

Recommended Literature:

Программы восьмилетней школы. Иностранные языки (Грамматика). М., „Просвещение", 1967.

Программы средней школы. Иностранные языки (Грамматика). М., „Просвещение", 1967.

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Беляев Б. В. Очерки по психологии обучения иностранным языкам. М., 1965, с. 140—148.

Артемов В. А. Психология обучения иностранным языкам. М., 1969, с. 252—254.

Бабкина В. С. Об обучении структурному оформлению предложений в V классе. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1972, № 4.

Балабайко М. С. Закрепление грамматического материала с помощью устных ситуативных упражнений. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1966, № 6.

Раздина Т. И. Адекватность правила как важнейшее условие формирования навыка. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1969, № 2.

Малишевская Л. П. Схема как один из видов учебного правила. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1973, № 6.

Беседы об уроке иностранного языка. Авт.: Пассов Е. И., Колова Т. И., Волкова Т. А. и др. Л., „Просвещение", 1975. (Беседа четвертая.)

Волкова Е. И. Английский язык в речевых ситуациях. М., 1974.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Grammar is very important in foreign language learning. Why?

2. There are different viewpoints on grammar teaching. Analyse them and say which you consider justifiable in foreign language teaching in schools. Give your reasons.

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Activities:

1. Examine one of the lessons in Pupil's Book and Teacher's Book to deduce upon what principles grammar is taught.

2. Select a grammar item and prepare the plan of a lesson to be used with a standard textbook.

3. Give a contrastive analysis of one of the grammar items to determine the difficulties it presents to Russian-speaking pupils.

4. Review the principles grammar teaching should be based upon and show how you will utilize them in teaching some grammar item.

5. Compile a grammar test. Select a grammar item from a standard textbook.

Chapter VIII

Teaching Hearing and Speaking

The previous chapters dealt with the teaching of various aspects of the language, namely, phonetics (pronunciation), vocabulary, and grammar. The knowledge of each of the aspects is of great importance to learners. However, when we say a person knows the language we first of all mean he understands the language spoken and can speak it himself.

Language came into life as a means of communication. It exists and is alive only through speech. When we speak about teaching a foreign language, we first of all have in mind teaching it as a means of communication.

Speech is a bilateral process. It includes hearing, on the one hand, and speaking, on the other. When we say "hearing" we mean auding or listening and comprehension.

Speaking exists in two forms: dialogue and monologue. We may represent it as follows:

$$\text{Oral language} \begin{cases} \text{hearing} \\ \text{speaking} \begin{cases} \text{dialogue} \\ \text{monologue} \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

ORAL LANGUAGE AS AN AIM AND A MEANS OF TEACHING

The syllabus requirements for oral language are as follows:

(1) to understand the language spoken;

(2) to carry on a conversation and to speak a foreign language within the topics and linguistic material the syllabus sets.

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This is the practical aim in teaching oral language. But oral language is not only an aim in itself, it is also a mighty means of foreign language instruction. It is a means of presenting linguistic material: sounds, words, and grammar items. It is also a means of practising sentence patterns (grammar) and vocabulary assimilation. Finally, it is used for developing pronunciation habits and skills and, therefore, for reading and writing since they are closely connected with pupils' ability to pronounce correctly what they read and write. Thus speaking is the most important part of the work during the lesson.

Oral language is a means of testing pupils' comprehension when they hear or read a text. Properly used oral language ensures pupils' progress in language learning and, consequently, arouses their interest in the subject.

THE MOST COMMON DIFFICULTIES
IN AUDING AND SPEAKING
A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Auding or listening and comprehension are difficult for learners because they should discriminate speech sounds quickly, retain them while hearing a word, a phrase, or a sentence and recognize this as a sense unit. Pupils can easily and naturally do this in their own language and they cannot do this in a foreign language when they start learning the language. Pupils are very slow in grasping what they hear because they are conscious of the linguistic forms they perceive by the ear. This results in misunderstanding or a complete failure of understanding.

When auding 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 auding: (1) linguistic material for auding; (2) the content of the material suggested for listening and comprehension; (3) conditions in which the material is presented.

1. Comprehension of the text by the ear can be ensured when the teacher uses the material which has already been assimilated by pupils. However this does not completely eliminate the difficulties in auding. Pupils need practice in listening and comprehension in the target language to be able to overcome three kinds of difficulties: phonetic, lexical, and grammatical.

Phonetic difficulties appear because the phonic system of English and Russian differ greatly. The hearer often interprets the sounds of a foreign language as if they were of his own language which usually results in misunderstanding. The following opposites present much trouble to beginners in learning English:

θ — s	tr — tʃ	ʌ — ɔ	s — z	ɑː — ɔ
θ — f	dr — dʒ	ð — z	t — tʃ	ɔː — ə:
w — v		ð — v	n — ŋ	æ — e

Pupils also find it difficult to discriminate such opposites as: ɔː — ɔ, ɑ — ʌ, iː — ɪ, uː — u.

They can hardly differentiate the following words by ear: *worked — walked; first — fast — forced; lion — line; tired — tide; bought — boat — board.*

The difference in intonation often prevents pupils from comprehending a communication. For example, Good ˅morning (when meeting); Good ˏmorning (at parting).

The teacher, therefore, should develop his pupils' ear for English sounds and intonation.

Lexical difficulties are closely connected with the phonetic ones. Pupils often misunderstand words because they hear them wrong. For example: *The horse is slipping. The horse is sleeping. They worked till night. They walked till night.*

The opposites are often misunderstood, for the learners often take one word for another. For example: *east — west, take — put; ask — answer.* The most difficult words for auding are the verbs with postpositions, such as: *put on, put off, put down, take off, see off, go in for,* etc.

Grammatical difficulties are mostly connected with the analytic structure of the English language, and with the extensive use of infinitive and participle constructions. Besides, English is rich in grammatical homonyms, for example: *to work — work; to answer — answer; -ed* as the suffix of the Past Indefinite and the Past Participle.

This is difficult for pupils when they aud.

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

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 auding such a text. Narration is more interesting for auding. 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 auding.

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 auding, namely:

The speed of the speech the pupil is auding. 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 auding a foreign language.[1] The most convincing is the approach suggested by N. V. Elukhina. She believes that in teaching auding 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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[1] *Золотницкая С. П.; Гез Н. И.; Миньяр-Белоручев Р. К.; Цесарский Л. Д.; Елухина Н. В.* (see Bibliography).

per minute. According to the investigation carried out by L. Tzesarsky the average speed for teaching auding should be 120 words per minute; the slow speed — 90 words per minute.

The number of times of presenting the material for auding: whether the pupils should listen to the text once, twice, three times or more. Pupils should be taught to listen to the text once and this must become a habit. However they sometimes can grasp only 50% of the information and even less, so a second presentation may be helpful. In case the pupils cannot grasp most of the information, practice proves that manifold repetitions when hearing do not help much. It is necessary to help pupils in comprehension by using a "feed back" established through a dialogue between the teacher and the class [1] which takes as much time as it is required for the repetitive presentation of the material.

The presence or the absence of the speaker. The most favourable condition is when pupils can see the speaker as is the case when the teacher speaks to them in a foreign language. The most unfavourable condition for auding is listening and comprehending a dialogue, when pupils cannot see the speakers and do not take part in the conversation.

Visual "props" which may be of two kinds, objects and motions. Pupils find it difficult to aud without visual props. The eye should help the ear to grasp a text when dealing with beginners.

The voice of the speaker also influences pupils' comprehension. Pupils who get used to the teacher's voice can easily understand him, but they cannot understand other people speaking the same language.

Consequently, in teaching listening comprehension the teacher should bear in mind all the difficulties pupils encounter when auding in a foreign language.

Speaking a foreign language is the most difficult part in language learning because pupils need ample practice in speaking to be able to say a few words of their own in connection with a situation. This work is time-consuming and pupils rarely feel any real necessity to make themselves understood during the whole period of learning a new language in school.

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[1] See: *Сатинова В. Ф.* Проблемы обучения аудированию монологической речи на творческом этапе. Автореф. на соиск. учен. степени канд. пед. наук. Минск, 1971.

The stimuli the teacher can use are often feeble and artificial. The pupil repeats the sentence he hears, he completes -sentences that are in the book, he constructs sentences on the pattern of a given one. These mechanical drill exercises are, of course, necessary; however, when they go on year after year without any other real language practice they are deadening. There must be occasions when the pupils feel the necessity to inform someone of something, to explain something, and to prove something to someone. This is a psychological factor which must be taken into account when teaching pupils to speak a foreign language.

Another factor of no less importance is a psycho-linguistic one; the pupil needs words, phrases, sentence patterns, and grammatical forms and structures stored up in his memory ready to be used for expressing any thought he wants to. In teaching speaking, therefore, the teacher should stimulate his pupils' speech by supplying them with the subject and by teaching them the words and grammar they need to speak about the suggested topic or situation. The teacher should lead his pupils to unprepared speaking through prepared speaking.

SPEECH AND ORAL EXERCISES

We must distinguish speech and oral exercises for they are often mixed up by the teacher.

Speech is a process of communication by means of language. For example, (1) a pupil tells the class a story about something which once happened to him; (2) the teacher asks questions on the story read by the pupils at home and starts a discussion; (3) pupils speak on the pictures suggested by the teacher, each tries to say what others have not mentioned; (4) pupils listen to the story and get some new information from the text; (5) they see a sound film and learn about something new from it, etc.

Oral exercises are used for the pupils to assimilate phonetics, grammar, and vocabulary. They are mostly drill exercises and the teacher turns to them whenever he works at enriching pupils' knowledge in vocabulary and grammar, at improving pupils' pronunciation, etc. For example, reciting a rhyme or a poem is considered to be an excellent oral exercise for drilling pronunciation and for developing speech habits. Making

up sentences following the model is an excellent oral exercise for fixing a sentence pattern and words which fit the pattern in the pupils' mind. Making statements with the words or phrases the teacher gives is another valuable oral exercise which allows the teacher to retain them in his pupils' memory through manifold repetitions.

Oral exercises are quite indispensable to developing speech. However, they only prepare pupils for speaking and cannot be considered to be "speech" as some teachers are apt to think and who are often satisfied with oral exercises which pupils perform following the model; they seldom use stimuli for developing pupils' auding and speaking in the target language.

In order to get a better understanding of what speech is we are to consider the psychological and linguistic characteristics of speech.

PSYCHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS
OF SPEECH

The development of speaking follows the same pattern both in the mother tongue and in a foreign language from reception to reproduction as psychologists say, and from hearing to speaking if we express it in terms of methodology.

Since "language is not a substance, it is a process." (N. Brooks) and "language doesn't exist. It happens." (P. Strevens), we should know under what conditions "it happens". What are the psychological characteristics of oral language? They are as follows:

1. Speech must be motivated, i. e., the speaker expresses a desire to inform the hearer of something interesting, important, or to get information from him. Suppose one of the pupils is talking to a friend of hers. Why is she talking? Because she wants to either tell her friend about something interesting, or get information from her about something important. This is the case of inner motivation. But very often oral speech is motivated outwardly. For instance, the pupil's answers at an examination.

Rule for the teacher: In teaching a foreign language it is necessary to think over the motives which make pupils speak. They should have a necessity to speak and not only a desire to receive a good mark. Ensure

conditions in which a pupil will have a desire to say something in the foreign language, to express his thoughts, his feelings, and not to reproduce someone else's as is often the case when he learns the text by heart. Remember that oral speech in the classroom should be always stimulated. Try to use those stimuli which can arouse a pupil's wish to respond in his own way.

2. Speech is always addressed to an interlocuter.

Rule for the teacher: Organize the teaching process in a way which allows your pupils to speak to someone, to their classmates in particular, i. e., when speaking a pupil should address the class, and not the teacher or the ceiling as is often the case. When he retells a text which is no longer new to the class, nobody listens to him as the classmates are already familiar with it. This point, as one can see, is closely connected with the previous one. The speaker will hold his audience when he says something new, something individual (personal). Try to supply pupils with assignments which require individual approach on their part.

3. Speech is always emotionally coloured for a speaker expresses his thoughts, his feelings, his attitude to what he says.

Rule for the teacher: Teach pupils how to use intonational means to express their attitude, their feelings about what they say. That can be done by giving such tasks as: *reason why you like the story; prove something; give your opinion on the episode, or on the problem concerned,* etc.

4. Speech is always situational for it takes place in a certain situation.

Rule for the teacher: While teaching speaking real and close-to-real situations should be created to stimulate pupils' speech. Think of the situations you can use in class to make pupils' speech situational. Remember the better you know the class the easier it is for you to create situations for pupils to speak about.

These are the four psychological factors which are to be taken into account when teaching speech.

LINGUISTIC CHARACTERISTICS
OF SPEECH

Oral language as compared to written language is more flexible. It is relatively free and is characterized by some peculiarities in vocabulary and grammar. Taking into consideration, however, the conditions in which the foreign language is taught in schools, we cannot teach pupils colloquial English. We teach them standard English as spoken on the radio, TV, etc. Oral language taught in schools is close to written language standards and especially its monologic form. It must be emphasized that a pupil should use short sentences in monologue, sentence patterns which are characteristic of oral language. We need not teach pupils to use long sentences while describing a picture. For example: *The boy has a long blue pencil in his left hand.* The child may use four sentences instead of one: *The boy has a pencil. It's in his left hand. The pencil is long. It is blue.*

Pupils should be acquainted with some peculiarities of the spoken language, otherwise they will not understand it when hearing and their own speech will be artificial. This mainly concerns dialogues. Linguistic peculiarities of dialogue are as follows:

1. The use of incomplete sentences (ellipses) in responses:

— How many books have you?
— One.

— Do you go to school on Sunday?
— No, I don't.

— Who has done it?
— Nick has.

It does not mean, of course, we should not teach pupils complete forms of response. But their use should be justified.

— Have you seen the film?
— Yes, I have seen this film, and I am sorry I've wasted two hours.

— Did you like the book?
— Yes, I liked it very much.

2. The use of contracted forms: *doesn't, won't, can't, isn't,* etc.

3. The use of some abbreviations: *lab* (laboratory), *mike* (microphone), *maths* (mathematics), *p. m.* (post meridiem), and others.

4. The use of conversational tags. These are the words a speaker uses when he wishes to speak without saying anything. Here is both a definition of conversational tags and an example of their usage in conversation (they are in italics).

"*Well*, they are those things, *you know*, which don't actually mean very much, *of course*, yet they are *in fact* necessary in English conversation as behaviour."[1]

Besides, to carry on a conversation pupils need words, phrases to start a conversation, to join it, to confirm, to comment, etc. For example, *well, look here, I say ..., I'd like to tell you* (for starting a talk); *you see, you mean, do you mean to say that ..., and what about* (for joining a conversation); *I believe so, I hope, yes, right, quite right, to be sure* (for confirming what one says); *I think, as far as I know, as far as I can see, the fact is, to tell the truth, I mean to say* (for commenting), etc.

There is a great variety of dialogue structures. Here are the principal four:

1. Q u e s t i o n — r e s p o n s e.

  — Hello. What's your name?
  — Ann. What's yours?
  — My name is William.

2. Q u e s t i o n — q u e s t i o n.

  — Will you help me, sonny?
  — What shall I do, mother?
  — Will you polish the floor today?
  — Is it my turn?
  — Yes, it is. Your brother did it last time.
  — Oh, all right, then.

3. S t a t e m e n t — s t a t e m e n t.

  — I'd like to know when he is going to come and see us.
  — That's difficult to say. He is always promising but never comes.

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[1] *West M.* Conversational Tags. — In: "English Language Teaching", v. 17, 1963, No. 4, p. 167—168.

— It's because he is very busy.
— That's right. He works hard.

4. S t a t e m e n t — q u e s t i o n.

— I'm going to the theatre tonight.
— Where did you get tickets?
— My friend got them somewhere.
— How did he do it?
— I don't know.

In school teaching only one structure of dialogue is usually used, i. e., question — response. More than that, pupils' dialogues are artificial and they lack, as a rule, all the peculiarities mentioned above.

In teaching dialogue in schools it is necessary to take into account these peculiarities and give pupils pattern dialogues to show what real dialogues look like.

HOW TO TEACH ORAL LANGUAGE

In teaching oral language the teacher has to cope with two tasks. They are: to teach his pupils to undersand the foreign language spoken and to teach them to speak the language.

Techniques the Teacher Uses
to Develop Hearing

To fulfil the task the teacher must train his pupils in listening comprehension beginning with the first lesson and throughout the whole period of instruction. These are the techniques the teacher uses for the purpose:
1. The teacher uses the foreign language:
(a) when giving the class instructions;
(b) when presenting new language material (words, sentence patterns);
(c) when checking pupils' comprehension;
(d) when consolidating the material presented;
(e) when checking pupils' assimilation of the language material covered.
These are the cases when the target language is used as a means of communication and a means of teaching. There

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is a great deal of auding in all the points of the lesson. This raises the problem of the teacher's speech during the lesson. It should be correct, sufficiently loud, clear, and expressive. But many of the teachers are too talkative. We can hear them speaking most of the time. Moreover, some teachers speak a great deal in Russian.

Conducting a lesson in a foreign language gives the teacher an opportunity to develop pupils' abilities in hearing; to train them in listening to him attentively during the lesson; to demonstrate the language as a means of communication; to provide favourable conditions for the assimilation of the language; to perfect his own speaking skills; to keep his own speech under control, i. e., to keep himself from undue talkativeness.

2. The teacher uses drill and speech exercises for developing listening comprehension.

We can group d r i l l e x e r c i s e s into exercises designed for overcoming linguistic difficulties, and exercises which can eliminate psychological difficulties.

The first group of drill exercises includes:

(a) phonetic exercises which will help the teacher to develop his pupils' ear for English sounds:

— Listen to the following words and raise your hands when you hear the words with [æ]. (The teacher says: *desk, pen, ten, bag,* etc.)

— Listen to the following pairs of words and say in what sound they differ: *pen — pin; bed — bad; eyes — ice; white — wide.*

(b) lexical exercises which will help the teacher to develop pupils' skills in recognizing words:

— Listen to the words and recognize the word *boy* among other words: *a baby, a toy, a boat, a boy, a girl.*

— Listen to the following words and raise your hands when you hear the words referring to plants: *street, tree, grass, class, flower, tower.*

— Listen to the following sentences and say whether the word *country* has the same meaning in both sentences:

I usually spent my holidays in the country.

The Soviet Union is a large country.

(c) grammar exercises which help the teacher to develop pupils' skills in recognizing grammar forms and structures:

— Listen to the following words and raise your hands when you hear words in plural: *desk, tables, book, box, pens, books, boxes,* etc.

— Listen to the following sentences and say in which one the word *help* is used as a noun.

He can help you.

I need his help.

The second group of drill exercises includes:

(a) exercises which help the teacher to develop his pupils' auditory memory:

— Listen to the following words and try to memorize them. (The teacher pronounces a number of words pointing to the object each denotes: *a carrot, a potato, a cucumber, a tomato.* Afterwards pupils are told to point to the object the teacher names.)

— Listen to the phrases and repeat them. The teacher says: *on the table, in the box, near the blackboard.*

— Listen to the sentences and repeat them. (The teacher says: *I like tea. Ann doesn't like tea. She likes milk.*)

— Listen to the sentences and repeat them in the same sequence. (The teacher says: *In the evening we have tea. I like it very much.* The teacher may increase the number of sentences for pupils to memorize.)

(b) exercises which are designed for developing pupils' attention:

— Listen to the following text: *I have a sister. Her name is Ann. Mike has no sister. He has a brother.*

Now say what is the name of Mike's sister.

— Listen to the text. (The text follows.) Now say which sentence was omitted (added) when you listened to it a second time.

(c) exercises which develop pupils' visual imagination:

— Listen to the following definition and give it

a name: *We write with it on the blackboard. We take it when it rains.*

— Listen and say which season it is: *It is cold. It often snows. Children can skate and ski.*

(d) exercises which help the teacher to develop his pupils' logical thinking:

— Listen to the sentences and say whether they are logically arranged: *Her name is Mary. This is a girl.*

Drill exercises are quite indispensable to developing pupils' skills in listening comprehension.

S p e e c h e x e r s i s e s are designed for developing pupils' skills in auding. Several groups of exercises may be suggested:

1. Exercises which teach pupils to undersand texts different in content, form, and type. Pupils are asked to listen to a description or a narration; the text may be a dialogue, it may deal with the life of people whose language the pupils study, or with the pupils' environment.

— Listen to the story. Your task is to define its main idea. You should choose one among those suggested by the teacher.

— Listen to the story. Your task is to grasp as much information as you can. While auding try to put down key words and sentences; they will help you to convey the context of the story.

2. Exercises which develop pupils' skills to understand a text under different conditions. Sound producing aids should be extensively used for developing pupils' auding, as pupils are supposed to undersand not only their teacher's speech, but other people speaking the target language, including native speakers. Besides, sound producing aids allow the teacher to supply pupils with recorded speech different in speed and voice.

Before pupils are invited to listen to the text the teacher should ensure that all the words and grammar are familiar to the pupils otherwise language difficulties will prevent them from understanding the story. Thus, if there are some unfamiliar words, the teacher introduces them beforehand; he either puts them down on the blackboard with the mother tongue equivalents in the sequence they appear in the text,

or he asks pupils to pronounce the words written on the blackboard if he plans a talk on the text afterwards, and pupils are to use these words in their speech.

Then the teacher should direct his pupils' attention to what they are going to listen to. This is of great importance for experiments prove that if your aim is that your pupils should keep on talking on the text they have heard it stimulates their thinking and facilitates their comprehension of the text.

The following tasks may be suggested to draw pupils attention to what they are auding:

— Listen and try to grasp the main idea of the story. You will be asked questions later on.

— Listen and try to grasp the details. You will have to name them.

— Listen and make a plan of the story.

— Listen to the story and try to finish it (think of the end of the story).

— Listen to the story. You will ask questions on it afterwards.

— Listen to the text. You will retell it afterwards.

— Listen to the story. We shall have a discussion on it. Etc.

When pupils are ready to listen, the text can be read to them. If it is the teacher who reads or tells the story, he can help pupils to comprehend the text with gestures. If the text is recorded, a picture or pictures can facilitate comprehension. The pupils listen to the text once as is usually the case in real communication. Then the teacher checks their comprehension. If they have not understood it, they are told to listen to the text again. The teacher can use a dialogue to help pupils to understand the text after they have listened to the story for the first time, i. e., he may ask questions, make statements on the text for pupils to agree or reject them.

Checking pupils' comprehension may be done in many ways depending on the stage of instruction, pupils' progress in the language, and other factors. In any case, however, it is necessary to proceed in order of complexity from mere recognition to reproduction. The procedure may be:

general questions
special questions } The teacher checks his pupils' com-
wrong statements } prehension only.

pupils' questions on the text
making a plan
telling the text according to
the plan (it may be done
in a chain-like way)
reciting the text
giving the gist of the text
written reproduction of the
text
discussing the text

The teacher checks pupils' comprehension and develops their speaking skills on the basis of the text heard.

Skills in hearing must be built up gradually. The teacher begins with a story containing 3—4 sentences. He uses pictures, gestures to help pupils to understand it. Gradually he can take longer sections and faster speeds with less visual help and in more difficult language. The teacher must bear in mind that careful grading in all these ways is of the utmost importance. Texts, stories to be read or recorded should be interesting and fairly easy.

Techniques the Teacher Uses
for Teaching Speaking

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

In teaching m o n o l o g u e we can easily distinguish three stages according to the levels which constitute the ability to speak: (1) the statement level; (2) the utterance level; (3) the discourse level.

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

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

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

I can see a ... .
P u p i l₁: I can see a blackboard.

P u p i l$_2$: I can see a picture.
P u p i l$_3$: I can see a map, etc.

I am fond of ...
P u p i l$_1$: I am fond of music.
P u p i l$_2$: I am fond of classical music.
P u p i l$_3$: I am fond of pop music, etc.

We are proud of ...
P u p i l$_1$: We are proud of our country.
P u p i l$_2$: We are proud of our sportsmen.
P u p i l$_3$: We are proud of our school, etc.

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

— substitution: *I have a book (a pen);*
— extention: *I have an interesting book,*
       I have an interesting book at home;
— transformation: *He has a book,*
        He has no book;
— completion: *If I have time I'll* ... .

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

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

  Give it a name.
T e a c h e r: We write with it.
P u p i l: It is a pencil (pen).

  Make statements on the picture.
T e a c h e r (silently points to the picture of a cat)
P u p i l$_1$: This is a cat.
P u p i l$_2$: This is a black cat.

  Say the opposite.
T e a c h e r: I live in Gorky Street.
P u p i l: I do not live in Gorky Street.

T e a c h e r (pointing to the boy): He likes to play
hockey.
P u p i l: I don't like to play hockey.

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

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

T e a c h e r: Say a few words about it. (He points to
an object.)
P u p i l: This is a pencil. The pencil is green. It
is on the table. I like the pencil.

Or T e a c h e r points to a boy.
P u p i l: This is a boy. His name is Sasha. He lives in
Gagarin Street.

*Get information and sum up what you have learnt from
your classmates.*
T e a c h e r: She cut her finger.
P u p i l: Who cut her finger?
C l a s s: Ann.
— When did she cut it?
— Yesterday.
— What did she cut it with?
— With a knife.
— Why did she cut her finger?
— Because the knife was sharp.
P u p i l: Yesterday Ann cut her finger. She cut it with
a knife. The knife was sharp.

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

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

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

The three stages in developing pupils' speaking should take place throughout the whole course of instruction, i. e., in junior, intermediate, and senior forms. The amount of exercises at each level, however, must be different. In junior forms statement level is of greater importance as a teaching point.

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

We have already spoken about the linguistic characteristics of d i a l o g u e. Some more should be said about its structure.

A dialogue consists of a series of lead-response units. The significant feature of a lead-response unit is that the response part may, and usually does, serve in its own turn as a fresh inducement leading to further verbal exchanges, i. e., lead ——→ response ——→ inducement ——→ response. A response unit is a unit of speech between two pauses. It may consist of more than one sentence. But the most characteristic feature of a dialogue is that the lead-response units are closely connected and dependent on each other. The lead is relatively free, while the response depends on the first and does not exist without it.

— Where is the book?
— There, on the shelf.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

— Will you help me, sonny?
— What shall I do, Mother?
— Will you bring me a pail of water?
— Certainly I will.

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

The work should not be done mechanically. Pupils should speak on the situation. As a result of this work pupils master the structure of the pattern dialogue (not only the contents), i. e., they can use it as a model for making up dialogues of their own, that is why pattern dialogues should be carefully selected.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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I see a pen.
I see a desk.
Pete sees a desk and a pen.

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

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

PREPARED AND UNPREPARED SPEECH

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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[1] Книга для чтения на английском языке в 7-м классе средней школы. Адаптация и примечания С. А. Тер-Ованесовой. М., Учпедгиз, 1960.

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

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

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

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

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

EVALUATING PUPILS' SPEECH HABITS

Pupils' speech habits may be evaluated in two ways:

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

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

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

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

If a pupil misunderstands something when auding the teacher should do his best to ensure comprehension. He suggests that the pupil should either listen to the sentence again; if he does not understand it properly the teacher or the classmates help him to paraphrase the sentence or translate it, or see it written. The latter often helps if pupils do not get used to hearing, if they are eye-learners. As far as speaking is concerned it is the teacher who corrects pupils' mistakes. It is a bad habit of some teachers to ask pupils to notice mistakes when their classmate is called in front of the class to speak.

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

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

Accordingly when a pupil is called to the front of the class to speak, the class is invited to follow what he says so that

they may be able to ask questions or to go on with the story when he stops.

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

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

P u p i l: My mother get up at 7 o'clock.
T e a c h e r: I see, your mother gets up earlier than you.
P u p i l: Yes, my mother gets up at 7.

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

P u p i l: She first visited us in 1960.
She is a good friend of ours since.

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

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

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

Recommended Literature:

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Questions for Discussion:

1. Not all oral exercises mean speaking. Comment upon this statement.

2. Compare different approaches to teaching speaking and determine which is most justifiable.

3. What are the reasons for pupils' poor comprehension of the target language when spoken?

4. Why is it so difficult to teach speaking in artificial conditions?

5. What can be done to overcome the obstacles and despite them to succeed in teaching oral language?

Activities:

1. Suggest a situation suitable for a dialogue with appropriate lead-response units.

2. Choose subjects (or objects) for pupils to speak about.

3. Analyse one of the lessons in a standard textbook and show how the teacher may develop pupils' speaking abilities in dialogue and monologue.

4. Chose a text for teaching auding. Give a detailed description of pupils' proposed activity and techniques for checking comprehension.

Chapter IX

Teaching Reading

READING AS AN AIM AND A MEANS
OF TEACHING AND LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Reading is one of the main skills that a pupil must acquire in the process of mastering a foreign language in school. The syllabus for foreign languages lists reading as one of the leading language activities to be developed. It runs: "To read, without a dictionary, texts containing familiar grammar material and no more than 4—6 unfamiliar words per 100 words of the text the meaning of which, as a rule, should be clear from the context or familiar word-building elements (in the eight-year school). Pupils are to read, with the help of a dictionary, easy texts containing familiar grammar material and 6—8 unfamiliar words per 100 words of the text (in the ten-year school)." Therefore reading is one of the practical aims of teaching a foreign language in schools.

Reading is of great educational importance, as reading is a means of communication, people get information they need from books, journals, magazines, newspapers, etc. Through reading in a foreign language the pupil enriches his knowledge of the world around him. He gets acquainted with the countries where the target language is spoken.

Reading develops pupils' intelligence. It helps to develop their memory, will, imagination. Pupils become accustomed to working with books, which in its turn facilitates unaided practice in further reading. The content of texts, their ideological and political spirit influence pupils. We must develop in Soviet pupils such qualities as honesty, devotion to and love for our people and the working people of other countries, the texts our pupils are to read must meet these requirements. Reading ability is, therefore, not only of great practical, but educational, and social importance, too.
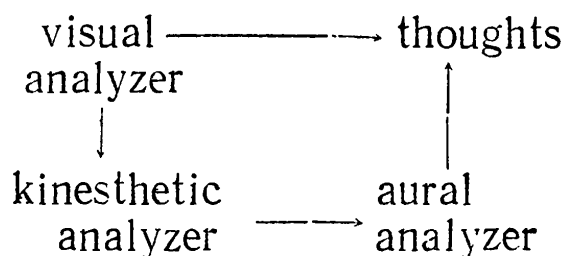
Reading is not only an aim in itself, it is also a means of learning a foreign language. When reading a text the pupil reviews sounds and letters, vocabulary and grammar, memorizes the spelling of words, the meaning of words and word combinations, he also reviews grammar and, in this way, he perfects his command of the target

language. The more the pupil reads, the better his retention of the linguistic material is. If the teacher instructs his pupils in good reading and they can read with sufficient fluency and complete comprehension he helps them to acquire speaking and writing skills as well. Reading is, therefore, both an end to be attained and a means to achieve that end.

THE CONTENT OF TEACHING READING

Reading is a complex process of language activity. As it is closely connected with the comprehension of what is read, reading is a complicated intellectual work. It requires the ability on the part of the reader to carry out a number of mental operations: analysis, synthesis, induction, deduction, comparison.

Reading as a process is connected with the work of visual, kinesthetic, aural analyzers, and thinking. The visual analyzer is at work when the reader sees a text. While seeing the text he "sounds" it silently, therefore the kinesthetic analyzer is involved. When he sounds the text he hears what he pronounces in his inner speech so it shows that the aural analyzer is not passive, it also works and, finally, due to the work of all the analyzers the reader can understand thoughts. In learning to read one of the aims is to minimize the activities of kinesthetic and aural analyzers so that the reader can associate what he sees with the thought expressed in reading material, since inner speech hinders the process of reading making it very slow. Thus the speed of reading depends on the reader's ability to establish a direct connection between what he sees and what it means. To make this easier to understand it may be represented as follows:

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visual ─────────────→ thoughts
analyzer               ↑
   │                   │
   ↓                   │
kinesthetic        aural
analyzer   ──────→ analyzer
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There are two ways of reading: aloud or orally, and silently. People usually start learning to read orally. In teaching a foreign language in school both ways should be devel-

oped. Pupils assimilate the graphic system of the target language as a means which is used for conveying information in print. They develop this skill through oral reading and silent reading.

When one says that one can read, it means that one can focus one's attention on the meaning and not on the form; the pupil treats the text as a familiar form of discourse and not as a task of deciphering. "The aim of the teacher is to get his pupils as quickly as possible over the period in which each printed symbol is looked at for its shape, and to arrive at the stage when the pupil looks at words and phrases, for their meaning, almost without noticing the shapes of the separate letters." [1] A good reader does not look at letters, nor even at words, one by one, however quickly; he takes in the meaning of two, three, or four words at a time, in a single moment. The eyes of a very good reader move quickly, taking long "jumps" and making very short "halts". We can call this ideal reading "reading per se". Reading per se is the end to be attained. It is possible provided:

(1) the reader can associate the graphic system of the language with the phonic system of that language;
(2) the reader can find the logical subject and the logical predicate of the sentences: [2]

The man there is my neighbour.

There were many people in the hall.

It was difficult for me to come in time.

(3) the reader can get information from the text (as a whole).

These are the three constituent parts of reading as a process.

As a means of teaching reading a system of exercises is widely used in school, which includes:

1. graphemic-phonemic exercises which help pupils to assimilate graphemic-phonemic correspondence in the English language;
2. structural-information exercises which help pupils to carry out lexical and grammar analysis to find the logical

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[1] *French F. G.* The Teaching of English Abroad. Oxford University Press, London, 1961, p. 58.

[2] the logical subject — логический субъект, то, о чем идет речь, о чем говорится в высказывании; the logical predicate — логический предикат, или смысловое сказуемое, то новое, о чем говорится в высказывании, что передает смысловую информацию.

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subject and predicate in the sentences following the structural signals;

3. semantic-communicative exercises which help pupils to get information from the text.

The actions which pupils perform while doing these exercises constitute the content of teaching and learning reading in a foreign language.

SOME DIFFICULTIES PUPILS HAVE
IN LEARNING TO READ
IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Reading in the English language is one of the most difficult things because there are 26 letters and 146 graphemes which represent 46 phonemes. Indeed the English alphabet presents many difficulties to Russian-speaking pupils because the Russian alphabet differs greatly from that of the English language. A comparison of the two languages shows that of the 26 pairs of printed letters (52 — if we consider capital and small letters as different symbols) only 4 are more or less similar to those of the Russian alphabet, both in print and in meaning. These are K, k, M, T. 31 letters are completely new to pupils. These are b, D, d, F, f, G, g, h, L, l, I, i, J, j, N, n, Q, q, R, r, S, s, t, U, u, V, v, W, w, Z, z. The letters A, a, B, C, c, E, e, H, O, o, P, p, Y, y, X, x occur in both languages, but they are read differently. They are, therefore, the most difficult letters for the pupil to retain. Obviously in teaching a pupil to read English words, much more attention should be given to those letters which occur in both languages but symbolize entirely different sounds. For example, H, p ... (Pupils often read *How* as [nau]. Therefore, in presenting a new letter to pupils the teacher should stress its peculiarity not only from the standpoint of the English language (what sound or sounds it symbolizes) but from the point of view of the Russian language as well.

It is not sufficient to know English letters. It is necessary that pupils should know graphemes, how this or that vowel, vowel combination, consonant, or consonant combination is read in different positions in the words (*window, down*).

The teacher cannot teach pupils all the existing rules and exceptions for reading English words. Nor is it necessary to

do so. When learning English pupils are expected to assimilate the following rules of reading: how to read stressed vowels in open and closed syllables and before *r*; how to read *ay*, *oo*, *ou*, *ow*; the consonants *c*, *s*, *k*, *g*; *ch*, *sh*, *th*, *ng*, *ck* and *tion*, *ssion*, *ous*. The rules are not numerous, but they are important to the development of reading.

Pupils should learn the reading of some monosyllabic words which are homophones. For example: *son — sun*; *tail — tale*; *too — two*; *write — right*; *eye — I*, etc.

At the very beginning, the pupil is compelled to look at each printed letter separately in order to be sure of its shape. He often sees words and not sense units. For instance, he reads: *The book is on the desk* and not (*The book is*) (*on the desk*).

The most difficult thing in learning to read is to get information from a sentence or a paragraph on the basis of the knowledge of structural signals and not only the meaning of words. Pupils often ignore grammar and try to understand what they read relying on their knowledge of autonomous words. And, of course, they often fail, e. g., the sentence *He was asked to help the old woman* is understood as Он попросил помочь старушке, in which the word *he* becomes the subject and is not the object of the action. Pupils sometimes find it difficult to pick out topical sentences in the text which express the main ideas.

To make the process of reading easier new words, phrases and sentence patterns should be learnt orally before pupils are asked to read them. So when pupils start reading they know how to pronounce the words, the phrases, and the sentences, and are familiar with their meaning.

Consequently, in order to find the most effective ways of teaching the teacher should know the difficulties pupils may have.

HOW TO TEACH READING

The teacher can use the whole system of exercises for developing pupils' ability to read which may be done in two forms — loud and silent.

Reading aloud. In teaching reading aloud the following methods are observed: t h e p h o n i c, t h e w o r d, and t h e s e n t e n c e m e t h o d s. When the p h o n i c m e t h o d is used, the child learns the sounds and

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associates them with graphic symbols — letters. In the w o r d
m e t h o d   a   complete word is first presented to the
child. When several words have been learnt they are used
in simple sentences. (This method is used in the *Fifth Form
English* by A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon and in teaching
English as a mother tongue in England.) The s e n t e n c e
m e t h o d   deals with the sentences as units of approach
in teaching reading. The teacher can develop pupils' abil-
ity to read sentences with correct intonation. Later the
sentence is split up into words. (This method is utilized in
the *Fifth Form English* by S. K. Folomkina, E. I. Kaar.)
The combination of the three methods can ensure good reading.

Pupils are taught to associate the graphic symbols of
words with their meaning already learned orally. All the
analyzers are at work: visual, auditory, kinesthetic. The
leading role belongs to the visual analyzer. It is necessary
that the graphic symbols (images) of words should be fixed
in the pupils' memory. In teaching English in schools, how-
ever, little attention is given to this. Pupils are taught how
"to sound" words rather than how "to read" them. They
often repeat words, combination of words without looking
at what they read. They look at the teacher. The teacher
does not realize how much he hinders the formation of graph-
ic images (symbols) in the pupils' memory by teaching
to read in this way.

Reading in chorus, reading in groups in imitation of
the teacher which is practised in schools forms rather ki-
nesthetic images than graphic ones. The result is that pu-
pils can sound the text but they cannot read. The teacher
should observe the rule "Never read words, phrases, sentences
by yourself. Give your pupils a chance to read them."
For instance, in presenting the words and among them those
which are read according to the rule the teacher should make
his pupils read these words first. This rule is often violated
in school. It is the teacher who first reads a word, a column
of words, a sentence, a text and pupils just repeat after the
teacher.

Teaching begins with presenting a letter to pupils, or
a combination of letters, a word as a grapheme. The use of
flash cards and the blackboard is indispensable.

Flash cards when the teacher uses them allow him:

(a) to present a new letter (letters);

(b) to make pupils compose a word (several flash cards

are distributed among the pupils, for example, *p*, *n*, *e*; they compose *pen*);

(c) to check pupils' knowledge of letters or graphemes;

(d) to make pupils recollect the words beginning with the letter shown (*p* — *pen*, *pencil*, *pupil*, etc.);

(e) to make pupils show the letter (letters) which stand for the sound [ou], [a:], [θ], etc.

When teaching reading the teacher needs a set of flash cards at hand. If the teacher uses the blackboard instead he can write printed letters on it and pupils can recollect the words they have learnt orally which have this or that letter, compose a word, etc.

The same devices are applied for teaching pupils to read words, the task being different, however:

(a) pupils choose words which are not read according to the rule, for example: *lake, plane, have, Mike, give, nine;*

(b) pupils are invited to read the words which they usually misread:

yet — let   cold — could
form — from   called — cold
come — somè   wood — would
does — goes   walk — work

(c) pupils are invited to look at the words and name the letter (letters) which makes the words different:

though — thought   since — science
through — though   with — which
hear — near   content — context
hear — hare   country — county

(d) pupils in turn read a column of words following the key word (see: A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon, Fifth Form English, Pupil's Book);

(e) pupils are invited to pick out the words with the graphemes *oo, ow, ea, th,* ...

In teaching to read transcription is also utilized. It helps the reader to read a word in the cases where the same grapheme stands for different sounds: *build, suit,* or words which are not read according to the rule: *aunt, colonel.*

In modern textbooks for the 5th form transcription is not used. It is given in the textbooks for the 6th and the 7th forms. Beginning with the 6th and the 7th forms pupils learn the phonic symbols so that they are able to read

unfamiliar words which they look up in the word-list or a dictionary.

All the exercises mentioned above are designed to develop pupils' ability to associate the graphic symbols with the phonic ones.

The structural-information exercises are done both in reading aloud and in silent reading. Pupils are taught how to read sentences, paragraphs, texts correctly. Special attention is given to intonation since it is of great importance to the actual division of sentences, to stressing the logical predicate in them. Marking the text occasionally may be helpful.

At an early stage of teaching reading the teacher should read a sentence or a passage to the class himself. When he is sure the pupils understand the passage, he can set individuals and the class to repeat the sentences after him, reading again himself if the pupils' reading is poor. The pupils look into the textbook. In symbols it can be expressed like this: $T - C - T - P_1 - T - P_2 - T - P_n - T - C$ (T — teacher; C — class; P — pupil).

This kind of elementary reading practice should be carried on for a limited number of lessons only. When a class has advanced far enough to be ready for more independent reading, reading in chorus might be decreased, but not eliminated: $T - C - P_1 P_2 P_n$.

When the pupils have learned to associate written symbols with the sounds they stand for they should read a sentence or a passage by themselves. In this way they get a chance to make use of their knowledge of the rules of reading. It gives the teacher an opportunity to see whether each of his pupils can read. Symbolically it looks like this: $P_1 P_2 P_n$ T (S) C (S — speaker, if a tape recorder is used).

Reading aloud as a method of teaching and learning the language should take place in all the forms. This is done with the aim of improving pupils' reading skills.

The teacher determines what texts (or paragraphs) and exercises pupils are to read aloud.

In reading aloud, therefore, the teacher uses:

(a) diagnostic reading (pupils read and he can see their weak points in reading);

(b) instructive reading (pupils follow the pattern read by the teacher or the speaker);

(c) control reading or test reading (pupils read the text trying to keep as close to the pattern as possible).

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MISTAKES AND HOW TO CORRECT THEM

In teaching pupils to read the teacher must do his best to prevent mistakes. We may, however, be certain that in spite of much work done by the teacher, pupils will make mistakes in reading. The question is who corrects their mistakes, how they should be corrected, when they must be corrected.

Our opinion is that the pupil who has made a mistake must try to correct it himself. If he cannot do it, his classmates correct his mistake. If they cannot do so the teacher corrects the mistake. The following techniques may be suggested:

1. The teacher writes a word (e. g., *black*) on the blackboard. He underlines *ck* in it and asks the pupil to say what sound these two letters convey. If the pupil cannot answer the question, the teacher asks some of his classmates. They help the pupil to correct his mistake and he reads the word.

2. One of the pupils asks: *What is the English for „чер-ный“?* If the pupil repeats the mistake, the "corrector" pronounces the word properly and explains the rule the pupil has forgotten. The pupil now reads the word correctly.

3. The teacher or one of the pupils says: *Find the word „черный“ and read it.* The pupil finds the word and reads it either without any mistake if his first mistake was due to his carelessness, or he repeats the mistake. The teacher then tells him to recollect the rule and read the word correctly.

4. The teacher corrects the mistake himself. The pupil reads the word correctly. The teacher asks the pupil to explain to the class how to read *ck*.

5. The teacher tells the pupil to write the word *black* and underline *ck*. Then he says how the word is read.

There are some other ways of correcting pupils' mistakes. The teacher should use them reasonably and choose the one most suitable for the case.

Another question arises: whether we should correct a mistake in the process of reading a passage or after finishing it. Both ways are possible. The mistake should be corrected at once while the pupil reads the text if he has made it in a word which will occur two or more times in the text. If the word does not appear again, it is better to let the pupil read the paragraph to the end. Then the mistake is corrected.

A teacher should always be on the alert for the pupils'

mistakes, follow their reading and mark their mistakes in pencil.

Silent reading. In learning to read pupils widen their eyespan. They can see more than a word, a phrase, a sentence. The eye can move faster than the reader is able to pronounce what he sees. Thus reading aloud becomes an obstacle for perception. It hinders the pupil's comprehension of the text. It is necessary that the pupil should read silently. Special exercises may be suggested to develop pupils' skills in silent reading. For instance, "Look and say, read and look up." (M. West) To perform this type of exercises pupils should read a sentence silently, grasp it, and reproduce it without looking into the text. At first they perform such exercises slowly. Gradually the teacher limits the time for the pupils' doing the exercises. It makes them read faster and faster. All this lead to widening their eyespan.

Teaching silent reading is closely connected with two problems:

(1) instructing pupils in finding in sentences what is new in the information following some structural signals, the latter is possible provided pupils have a certain knowledge of grammar and vocabulary and they can perform lexical and grammar analysis;

(2) developing pupils' ability in guessing.

Pupils should be taught how to find the logical predicate in a sentence. The teacher may ask his pupils to read a text silently and find the words conveying the new information in the text according to their position. There are some signals which may be helpful in this respect. These are — the Passive Voice (*The doctor was sent for*); the indefinite article (*A man came up to me*); the construction "It is/was" (*It was not difficult for him to finish his work in time*), etc. Grammar and lexical analyses help pupils to assimilate structural words, to determine the meaning of a word proceeding from its position in the sentence, to find the meanings of unfamiliar words, and those which seem to be familiar but do not correspond to the structure of the sentence (e. g., *I saw him book a ticket*). Pupils' poor comprehension often results from their poor knowledge of grammar (syntax in particular). The teacher should instruct pupils how to work with a dictionary and a reference book so that they can overcome some difficulties independently. Although in school the teacher often applies grammar and lexical analyses, however, he

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often does it not with the aim of the "actual division" or parsing of the sentence and better comprehension of the sentence or of the text, but with the aim of checking or revision of his pupils' knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. This does not mean that the teacher should avoid grammar and vocabulary analyses for revision. However, much more attention should be given to teaching pupils how to carry out the actual division of sentences to get information from the text. Here are a few examples of structural-information exercises:

— Read the following sentences and guess the meaning of the words you don't know.

— Read the sentence *An idea struck me* and explain the use of the indefinite article.

— Find the logical predicates in the sentences with the words *alone, even, so.*

— Read the text. Stress the words conveying new information in each sentence.

E. g., I have a bag. The bag is black.
It is a new bag. I like my new bag.

— These sentences are too complicated. Break them into shorter sentences.

— Find the sentence which summarizes the paragraph.

— By what words is the reader carried from sentence to sentence in this paragraph?

— What is the significance of the tense difference?

— What is the effect of the series of repetitions in the paragraph?

To read a text the pupil must possess the ability to grasp the contents of the text. The pupil is to be taught to compare, to contrast, to guess, and to forsee events.

One of the most frequently used methods by which children attack new words is through the use of picture clues.

The use of context clues is another word-getting technique. The pupil discovers what a new word is when that particular word is needed to complete the meaning of the sentence.

In teaching pupils to read much attention should be given to the development of their ability to guess. One of the best ways to develop this skill is to give the pupil the text for acquaintance either during the lesson or as his homework. He can read it again and again. "Before questions" may be

helpful. They direct the pupil's thought when he reads the text. If the work is done during the lesson, the teacher can direct his pupils in guessing new words.

The teacher instructs pupils how to get information from the text. Semantic-communicative exercises are recommended. They are all connected with silent reading. These may be:

— Read and say why Jack does not take the apple (5th form textbook).

— Read. Find answers to the following questions (6th form textbook).

— Read the text. Find the words which describe the room.

— Read the text. Say what made the Prime Minister leave the country (Newspaper).

— There are two causes of the strike. Find them in the text (Newspaper).

— There are three main features of the substance mentioned in the text below. Find them (Popular Science).

— The author describes his hero with great sympathy. Find in what words he expresses his attitude (Fiction).

— Read the text and prove that ... is a kind woman.

— Read the text and find arguments to prove that ...

The three types of exercises are distributed differently depending on the stage of teaching. In the 5—6th forms graphemic-phonemic and structural-information exercises should prevail. In the 7—10th forms structural-information and semantic-communicative must be mostly used; the latter should prevail.

Pupils perform graphemic-phonemic exercises reading them aloud. The teacher uses individual, group, and full class reading. He checks the pupil's reading by making him read aloud.

Pupils perform structural-information exercises by reading them aloud and silently. The teacher uses individual, group, and full class reading when pupils read sentences, paragraphs of the text aloud, and when the aim is to teach pupils correct intonation in connection with the actual division of sentences. He checks the pupil's reading asking him to read aloud.

The teacher uses mass reading when pupils read sentences, paragraphs of the text silently; the objective may be different: either to widen their eyespan or to find new infor-

mation. The teacher checks the pupil's silent reading by asking him to reproduce a sentence or a paragraph; through partial reading of a sentence or a clause; through the pupil's interpreting the text; by utilizing true-and-false statements, questions and answers, and, finally, translation.

Pupils perform semantic-communicative exercises reading the text silently. If the work is done during the lesson the teacher uses mass reading. He checks his pupils' comprehension by asking the pupils individually. The techniques the teacher uses to check pupils' ability to get information from the text may be different. The choice depends on the stage of teaching; on the material used; on pupils' progress.

In the junior stage the following techniques may be suggested:

— Read and draw.

— Here are the questions. Find the answers in the text. (Before-questions are given.)

— Find the following sentences in the text. (The teacher gives Russian equivalents.)

— Correct the following statements which are not true to fact.

— Translate the sentences (the paragraph) beginning with the words ... ... (The teacher reads the words.)

— Recite the text.

— Read the sentences you find most important in the text.

Some of the assignments may be done in writing.

In the intermediate and senior stages the following techniques may be recommended.

— Answer the questions. (All types of questions may be used. However, why-questions are desirable.)

— Tell your classmates what (who, when, where, why) ...

— Read the words (the sentence or the paragraph) to prove or to illustrate what you say.

— Find the words (sentences) from which you have got some new information for yourself.

— Read the paragraph (paragraphs) you like best, and say why you like it.

— Translate the paragraph when (where, why, etc.) ...

— Translate the text. (This may be done both orally and in written form.)

— Write a short annotation of the text. (This may be done either in English or in Russian.)

The choice depends on the material used.

If the text is easy, i. e., if it does not contain unfamiliar words and grammar items (as is the case in the junior form) the teacher uses those techniques which are connected with speaking, with the active use of vocabulary and sentence patterns. Similar techniques may be used in intermediate and senior stages if the text is not difficult for the class. The teacher asks his pupils a few questions to test their understanding. The interrogation should be carried out briskly. The teacher passes from pupil to pupil without waiting if a particular pupil has not got his answer ready. For the most profitable results of this work speed is essential. It ensures that all get a chance to answer. With books open one of the pupils asks a question or a number of questions and another answers. The teacher asks the pupils to retell the text. One pupil begins retelling the text, another continues. Each pupil says a few sentences. The teacher asks the first group of pupils to be ready to say everything they know about X, the second group — everything they know about J, the third group — about Y, and so on. The teacher arranges a discussion on the text read by pupils in class or at home.

The work must be carried out in a way which will be of interest to pupils and develop not only their reading ability but their aural comprehension and speaking abilities as well.

If the text is difficult, i. e., if it contains unfamiliar words and grammar items, and pupils must consult a dictionary or a reference book to understand it the techniques the teacher uses should be different, as the pupils read the text not only to get information but to improve their knowledge of the language and intensive work is needed on their part. The intensive work may be connected with:

(a) lexical work which helps pupils to deepen and enrich their vocabulary knowledge;

(b) grammar work which helps pupils to review and systematize their grammar knowledge and enrich it through grammar analysis;

(c) stylistic work which helps pupils to become acquainted with stylistic use of words and grammar forms (inversion, tense-usage, etc.);

(d) content analysis which helps pupils to learn new concepts quite strange to Russian-speaking pupils. For instance, the Houses of Parliament, public schools, etc.

The exercises are mostly connected with recognition on the part of the learners, namely, *find ... and read; find ... and analyse ... ; find ... and translate; read those sentences which you think contain the main information; answer the questions,* etc. The choice also depends on pupils' progress. If pupils are orally skilful, the techniques the teacher uses are to be those connected with conversation. If pupils are poor in speaking the techniques the teacher uses should be those of recognition, translation, retelling in the mother tongue, etc.

Unfortunately, some teachers have a tendency to test instead of teach during classroom work and they often confine themselves to reading and translating the text. This is a bad practice. Pupils are tested and not taught. Moreover, the procedure becomes monotonous, and the work is ineffective. A pupil who has been called on to read and received a mark will not usually listen to his classmates.

The methods and techniques suggested above will help the teacher to teach pupils reading as the syllabus requires.

Recommended Literature:

Программы восьмилетней школы. Иностранные языки (Чтение). М., „Просвещение", 1967.

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Рогова Г. В., Мануэльян Ж. И. Методика работы над текстом в старших классах средней школы. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1973, № 5; Методическое содержание работы над иноязычным текстом различчого характера в старших классах средней школы. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1974, № 5.

Клычникова З. И. Психология чтения. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1970, № 6.

Слободчиков А. А. О развитии навыков чтения научно-популярных и общетехнических текстов в старших классах. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1970, № 6.

Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. Под ред. А. А. Миролюбова, И. В. Рахманова, В. С. Цетлин. М., 1967, гл. IV.

Вайсбурд М. Л. Синтетическое чтение на английском языке в V—VIII классах средней школы. М., 1969.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Compare different standpoints on various approaches to reading. Which approach do you find justifiable? Give several arguments to confirm your statement.

2. The only way to teach reading is by making the pupil himself read and not by his listening to and repeating someone else's reading. Discuss the problem in order to define the sequence in which reading should be taught.

3. Why must the text be considered a whole unit and should not be taken in pieces when silent reading is being taught?

4. The ratio between silent reading and reading aloud should vary in favour of silent reading from form to form. How should this be reflected on working with the text in class? Confirm your statement with some examples.

5. Reading as a form of language activity should teach the pupil to overcome difficulties by applying to the dictionary, handbook, grammar book, etc., during solitary work. Why is it so important, beginning at the intermediate stage, to teach pupils to use the dictionary and other reference books?

6. The texts pupils read are different by nature. How does this influence the techniques used while working at a text?

Activities:

1. Prepare a set of flash cards for teaching oral reading of the words you choose. Use a standard textbook.

2. Analyse one of the lessons in Pupil's Book and Teacher's Book and show how reading is taught.

3. Choose a text from a standard textbook and prepare some assignments developing silent reading.

4. Name a text for intensive work which will require the use of the dictionary and describe the procedure of working with the text.

Chapter X

Translation

Before considering the role and the place of translation in foreign language teaching it is necessary to state what is meant by "translation". By translation we mean the transmission of a thought expressed in one language by means of another language. In this way translation ensures comprehension between peoples speaking different languages. In order to transmit a thought from one language into another, one must understand this thought in the language from which one is to translate it and find equivalents to express it in the other language. Therefore translation is a complicated process; it requires the ability to think in both languages.

THE ROLE AND PLACE OF TRANSLATION
IN TEACHING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

In foreign language teaching translation may be used, for instance, as a means of conveying the meaning of a word, a phraseological group, a grammar form, or a sentence pattern. Translation is then considered to be a means of teaching a foreign language. From the history of methods of foreign language teaching it is known that the approach to translation has undergone various changes at different times. Thus in the second half of the 18th, and the first half of the 19th century, translation was considered to be a method of instruction. A foreign language was taught through translation; in the grammar-translation method it was mainly from the mother tongue into the foreign language, and in the lexical-translation method — from the foreign language into the mother tongue.

At the end of the 19th and at the beginning of the 20th century direct methods appeared and spread throughout the world. Direct methods completely eliminated translation in foreign language teaching. Later on translation was admitted in foreign language teaching, in such methodological systems as H. Palmer's and M. West's, as a means of conveying the meaning of language units.

In the Soviet Union translation has never been taboo in foreign language teaching though its role and place varied. Thus in the conscious-translation method proposed by L. V. Tsherba translation played a great role in the teaching of a foreign language, both for practical and educational ends. Practically translation was to be used as a means of conveying the meaning, as a leading type of exercise for consolidating the language material presented, as almost the only means of checking the pupils' knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, and the comprehension of what they read and heard. It was applied at every stage irrespective of pupils' age, language experience, language material, etc., and throughout the whole process of assimilation, namely: explanation, consolidation, or retention, and checking. Practice has proved, however, that the constant use of translation does not ensure the necessary conditions for pupils' direct comprehension of what they read and hear. As a result they can neither speak nor read the foreign language. Nor can they translate from one language into the other since translation

requires the ability to think in both languages. (This is possible on condition that pupils have ample practice for speaking, hearing, reading, and writing in the target language.)

To meet the programme requirements translation must now be utilized:

1. As a means of conveying the meaning of a word, a phraseological group, a grammar form, and a sentence pattern alongside with other means; translation being the most economical method from the point of view of the time required.

For example: a flower — цветок; Pete's brother — Петин брат; He happened to be busy — Случилось так, что он был занят.

Besides, translation ensures comprehension of a new language item.

For example: to go — уезжать, уходить, т. е. двигаться (передвигаться) от какого-либо места; to come — приходить, приезжать, т. е. двигаться к какому-либо месту; I am writing — Я пишу (сейчас, в данный момент).

Translation as a means of conveying the meaning may be used in two ways: translation proper and translation-interpretation.

The teacher uses translation proper when, for example, a new word has a more or less exact equivalent in the other language, e. g., a *flower* — цветок. No interpretation is needed. The teacher uses translation-interpretation when there is something peculiar, specific about a word presented. It may be:

(a) an absence of an equivalent

For example, meal — (1) принятие пищи (Breakfast is the first meal. We have 3—4 meals a day. — Мы едим 3—4 раза в день. Hence there is an expression *meal-time*: What is your usual meal-time — Когда вы обычно едите?); (2) пища, которую принимают, едят (Make a meal of bread and butter. — Поешьте хлеба с маслом. He always enjoys his meals. — Он всегда с удовольствием ест.)

to rain (snow) — такого глагола в русском языке нет (it rains — идет дождь; it snows — идет снег)

(b) difference in the extent of meaning

For example, to go — передвигаться (удаляться от...) любым средством, двигаться, доходить до ...

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to drive — вести что-либо (машину, автобус, троллейбус и др.). Hence driver — водитель, вагоновожатый, шофер, машинист; raw — сырой, необработанный; raw material — сырье; raw meat — сырое мясо

(c) difference in usage, i. e., a word forms specific combinations which do not exist in the Russian language. For example, *heavy rain, to pay attention, to meet requirements,* etc.

2. As a means of ensuring comprehension of difficult points in a text — through analysis and translation pupils gain comprehension, as is the case when they are given a text too difficult to understand without analysis and translation.

3. As a means of checking pupils' comprehension of what they read or hear alongside of other means.

These are the cases where translation is desirable and helpful in foreign language teaching. In consolidation or retention of language material no translation should be utilized, however. Various drill and speech exercises must be done within the target language. The teacher must do his best to create the atmosphere suitable for developing pupils' speaking and reading habits and skills.

It is necessary that pupils should follow the rule: "Learn to speak by speaking and read by reading." Translation provides neither the first nor the second. It only helps in obtaining knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, but it hinders the development of speech habits and skills, since instead of direct comprehension and expression of their thoughts pupils fall into the habit of translating everything they hear or read, and in this way do not get accustomed to associate the sequence of sounds they hear with the meaning it has in the foreign language, to associate the graphemes with the notions they convey. Under these conditions no speaking or reading is possible.

Consequently the teacher may use translation when explaining new material and checking his pupils' knowledge.

TYPES OF TRANSLATION USED
IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

If we consider translation from the point of view of the relationship between the mother tongue and the foreign language, we distinguish the following types of translation:
(a) translation from the foreign language into the mother

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tongue; (b) translation from the mother tongue into the foreign language and (c) retranslation (i. e., first pupils translate from the foreign language into the mother tongue and then, after a while, back into the foreign language).

If we consider translation from the point of view of its relation to the original, we distinguish:

1. W o r d   f o r   w o r d   t r a n s l a t i o n   (or literally translation), when all the lexical units of the foreign language are replaced by those of the mother tongue, the grammar structure being that of the foreign language.

For example,

I have a sister. — Я имею сестру.

My mother is not at home. — Моя мама (есть) не дома.

He was called on by the teacher yesterday. — Он был спрошен учителем вчера.

Though word for word translation violates the syntax of the mother tongue, it transmits the meaning of a sentence. Besides, word for word translation is valuable in an educational respect as it gives a pupil an opportunity to compare all the elements of the language he studies with the corresponding elements of the mother tongue and in this way to see the difference between these languages.

2. A d e q u a t e   t r a n s l a t i o n   which in contrast with word for word translation transmits the- thought expressed in the foreign language by means of the corresponding equivalents of the mother tongue.

For example:

I have a sister. — У меня есть сестра.

My mother is not at home. — Мамы нет дома.

He was called on by the teacher yesterday. — Его вчера спрашивал учитель.

3. F r e e   t r a n s l a t i o n   or free interpretation of the text in the mother tongue that was read or heard in the foreign language. For example, pupils read a newspaper article and each says a few words on its contents.

4. L i t e r a r y-a r t i s t i c   t r a n s l a t i o n   is a translation which requires special skills and knowledge and it cannot be included in school syllabus requirements.

Translation may be of two kinds: written and oral. They both may be used with the aim of checking pupils' comprehension, and their knowledge of vocabulary and grammar.

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In conclusion, it should be said that translation is a means of teaching a foreign language and, as such, its various types and kinds may be recommended. The choice depends on: (1) the objective of the lesson, (2) language material, (3) stage of instruction, (4) pupils' age, (5) pupils' progress in the target language, (6) time the teacher has at his disposal.

Recommended Literature:

Беляев Б. В. Очерки по психологии обучения иностранным языкам. М., 1965, с. 149—164.

Хэгболдт П. Изучение иностранных языков. М., 1963, с. 22—37.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Conscious approach to foreign language teaching implies the use of translation. Support your answer.

2. Exercises within the target language are more effective for developing language skills than those of translating from one language into another. True or false?

3. Translation is a complicated skill which requires special training. What is your opinion on the subject?

Chapter XI

Writing

WRITING AS A SKILL

Writing as a skill is very important in teaching and learning a foreign language; it helps pupils to assimilate letters and sounds of the English language, its vocabulary and grammar, and to develop habits and skills in pronunciation, speaking, and reading.

The practical value of writing is great because it can fix patterns of all kinds (graphemes, words, phrases and sentences) in pupils' memory, thus producing a powerful effect on their mind. That is why the school syllabus reads: "Writing is a mighty means of teaching a foreign language." Writing includes penmanship, spelling, and composition. The latter is the aim of learning to write. The school syllabus states: "Pupils are expected to be able to write a letter in the foreign language within the material learnt."

Since writing is a complicated skill it should be developed through the formation of habits such as:

(1) the habit of writing letters of the English alphabet;

(2) the habit of converting speech sounds into their symbols — letters and letter combinations;

(3) the habit of correct spelling of words, phrases, and sentences;

(4) the habit of writing various exercises which lead pupils to expressing their thoughts in connection with the task set.

In forming writing habits the following factors are of great importance:

1. Auditory perception of a sound, a word, a phrase, or a sentence, i. e., proper hearing of a sound, a word, a phrase, or a sentence.

2. Articulation of a sound and pronunciation of a word, a phrase, and a sentence by the pupil who writes.

3. Visual perception of letters or letter combinations which stand for sounds.

4. The movements of the muscles of the hand in writing.

The ear, the eye, the muscles and nerves of the throat and tongue, the movements of the muscles of the hand participate in writing. And the last, but not the least, factor which determines progress in formation and development of lasting writing habits is pupils' comprehension of some rules which govern writing in the English language.

Soviet methodology believes that a conscious approach to teaching and learning a foreign language can ensure pupils' progress in writing.

DIFFICULTIES PUPILS HAVE IN LEARNING TO WRITE ENGLISH

Since pupils should be taught penmanship, spelling, and composition it is necessary to know the difficulties Russian pupils find in learning to write English. The writing of the English letters does not present much trouble because there are a lot of similar letters in both languages. They are a, o, e, n, m, p, c, k, g, x, M, T, H. Only a few letters, such as s, r, i, h, l, f, b, d, t, j, I, G, Q, N, etc., may be strange to Russian pupils. Training in penmanship may be made easier if our schools adopt the script writing suggested by Marion Richard-

son in which the capital letters in script have the same form as the printed capital letters. The small letters such as h, b, d, i, k, f, are made without a loop. [1]

Pupils find it difficult to make each stroke continuous when the body of the letter occupies one space, the stem one more space above, the tail one more space below.

Pupils should know that the small letters are all made with an unbroken movement of the pen.

The most difficult thing for Russian pupils in learning to write is English spelling.

The spelling system of a language may be based upon the following principles:

1. **H i s t o r i c a l   o r   c o n s e r v a t i v e   p r i n-c i p l e** when spelling reflects the pronunciation of earlier periods in the history of the language.

For example, Russian: кого, жил; English: *busy, brought, daughter.*

2. **M o r p h o l o g i c a l   p r i n c i p l e.** In writing a word the morphemic composition of the word is taken into account. For example, in Russian: рыба, рыбка; the root morpheme is рыб; in English: *answered, asked*; the affixal morpheme is *ed.*

3. **P h o n e t i c   p r i n c i p l e.** Spelling reflects the pronunciation. For example, in Russian: бесконечный — безграничный; in English: *leg, pot.*

One or another of these principles may prevail in any given language. In Russian and German the morphological principle prevails. In French and English the historical or conservative principle dominates (as far as the first 1000 words are concerned). The modern English spelling originated as early as the 15th century and has not been changed since then. The pronunciation has changed greatly during that time. Significant difference in pronunciation and spelling is the result. The same letters in different words are read differently. For example, *fat, fate, far, fare.*

Different letters or letter combinations in different words are read in the same way: *I — eye; rode — road; write — right; tale — tail.*

Many letters are pronounced in some words and are mute in other words: build [bɪld] — suit [sjuːt]; laugh [lɑːf] — brought [brɔːt]; help [help] — hour [auə].

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[1] See: *Richardson M.* Writing and Written Patterns. London, 1946.

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The discrepancy that exists in the English language between pronunciation and spelling may be explained by the fact that there are more sounds in the language than there are letters to stand for these sounds. Thus, there are 23 vowel sounds in English and 6 letters to convey them.

In teaching English spelling special attention should be given to the words which present much trouble in this respect. The spelling of the words, for example, *busy, daughter, language, beautiful, foreign,* and others, must be assimilated through manifold repetition in their writing and spelling. In conclusion it should be said that it is impossible to master accurate spelling without understanding some laws governing it. Pupils should know:

(1) how to add:

-*s* to words ending in *y*: *day — days, stay — he stays,* but *city — cities, study — he studies;*

-*ed* to verbs: *play — played; carry — carried;*

-*ing* to verbs: *write — writing; play — playing; stand — standing;*

-*er, -est* to adjectives in the comparative and the superlative degrees: *clean — cleaner — cleanest; large — larger — largest;*

(2) when the consonant should be doubled: *sit — sitting; thin — thinner; swim — swimming;*

(3) the main word-building suffixes:

-*ful: use — useful; -less: use — useless;* and others.

Writing a composition or a letter, which is a kind of a composition where the pupil has to write down his own thoughts, is another problem to be solved. The pupil comes across a lot of difficulties in finding the right words, grammar forms and structures among the limited material stored up in his memory. The pupil often does not know what to write; he wants good and plentiful ideas which will be within his vocabulary and grammar.

HOW TO TEACH WRITING

Teaching writing should be based on such methodological principles as a conscious approach to forming and developing this skill, visualization and activity of pupils. Pupils learn to write letters, words, and sentences in the target language more successfully if they understand what they write, have

good patterns to follow, and make several attempts in writing a letter (a word, a sentence) until they are satisfied that the work is well done.

Training in penmanship should proceed by steps.

1. The teacher shows the learners a letter or both a capital and a small letter, for example, B b. Special cards may be used for the purpose. On one side of the card the letters are written. On the other side there is a word in which this letter occurs. For example:

Bb	bed

2. The teacher shows his pupils how to write the letter. He can use the blackboard. For example, V and W are made with one continuous zigzag movement. Q is made without lifting the pen except for the tail, which is an added stroke. L is also made without lifting the pen. The first stroke in N is a down-stroke; the pen is not lifted in making the rest of the letter. Care should be taken that r is not made to look like a v; the branching should occur about two-thirds (r) from the bottom of the letter. The same applies to the letters d and b; g and q; q and p which are often confused by pupils. Then the teacher writes a word in which the new letter occurs. For example, B b, bed.

Whenever the teacher writes on the blackboard he gives some explanations as to how the letter is made, and then how the word is written. His pupils follow the movements of his hand trying to imitate them; they make similar movements with their pens in the air, looking at the blackboard.

3. The teacher asks pupils to write first the letter, then the word in their exercise-books. When pupils are writing he walks round looking at the work they are doing and giving help to the pupils who need it. Since habits are formed and developed through performing actions, pupils are told to practise in writing the letter and the word (words) at home.

The teacher's handwriting and his skill in using the blackboard is of great importance. Children learn by imitating. Therefore the teacher's handwriting should be good enough to imitate. They usually write in the way the teacher does, so he must be careful in the arrangement of the material on the blackboard because pupils will copy both what is written and how it is written.

Consequently, training in penmanship implies: visual perception; observations accompanied by some explanations on the part of the teacher; practice under the teacher's supervision in class, and independently at home.

The teacher should bear in mind that pupils are taught to write only those letters of the English alphabet which really present some difficulties to Russian pupils, and he need not show them how to write *a* or *c* or *e* nor ask pupils to write two or three lines of such letters at home, as some teachers sometimes do. They probably forget that the difficulty is not in writing but in memorizing the name of the letter and the sound (or sounds) it stands for. Manifold repetition in writing such a letter does not help at all in solving the problem.

In spelling instruction the teacher should take into consideration the difficulties of English spelling and instruct pupils how to overcome these difficulties. The following exercises may be suggested for the purpose.

1. C o p y i n g. The aim of this exercise is to allow the pupils to practise what has been taught in listening and speaking. Writing does this because the movements of the muscles of the hand are now called in to help the ear, the eye, and the muscles and nerves of the throat and tongue. The "look" and the "feel" of the word are used to help the memory (F. French). [1]

For better assimilation of the spelling of words, it is recommended that various associations should be established, such as:

(a) associations by similiarity in spelling:

| within the English language | room spoon moon | thought bought brought | night right light |

| between English and Russian words | биография biography | коммунизм communism | энтузиазм enthusiasm |

(b) associations by contrast in spelling:

two — too
see — sea   } Spelling alone distinguishes these homophones.
one — won

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[1] *French F.* The Teaching of English Abroad. Oxford University Press, London, 1961, p. 75.

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Pupils should also be asked to spell words by themselves.

Much care should be given to the words whose spelling does not follow the rules, for example, *daughter, busy, sure, usual, colonel, clerk, soldier,* etc. Pupils master the spelling of such words by means of repetitions in writing them.

The teacher shows his pupils how to rely on grammar in spelling the words. The more the pupils get acquainted with grammar, the more will they rely on it in their spelling.

For example, the pupils have learned the plural of nouns in the English language. Now they know that the ending *s* is added, though it sounds either [s] as in *maps* or [z] as in *pens*; in both cases they must write *s*.

In the words *famous, continuous* it is necessary to write *ous*, as it is an adjective-forming suffix. In the words *dislike, disadvantage* it is necessary to write *i* and not *e* as the negative prefix is *dis*.

Copying applies equally well to the phrase pattern and the sentence pattern with the same purpose to help the memory, for pupils should not be asked to write, at least in the first two years, anything that they do not already know thoroughly through speech and reading. Every new word, phrase or sentence pattern, after it has been thoroughly learnt, should be practised by copying.

Copying may be carried out both in class and at home.

In copying at home the pupils must be given some additional task preventing them from performing the work mechanically. The following tasks may be suggested:

(a) underline a given letter or letter combination for a certain sound;

(b) underline a certain grammar item;

(c) underline certain words depicting, for example, the names of school things.

The additional work the pupil must perform in copying a text or an exercise makes him pay attention to the sound and meaning of the words. This kind of copying is a good way of ensuring the retention of the material. It must be extensively applied in the junior and in the intermediate stages.

2. D i c t a t i o n. This kind of writing exercise is much more difficult than copying. Some methodologists think that it should never be given as a test to young beginners. "It is a means of fixing of what is already known, not a

puzzle in which the teacher tries to defeat the pupil"(F. French).[1] Dictation is a valuable exercise because it trains the ear and the hand as well as the eye; it fixes in the pupil's mind the division of each sentence pattern, because the teacher dictates division by division. For example, *Tom and I / go to school / together.*

Dictations can vary in forms and in the way they are conducted:

(a) *Visual dictation* as a type of written work is intermediate between copying and dictation. The teacher writes a word, or a word combination, or a sentence on the blackboard. The pupils are told to read it and memorize its spelling. Then it is rubbed out and the pupils write it from memory.

(b) *Dictation drill* aims at consolidating linguistic material and preparing pupils for spelling tests. The teacher dictates a sentence. A word with a difficult spelling either is written on the blackboard, or is spelt by one of the pupils. Then the pupils are told to write the sentence. The teacher walks about the class and watches them writing. He asks one of the pupils who has written correctly to go to the blackboard and write the sentence for the other pupils to correct their mistakes if they have any. The dictation drill may be given for 10—12 minutes depending on the grade and the language material.

(c) *Self-dictation.* Pupils are given a text (a rhyme) to learn by heart. After they have learned the text at home the teacher asks them to recite it. Then they are told to write it in their exercise-books from memory. So they dictate it to themselves. This type of written work may be given at junior and intermediate stages.

3. W r i t i n g   s e n t e n c e s   o n   a   g i v e n   p a t t e r n. This kind of writing exercise is more difficult because pupils choose words they are to use themselves. The following exercises may be suggested:

(a) Substitution: *Nick has a sister.* The pupils should use other words instead of *a sister.*

(b) Completion: *How many ... are there in the room? He came late because ... .*

(c) Extension: *Ann brought some flowers.* (The pupils are expected to use an adjective before *flowers.*)

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[1] *French F.* The Teaching of English Abroad. Oxford University Press, London, 1961, p. 75.

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Practice of this kind can lead pupils to long sentences.

4. W r i t i n g   a n s w e r s   t o   g i v e n   q u e s - t i o n s. The question helps the pupil both with the words and with the pattern required for the answer.

The object of every kind of written exercise mentioned above is to develop pupils' spelling in the target language and to fix the linguistic material in their memory and in this way to provide favourable conditions for developing their skills in writing compositions. By composition in this case we mean pupils' expression of their own thoughts in a foreign language in connection with a suggested situation or a topic within the linguistic material previously assimilated in speech and reading. Progress in writing a foreign language is possible on condition that pupils have adequate preparation for writing. This preparation should nearly always be carried out orally, except late at the senior stage when it can be done from books independently as at this stage oral questioning need not precede writing. Writing compositions will not help much in the learning of a new language without careful preparation. If pupils have to rack their brains for something to say, or if they try to express something beyond their powers, the writing may be more harmful than helpful. Preparation may include:

(a) oral questioning with the aim of giving the pupils practice in presenting facts and ideas in the target language;

(b) the use of pictures and other visual aids to provide information for written work;

(c) auding an extract or a story which can stimulate pupils' thought; after auding there should always be some questions on the content;

(d) silent reading which can be used as a source of information for pupils, first, to speak about, and then for writing.

In teaching compositions the following exercises may be suggested:

1. A written reproduction of a story either heard or read. With backward classes most of the words that are habitually misspelt must be written on the blackboard.

2. A description of a picture, an object or a situation. For example:

— Write not less than three sentences about (the object).

— Write five sentences about what you usually do after classes.

— Write four sentences about what you can see in the picture of the room.

3. A desriptive paragraph about a text, or a number of texts on a certain subject. Pupils may be given concrete assignments. For instance:

— Describe the place where the action takes place.

— Write what you have learned about ...

— Write what new and useful information you have found for yourself in this text (these texts).

— Write what the author says about ... using the sentences from the text to prove it.

4. An annotation on the text read. The following assignments may help pupils in this.

— Pick out sentences which express the main idea (ideas) in the text and then cross out those words which are only explanatory in relation to the main idea.

— Abridge the text by writing out only topical sentences.

— Write the contents of the text in 3—5 sentences.

5. A composition on a suggested topic. For example, "My family" or "Our town" or "The sports I like best". Pupils should be taught to write a plan first and then to write the story following the plan.

6. Letter writing. Pupils are usually given a pattern letter in English,[1] which shows the way the English start their letters and end them.

The following assignments may be suggested:

— Write a letter to your friend who lives in another town.

— Write a letter to your parents when you are away from home.

— Write a letter to a boy (a girl) you do not know but you want to be your pen-friend.

In testing pupils' skills in writing the teacher should use those kinds of work pupils get used to and which they can do because they must be well prepared before they are given a test. Every pupil should feel some pride in completing a test and be satisfied with the work done. Tests which result in mistakes are very dangerous. They do no good at all. They do a very great deal of harm because pupils lose inter-

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[1] See, for instance, A Letter about Sports in England. — In: *A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon.* Seventh Form English. Pupil's Book. M., 1971, p. 181.

est in the subject and stop working at their English. Indeed, if the results of the test are poor, for example, 50% of the pupils have received low marks, they testify not only to the poor assimilation of the material by the pupils, but to the poor work of the teacher as well. He has given an untimely test. He has not prepared the pupils for the test yet. This is true of all kinds of tests in teaching a foreign language.

In teaching writing the following tests may be recommended to measure pupils' achievements in penmanship, spelling, and composition.

1. The teacher measures his pupils' achievement in making English letters in the right way by asking individuals to write some letters on the blackboard. Or else he may ask the pupils to write some letters which he names in their exercise-books. Then he takes the exercise-books for correction.

2. The teacher measures his pupils' achievement in penmanship and spelling by administering dictation tests or spelling test. The teacher dictates a word, a phrase, or a sentence standing in front of the class for the pupils to hear him well. If the teacher dictates a sentence, it is not recommended to repeat it more than twice. Constant repetition of the sentence prevents pupils from keeping it in memory. If the dictation is based on a text whose sentences are logically connected it is necessary to read the whole text first and then dictate it sentence by sentence. When the pupils are ready with writing, the teacher reads the text once more for them to check it.

It is important to determine the amount of material that might be included in a dictation. This depends on the form, the stage of teaching, and the character of the material itself. In the 5—6th forms a dictation should not be long. It should take from 5 to 10 minutes. In the 7—10th forms a dictation may be longer, and it may take 15—20 minutes. The amount of material included in a spelling test may be approximately as follows: 5th form — 20 words; 6th form — 30 words; 7th form — 50—60 words; 8th form — 60—70 words; 9th form — 70—80 words; 10th form — 80—100 words.

A spelling test may be given either at the beginning of the lesson, or in the second half of it. Thus, if the teacher handles the class well, it makes no·difference when he gives it. If he does not handle the class well enough to hold his

pupils' attention, it is better to administer a test in the second half of the class-period, the first half of the class-period being devoted to some other work. Otherwise he will not succeed in making his pupils work well. They will be excited because of the test.

3. The teacher measures his pupils' achievement in composition:

— by asking them to write a few questions on the text;

— by answering questions (the questions are given);

— by making a few statements on the object-picture or a set of pictures given;

— by describing a picture illustrating a situation or topic in written form;

— by writing a few sentences on a suggested topic;

— by giving a written annotation on the text read;

— by writing a descriptive paragraph;

— by writing a letter.

In conclusion, it should be said that everything a pupil writes as a test must be easy for him because he is asked to write only those things which he already knows thoroughly.

It cannot be stressed strongly enough that none of the above types of tasks can be used as tests if the pupils were not taught to do them in the process of learning the target language.

There is one more problem which deals with writing, that is the correction of mistakes in pupils' exercise-books.

Modern methodologists believe that the essence of correction lies in the fact that a pupil must realize what mistake he had made and how he must correct it. That is why many teachers and methodologists, both in this country and abroad, consider that the teacher should just mark (underline) a wrong letter, or a form, or a word, etc.

In this way he will make the pupil find the mistake and correct it. Learners must acquire the habit of noticing mistakes in their own writing. This habit can be acquired if pupils are properly trained, if teachers will develop these habits in their pupils. The training that will help pupils to become aware of their mistakes has to be gradual and continuous. When a pupil is made to find his mistakes and correct them he has to apply his knowledge in spelling, vocabulary, and grammar of the target language, and this is far more useful for him than the corrections made by the teacher. The effect of the teacher's corrections on the pupils

is usually very small. Therefore pupils should be trained' to correct mistakes that have been made. The better the teacher trains his pupils, the less work he will have to do in the marking.

In carrying out the training the following techniques may be recommended.[1]

1. Pupils should read through their own written work before handing it in, and correct any mistakes they can find. The habit of revising written work is a useful one, and every pupil has to acquire it.

2. Pupils can correct the sentences themselves looking at the blackboard where the correct answers to exercises are written.

3. Whenever pupils are writing, the teacher can walk round looking through the work they have done and putting a dot at the end of those lines which contain a mistake. The pupil has to find the mistake and correct it. When the teacher comes round again, he crosses out the dot if the mistake has been corrected, if not, he leaves the dot. This takes very little time, because teachers are usually quick in finding mistakes. With small classes the teacher can get an exercise almost completely corrected.

4. When written work has to be handed in, the teacher asks his pupils to read through their work and count up the mistakes. They should put down the number at the bottom of the page. Then they correct the mistakes. The teacher might give the class three to five minutes for this work. The exercise-books are then collected and the teacher corrects the mistakes. He puts the number of mistakes he finds at the bottom of the page.

5. The teacher can ask his pupils to change exercise-books with their neighbours. The latter look through the work and try to find the mistakes which have been missed by their friends. They put the new number at the bottom of the page.

Thus the teacher varies the procedure keeping the class guessing about what he will want them to do. With the techniques described above the teacher stimulates his pupils to keep a sharp eye for mistakes and, in this way, develops their ability to notice their mistakes and correct them.

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[1] See: *Gurrey P.* Teaching English as a Second Language. Longmans, London, 1963, p. 150—152.

Since writing is a mighty means in learning a foreign language pupils should write both in class and at home. For this they need (1) two exercise-books for class and homework (the teacher collects the exercise-books regularly for correcting mistakes and assigns marks for pupils' work in the exercise-books); (2) a notebook for tests (the teacher keeps the notebooks in class and gives them to the pupils for a test and corrections).

The exercise-books must meet the general school requirements established by unified spelling standards.

Recommended Literature:

Программы восьмилетней школы. Иностранные языки (Письмо). М., „Просвещение", 1967.

Хэгболдт П. Изучение иностранных языков. М., 1963, с. 40—51, 115—121.

Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. Под ред. А. А. Миролюбова, И. В. Рахманова, В. С. Цетлин. М., 1967, гл. V.

Беседы об уроке иностранного языка. Авт.: Пассов Е. И., Колова Т. И., Волкова Т. А. и др. Л., „Просвещение", 1975. (Беседа восьмая.)

Questions for Discussion:

1. Teaching English penmanship is not difficult. What is your opinion on the matter?
2. Spelling is one of the most difficult problems in teaching English. Do you agree? Give some examples to substantiate your opinion.
3. Why is writing an effective means in language learning? Give a few arguments to prove your answer.

Activities:

1. Analyse one of the lessons in Pupil's Book and Teacher's Book (any level you like) to state the role and place of writing.
2. State the difficulties in the spelling of the following words... .
3. Prepare a short drill lesson practising the spelling of ... .
4. Prepare a spelling test on the lesson you have chosen for analysis.
5. Prepare a test to measure pupils' achievements (a) in answering questions in written form; (b) in writting a composition on a picture.

Part Three

THE ORGANIZATION OF TEACHING

Chapter XII

Planning in Foreign Language Teaching

THE NECESSITY FOR PLANNING
AND THE APPROACH TO THE PROBLEM

An efficient working level of teaching is ensured by systematic and careful planning. The foreign language teacher plans all the kinds of work he is to do: he plans the essential course, the optional course (if any), and the extra-curricular work.

The first step in planning is to determine where each of his classes is in respect to achievements. It is easy for the teacher to start planning when he receives beginners.

Though the teacher does not know his pupils yet, his success will fully depend on his preparation for the lessons since pupils are usually eager to learn a foreign language in the 5th form (or the 2nd form in a specialized school). Planning is also relatively easy for the teacher who worked in these classes the previous year (or years) because he knows the achievements of his pupils in each class. He is aware of what language skills they have acquired. Planning is more difficult when the teacher receives a class (classes) from another teacher and he does not know the pupils, their proficiency in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing.

The teacher begins his planning before school opens and during the first week. He should establish the achievement level of his classes. There is a variety of ways in which this may be done. The teacher asks the previous teacher to tell him about each of the pupils. He may also look through the pupils' test-books and the register to find out what mark each of his pupils had the previous year. The teacher may

administer pre-tests, either formally or informally, to see how pupils do with them. He may also conduct an informal quizzing, asking pupils questions in the foreign language to know if they can understand them and respond properly, or he has a conversation within the topics of the previous year. After the teacher has determined the achievement level of his classes, he sketches out an outline of the year's work. In making up his yearly outline the teacher consults the syllabus, Teacher's Book, Pupil's Book, and other teaching materials and sets what seems to him to be realistic limits to the content to be covered during the course of the year. In sketching out an outline of the term's work the teacher makes a careful study of Teacher's Book, Pupil's Book, teaching aids and teaching materials available for this particular form. Taking into consideration the achievements of his class, he compiles a calendar plan in accordance with the time-table of a given form.

UNIT PLANNING

The teacher needs two kinds of plans to work successfully: the plan' of a series of class-periods for a lesson or unit of the textbook or a unit plan, [1] and the daily plan or the lesson plan for a particular class-period.

In compiling a unit plan, i. e., in planning the lesson of the textbook, the teacher determines the difficulties of the lesson, namely, phonetic difficulties (sounds, stress, intonation); grammar difficulties (grammar items, their character and amount), and vocabulary difficulties (the amount of new words, their character).

He then distributes these difficulties evenly over the number of class-periods allotted to the lesson in the calendar plan.

1. The teacher starts by stating the objective or objectives of each class-period, that is, what can be achieved in a classroom lesson. Of course the long-term aims of the course help the teacher to ensure that every particular lesson is pulling in the right direction and is another step towards gaining the ultimate goals of the course. "To help the class

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[1] Тематический план или план серии уроков по теме или уроку учебника.

to speak English better", "To teach pupils to aud" or "To develop pupils' proficiency in reading" cannot be the objectives of the lesson because they are too abstract to be clear to the learners. The lesson objectives should be stated as precisely as possible.

Pupils coming to the lesson should know what they are to do during the lesson, what performance level is required of them, and how it can be achieved. Here are a few examples:

— Teach pupils to understand the following words ... when hearing and to use them in sentences orally.

— Teach pupils to form new words with the help of the following suffixes ... and to use them in the situations given.

— Teach pupils to consult a dictionary to look up the meaning of the following words ... .

— Teach pupils to recognize the international words ... when hearing (or reading).

— Teach pupils to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context while reading text "...".

— Teach pupils to understand the statements in the Present Perfect and to use them in the following situations ... .

— Teach pupils to ask and answer questions in the Present Perfect and to make up dialogues following the models ... .

— Teach pupils to find the logical predicate in the sentences ... while reading following the structural signals.

— Teach pupils to speak about the following objects ... ... on utterance level (in a few sentences).

— Teach pupils to use the words and grammar covered in speaking about the places of interest in our town.

— Teach pupils to find topical sentences while reading text "..." silently.

— Teach pupils to get the main information while reading text "...".

— Teach pupils to write an annotation on text "...".

— Check pupils' skill in reading and understanding an unfamiliar text using a dictionary.

— Check pupils' ability in using the words covered in the following situations ... .

The teacher can state no more than three concrete objectives for a particular class-period depending on the stage

of instruction, the material of the lesson, and some other factors.

2. The teacher distributes the linguistic material (sounds, words, grammar, etc.) throughout the class-periods according to the objectives of each period, trying to teach new vocabulary on the grammatical material familiar to pupils, and to teach a new grammar item within the vocabulary assimilated by pupils; or he first teaches pupils hearing and speaking on the new material presented, and then pupils use this in reading and writing.

3. The teacher selects and distributes exercises for class and homework using various teaching aids and teaching materials depending on the objectives of each class-period. For example, for developing his pupils' skill in dialogic speech within the material covered the teacher needs a record with a pattern dialogue, word cards for changing the semantic meaning of the pattern dialogue to make the structure of the dialogue fit new situations.

In distributing exercises throughout the class-periods the teacher should involve his pupils in oral practice and speech, in oral and silent reading, and in writing. Exercises which are difficult for pupils should be done under the teacher's supervision, i. e., in class. Those exercises which pupils can easily perform independently are left for homework. In other words, new techniques, exercises, and skills should be practised in class before the pupil attempts them at home. The homework done, the pupils return to class for perfecting, polishing, expanding, and varying what they have practised at home, they learn to use the new words, the new structures in varied situations.

When the teacher determines the pupil's homework he should take into account that the subject he is teaching though important and difficult is not the only one the pupil learns at school. The realities of schools militate against more than 20—30 minutes of everyday homework in a foreign language. This requires the teacher to teach in class rather than test. Practice proves that pupils do their homework provided they know exactly what to do, how it should be done, and that their work will be evaluated. Besides, pupils should know that six twenty-minutes' work at their English on consecutive days is more effective than two hours at a stretch.

The unit plan, therefore, involves everything the teacher needs for the detailed planning of a lesson (class-period),

namely: the objective (objectives) of each lesson, the material to work at, and the exercises which should be done both during the class-period and at home to develop pupils' habits and skills in the target language.

All this should be done by the teacher if there are no teacher's books (guides) to the textbooks, for example, if he works in a specialized or an evening school. If there are such books, the teacher's planning should deal with (1) the study of the author's recommendations and tabling the material so that he can see how hearing, speaking, reading, and writing should be developed, and (2) the development of these recommendations according to his pupils' abilities.

The teacher starts by studying the authors' recommendations. He takes the textbook and the teacher's guide and table the material. Let us take Lesson 22, Fifth Form English by S. K. Folomkina and E. I. Kaar for illustration.

The unit plan includes nine columns:

1. T h e   n u m b e r   o f   c l a s s - p e r i o d s. The authors plan four periods for Lesson 22.

2. T h e   o b j e c t i v e s of each period.

3. L a n g u a g e   m a t e r i a l. By language material we mean words, word combinations, phrases, and sentence patterns. In Lesson 22 there are six new words (*April, May, June, speak, learn, chess*), four word combinations (*in the evening, that's right, that's not right, go swimming*), and the following sentence patterns: *Where do you go ...? Where does he (she) go ...? When do you go? When does he (she) go ...? What do you do? What does he (she) do ...? I can't read English. I can't (don't) skate either.*

4—7. L a n g u a g e   s k i l l s. In developing each language skill the authors observe the main didactic principles. For instance, they develop pupils' speaking (monologue) gradually, starting with the sentence level (1st period), then passing to the utterance level (2nd period), and finally, to the speech level both prepared (3rd period) and unprepared (4th period) within the material covered. Pupils develop writing habits and skills independently at home. They write only once in class; it is a dictation drill.

8. A c c e s s o r i e s. While working at Lesson 22 the authors propose to use records twice (2nd and 3rd periods) for developing listening comprehension.

9. H o m e w o r k. The authors plan pupils' independent work at home after every class-period. It is connected mainly

Unit Plan

Lesson 22 (English 5) by S. K. Folomkina and E. I. Kaar

	Objectives	Language material	Language skills							Accessories	Home-work
			Listening comprehension	Speaking		Reading		Writing			
				Dialogue	Monologue	Oral	Silent				
1	Teach pupils: (1) how to answer and ask *when-*; *where-*; *what-*questions; (2) the names of the months: *April, May, June.*	Sentence patterns with *when, where, what.* Words: *April, May, June.*		Ex. 1, 4 Dialogue T—C (pupils' responses)	Ex. 3 (sentence level)	Ex. 2 (words, sentences)					Ex. 1 (copying), Ex. 2
2	Present new words in conversation and in sentences, teach pupils to use them.	*Speak, learn, chess, in the evening, that's right, that's not right, go swimming.*	Listening to the text.	Ex. 8 (pupils' responses)	Ex. 7, 9 (utterance level)	Ex. 1, 5 (words, sentences)				Record 2	Ex. 2, B (copying and writing), Ex. 5

	Objectives	Language material	Listening comprehension	Speaking		Reading		Writing	Accessories	Home-work
				Dialogue	Monologue	Oral	Silent			
3	(1) Develop pupils' speaking on the topic *At the English Lesson.* (2) Introduce *can* and teach pupils to use it in statements.	*I can read English.*	Listening to the rhyme "Where do you live, little Mouse?"	Dialogue C — P₁, P₂, Pₙ	Ex. 12 (speech level). Pupils' statements with *can* (sentence level)		Ex. 10 (text)		Record 1	Ex. 4 (copying), Ex. 10
4	(1) Teach pupils negative statements (*can't/don't*). (2) Develop their speaking, reading and writing within the material covered.	*I can't/don't skate either.*	Conversation "At the English Lesson"			Ex 10 (text)		Dictation		Ex. 5 (writing)

Language skills

with copying and writing. (By the latter we mean creative work on the part of the learner as in exercise 5: *What your friend does at the English lesson? Write five sentences*.) Besides, pupils read what they have read in class.

If we fill in all the columns of the table, we can see that Lesson 22 was well compiled. This allows the teacher to enrich pupils' knowledge and develop habits and skills in the target language. It also shows that recommendations given in the teacher's guide can ensure the gradual development of pupils' skills in speaking and reading and, therefore, their progress in language learning.

The teacher tries to adapt the unit plan to his pupils. He may either take it as it is and strictly follow the authors' recommendations, or he may change it a bit. For instance, if he has a group of bright pupils who can easily assimilate the material, the teacher may include some additional material or stimuli (pictures or objects) for the pupils' use in speaking within the same four class-periods. This can be shown in column "Accessories". If the teacher has a group of slow pupils, he needs at least one more period to cover the material, since special questions with *do*, *does* are difficult for his pupils, he may use writing during the lesson and make pupils write down the questions in their exercise-books. Writing may help them in keeping the words and sentence patterns in memory. He may also increase the number of oral drill exercises and give pupils special cards to work on individually and in pairs. Thus the teacher includes word and sentence cards in column "Accessories".

The importance of unit plans cannot be overestimated since unit planning permits the teacher to direct the development of all language skills on the basis of the new linguistic material the lesson involves. He can lead his pupils from reception through pattern practice to creative exercises, and in this way perfect their proficiency in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. He can vary teaching aids and teaching materials within the class-periods allotted to the lesson. Unit planning allows the teacher to concentrate pupils' attention on one or two language skills during the lesson; in this case the class hour is divided into two main parts: a period of 20—25 minutes, during which he takes his pupils through a series of structural drills or other exercises supplied by the textbook, and a period of 20—25 minutes during which the teacher engages the class in creative exercises

when they use the target language as a means of communication. The teacher should bear in mind that pupils lose all interest in a language that is presented to them by means of endless repetitions, pattern practices, substitutions, and so on, and which they cannot use in its main function of exchange of information through hearing or reading. That is why, whenever possible, the teacher should make his pupils aware of the immediate values of his lessons if he hopes to keep and stimulate their interest in language learning which is very important in itself. When a pupil is convinced that learning is vital, he is usually willing to work hard to acquire a good knowledge of the target language. It is well known that some pupils see little value in much of their school work in a foreign language and feel no enthusiasm for their work at the language. Careful unit planning helps the teacher to keep pupils' progress in language learning under constant control and use teaching aids and teaching materials more effectively and, in this way, make his classes worthwhile to all of his pupils.

PLANNING A CLASS-PERIOD

The unit plan completed the teacher may move into planning a class-period or a daily plan which, in addition to what has been determined by the unit plan, indicates the ways the teacher will follow to organize his class to work during the lesson. Therefore the daily plan includes (1) what should be achieved during this particular lesson, (2) what material is used for achieving the objectives, and (3) how the objectives should be achieved.

Since almost every teacher has several classes of one level he usually makes preparations for each level although, ideally, a separate plan is needed for each class because classes proceed at different speed, thus he must make adaptations in his plans to compensate for varying speeds of progress in the classes of the same level.

The teacher should write his daily plans if he strives for effective and reasonable use of time allotted to his pupils' learning a foreign language. However some teachers, including novice teachers, do not prepare written plans. They claim that they can teach "off the top of their heads", and they really can, but their teaching usually results in poor pupils'

language skills because in this case we have "teacher-dominated" classes when the teacher works hard during the lesson while his pupils remain mere "observers" of the procedure. Indeed, when the teacher is standing in front of pupils he does not have much time to think how to organize his pupils' activity. This should be done before the lesson for the teacher to be able to stimulate and direct pupils' learning the language. We may state that the effectiveness of pupils' desired learning is fully dependent on the teacher's preparation for the lessons. If the teacher is talking, reading, and writing a great deal himself during the lesson, he is not ready for it. And vice versa, if the teacher gets his pupils to talk or read with communicative assignments while he listens, or to write while he moves about the class, giving a helping hand to everyone who needs it, he has thoroughly thought over the plan of the lesson beforehand. Therefore we may conclude: to provide necessary conditions for pupils' learning a foreign language, the teacher should thoroughly plan their work during the lesson which is possible if he writes his daily plan in advance.

There are teachers who strictly follow the textbook and accept plans that others have made for them without any changing. In doing this they overlook the unique capacities of their particular classes. They race through the textbook covering the ground regardless of whether pupils master each section.

Some experienced teachers assume that the content of foreign language teaching is constant and as they have worked for many years they do not need daily plans; they have them in their minds. In reality, however, the content changes continuously as well as the methods and techniques of teaching. Moreover, the old plans which are in their minds may not suit the needs of a particular class, since each group of pupils is unique, or they may no longer be applicable because better and more effective teaching aids and teaching materials have appeared. Consequently, proceeding from these considerations the teacher needs a daily plan to provide a high level of language learning of his pupils.

One lesson may require a detailed plan; for another lesson a brief outline will suffice. In any case, a workable form for a daily plan should state the objectives, specify the activities (oral practice, reading, writing, etc.), include evaluation techniques, indicate the assignment, and deter-

mine teaching aids and teaching materials. The plan itself should (1) be brief, but with sufficient detail to be precise; (2) assign a definite number of minutes to each activity; (3) indicate exactly what words, phrases, facts, items are to be learnt and how; (4) make use of a variety of classroom activity for every pupil.

In the organization and conduct of a foreign language lesson there is always a wide range of possibilities. No two teachers will treat the same topic in the same way. There are, however, certain basic principles of teaching and learning which should be observed:

1. Every lesson should begin with a greeting in the foreign language and a brief talk between the teacher and the pupils. Through this conversation the lesson may be motivated. The conversation may take place between:

Teacher — Class
Teacher — Pupil on duty
Pupil on duty — Class
Two Pupils on duty

The foreign language should be used for all common classroom activities; the teacher manages the class activities by giving directions in the foreign language. He stimulates pupils' participation by asking questions, praises and encourages pupils from time to time, and he may also criticize the behaviour of a pupil or a class.

2. There should be a variety of activities at every lesson, including pronunciation drill, oral activities, reading, and writing. The success of activity is measured by attention, enthusiasm, and involvement on the part of the pupils.

3. The lesson should be conducted at a high speed when oral drill exercises are performed. Pupils should not stand up to say a word, a phrase, or a sentence.

4. The lesson should provide a certain sequence in pupils' assimilating language material and developing habits and skills from perception, comprehension, and memorizing, through the usage in a similar situation following a model, to the usage of the material received in new situations that require thinking on the part of the learner.

5. The lesson should provide time for the activity of every pupil in the class. They must be active participants of the procedure and not the teacher as is often the case when the teacher talks more than all the pupils.

6. The lesson should provide conditions for pupils to learn. "Language is a skill so it must be learnt, it cannot be taught" (M. West). A certain amount of time should be devoted to seatwork as opposed to activities involving the class as a whole. During seatwork and other forms of solitary study pupils learn to learn for themselves. The use of language laboratories, teaching machines, and programmed instruction creates necessary conditions for each pupil to learn for himself.

7. The work done during the lesson should prepare pupils for their independent work at home. It is generally accepted as good practice not to assign exercises that have not been covered in class; this especially refers to early stages of language learning.

8. The lesson should be well equipped with teaching aids and teaching materials which allow the teacher to create natural situations for developing pupils' hearing and speaking skills in a foreign language.

Recommended Literature:

Рогова Г. В. Еще раз об организации урока. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1968, № 1.

Гез Н. И. Некоторые вопросы теории урока иностранного языка. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1968, № 4.

Teacher's Books and Pupil's Books for secondary schools.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Planning is a necessary prerequisite for effective teaching. Say why.

2. Unit planning not only saves the teacher's time for compiling daily planning but also makes allowance for developing various skills within the time allotted to a certain unit. Do you agree? Confirm your statement.

3. Since classes are different, daily plans should be adapted to each particular class. What is your opinion on the subject?

Activities:

1. Examine current foreign language textbooks and say how the authors plan the teacher's work at a lesson (unit).

2. Analyse one of the lessons in the Pupil's Book and determine the difficulties of the lesson. Compare your analysis with the one given in the Teacher's Book.

Chapter XIII

The Essential Course
in the Secondary School

We distinguish three stages in teaching a foreign language in schools: junior, intermediate, and senior. Since every stage has its peculiarities we shall dwell upon each one separately.

Junior stage. This stage involves the 5th and the 6th forms. Pupils are eleven and twelve years old. They are usually eager to learn a foreign language. Indeed, the eagerness, with which pupils volunteer answers to the teacher's questions with frantically waving hands leaves little doubt that powerful motives are at work, among them the desire to display language aptitude, and intellectual strength, or simply to "show off" in front of the teacher and classmates. They want to speak the language and understand it when spoken. Pupils like to perform various exercises and the teacher can easily involve them into various activities during the lesson. The conditions for language learning are favourable enough: pupils have four periods a week in the 5th form, and three — in the 6th form. The class, as a rule, is divided into two groups of about twenty pupils. Oral language receives the greatest time and emphasis although at this stage pupils learn hearing, speaking, reading, and writing.

Proceeding from the fourfold aim of foreign language teaching, namely, hearing, speaking, reading, and writing, as the syllabus sets, the problem arises what to begin with.

There are two possible solutions:

(1) to begin with teaching all the language skills, i. e., oral language (hearing and speaking) and written language (reading and writing);

(2) to begin with teaching oral language first.[1]

1. When we begin teaching reading, writing, and speaking simultaneously, pupils have to overcome many difficulties in acquiring the language, among them unfamiliar sounds of the language different from those of the mother tongue; peculiar intonation, stress, and rhythm; the new alphabet which includes strange letters, familiar letters that stand for different sounds; a complicated relationship

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[1] The contemporary textbooks reflect these two approaches. See p. 60.

between letters and sounds, some new concepts fixed or reflected in words (Russian — иди туда, иди сюда, English — go there, come here); the peculiar word-order in various types of sentences and so on and so forth. To provide the necessary conditions for the assimilation of such a complex thing as a foreign language in all its activities, the teaching process is rather slow. First, pupils assimilate the elements, namely, sounds and letters (how to pronounce this or that sound, how to put down this or that sound in symbols, how to write this or that letter, how to write the words the child learns, how to read words, word groups, sentences, what this or that word means, what thought is expressed in this or that sentence). Then they come to "the whole". The work pupils do is of analytical character. They learn elements first to get a "whole". For instance, pupils learn sounds and letters in their relationship in order to be able to read a word; they learn words, their meaning, spelling, pronunciation, grammar forms in order to be able to use them while reading a sentence, or writing a sentence, or saying it. They learn how to put the words together to express this or that thought orally or in writing, etc. Consequently, the process is from the elements of the language to speech, and from analysis to synthesis.

The advantage of this approach lies in the fact that pupils get acquainted with all the language activities (reading, writing and speaking). The advocates of this approach [1] say that one phase of a language helps the other. Thus writing helps reading; they both help speaking, and speaking helps reading. Language is an organic unity, each language activity is intimately related to every other activity. Language learning involves all types of memory: auditory, visual, and kinesthetic from the very beginning.

There are some disadvantages in this approach, however, and we must not overlook them. They are the following: there are too many elements pupils have to assimilate before they are able to understand sentences pronounced by the teacher or read by themselves. They have but little idea of the oral language they study for a long time (at least for a month or more); many children of eleven soon get tired of the analytical work and lose interest in the language; besides, the teacher in his attempt to make pupils' work easier (there

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[1] See: *Миролюбов А. А., Рахманов И. В.* О некоторых принципиальных вопросах методики обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. — „Советская педагогика“, 1963, № 2.

is too much for them to memorize) conducts his lessons, as a rule, in the mother tongue, some elementary commands (*sit down, stand up*, and three-five more expressions) are an exception since teaching reading and writing requires a lot of time (pupils are slow in doing this, thereby speaking is neglected, which is, of course, undesirable when the aim is the command of the language). The most dangerous of all disadvantages mentioned above is the loss of interest in the subject and of the desire to learn the language. "No one can learn what he does not want to study" (P. Hagboldt). This is especially true when we deal with children.

The significance of interest in learning cannot be overestimated. It is the strongest motive in all our efforts. It concentrates our attention, enlivens our impressions, ensures repetition, and favours a wealth of associations. Some psychologists even speak of the "law of interest". According to this law the most interesting parts of a subject most strongly resist the tendency to be forgotten.

"No teaching is so poor as that which puts the class to sleep" (P. Hagboldt). Perfect integration of the various language activities is an ideal, and like all ideals, unattainable but worth striving for.

To minimize the disadvantages the simultaneous teaching of all language activities possesses, a few introductory lessons at a purely oral level are conducted. Besides, of all the skills preference is given to the development of oral language in the junior stage, thus pupils are engaged in an exchange of ideas, however primitive they are from the very beginning. The linguistic material is presented orally which is important for developing hearing and speaking skills. The oral-aural competence of the pupil helps him in reading and writing, the latter in their turn support and reinforce hearing and speaking. This approach is reflected in the textbook for the 5th form by S. K. Folomkina and E. I. Kaar.

2. When we begin teaching hearing and speaking first in the 5th form pupils have to overcome but one difficulty, namely, they learn first how to speak and understand the foreign language when it is spoken. Teaching reading and writing is postponed for a while. In this case there is an opportunity to concentrate pupils' attention upon hearing and speaking. Fortunately, ability in oral language may be developed before ability in written language. Bearing this in mind some teachers prefer the following sequence in teaching

beginners, that is, from oral language to written language; they conduct the oral introductory course in the 5th form, and follow the oral approach in teaching a foreign language afterwards. The advocates of the oral introductory course in the 5th form believe that it will lead to radical changes in foreign language teaching in schools (where for many years the simultaneous teaching of language skills has been practised) and make the teacher revise the method and techniques he uses. It is practically impossible to make the teacher deviate from the methods and techniques he is used to, though they have not proved as effective as they were expected to be. The use of the oral introductory course changes the methods and techniques the teacher applies.

The advantages of the oral introductory course in the 5th form are as follows:

1. The oral introductory course allows the children to get a clear idea of how the language sounds from the very first steps. The pupils follow a natural sequence in language assimilation from hearing to speaking and later on to reading and writing.

2. The oral introductory course stimulates pupils' interest as they deal with the language in its communicative function. For children a language is first of all speech. Therefore when they begin to learn a foreign language, they naturally want to speak it and hear it spoken. We know how eager the children are to learn a foreign language in the 5th form when the school year begins, and how disappointed they become when it appears to be not what they have expected. The oral introductory course permits the teacher to instruct pupils in comprehension of elementary commands, requests, statements, and questions from the very beginning, on the one hand, and in saying something in a foreign language, on the other.

3. Pronunciation in teaching a modern language is known to be the most important skill to be developed when instructing beginners. In the oral introductory course much attention is given to teaching pronunciation. The imitative abilities of children are great enough to be relied upon in teaching pronunciation successfully. Besides, during the oral course hearing and speaking are in focus, therefore children have plenty of oral practice. Hearing and speaking improve their pronunciation.

4. At present much attention is given to finding ways

of more effective teaching. The effectiveness depends to a great extent on how well "feed-back" (from the pupil to the teacher) is established, that is, whether a response from the pupil is elicited. If the pupil's response indicates he has accurately received and recorded the previous information the next increment of information is .presented. If the pupil's response is of low fidelity or accuracy — it is slow, inaccurate, fumbling, etc., — corrective information is provided. In oral language there is a constant communication between the teacher and the pupil. Therefore the feedback is permanent.

5. The oral introductory course provides an efficient activization of teaching from the very beginning. During the lesson pupils should be active. They must listen to what the teacher and their classmates say. Their memory, thinking, visual, auditory, and kinesthetic analysers are at work. That is why many teachers turned to the oral introductory course in the 5th form to gain better results in foreign language teaching. To meet the requirements of the teachers a new textbook for the pupils of the 5th form has been compiled. This is the textbook by A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon which is now in use.

When teaching the pupils orally the method used is the a u r a l - o r a l m e t h o d. The teacher must strive towards establishing direct connection between words, sentences in the foreign language and the concepts and thoughts they convey. However, this does not mean the teacher cannot use the mother tongue during the lesson. He uses it for conveying the meaning of some words, structures, and for those explanations and commentaries which provide the necessary comprehension of the language material. For example, the teacher presents a sentence pattern: *This is a desk* (the translation may be given). In this sentence there are two sounds the pronunciation of which should be shown [ð], [d]. The rest are assimilated through imitation.

The mother tongue, however, should not be an essential link between the foreign language and the thoughts it expresses. The mother tongue should only be utilized when it can help to ensure necessary comprehension. The extensive use of the mother tongue, translation in particular, however, deprives the oral introductory course of its sense and value. The principle of visualization is of great importance in teaching beginners. Audio "visualization" is provided when the pupil listens to the teacher's and the classmates' speech.

For example, the teacher presents a new word. The word is *a chair.*

> T e a c h e r: This is a chair ... a chair...
> Is this a chair? Yes, it is.
> Is this a table? No, it is not. It's a chair.
> Is this a chair or a table?
> This is a chair.
> What is this?
> It's a chair.

Pupils listen to the teacher. They retain the new word not only as a whole but as an element of familiar structures. After that the teacher asks the pupils to repeat the word *a chair* in chorus, then individually, then in sentences. The new word must be heard and pronounced at least 30 – 50 times. The teacher's speech should be of a normal speed, and he must not repeat the same sentence or question several times. The slow uttering of the question is not desirable, because the pupils get time for inner translation and they are not prepared for hearing and comprehension of the foreign language. Objects, pictures, gestures should be extensively used at all points of the lesson. The assimilation of language material on the part of pupils depends on their activity during the lesson.

Pupils memorize the language material in a form suitable for communication provided they hear and reproduce it again and again. New habits can be formed only by many repetitions. When conducting the oral course individual work is carried on. Work in pairs should be used, too.

During the oral introductory course the teacher uses sentence patterns as units of instruction. He starts working at a sentence pattern and then attracts his pupils' attention to the elements this particular sentence pattern involves; for example, the sound is given in a sentence, the pattern is given in a situation. No analysis is used. Later on when reading and writing are introduced, some analysis and generalization may take place.

The duration of the course is one of the problems that is not solved yet. It depends on many factors, such as:

1. Number of pupils in the class. In overcrowded classes the oral introductory course should be shorter than in small classes of 10—15 pupils because the teacher cannot give due attention to every pupil and ensure oral practice for

everyone. The consequence of this is that some pupils cannot assimilate words, phrases and sentence patterns which they grasp only by ear. They need printed matter to be able to see all this. Reading and writing are helpful since auditory perception is reinforced by visual perception.

2. Pupils' aptitude. There are pupils who can grasp words, phrases and sentence patterns in a foreign language by ear without any difficulty, and they can use them easily in conversations due to good imitative abilities. There is no need for reading and writing to reinforce the pupils' auditory perception. If the class consists of such pupils, the oral introductory course may be longer than in ordinary classes.

3. The teacher's qualifications. The oral method of teaching a foreign language requires qualified teachers who have good command of the language they teach, who can manage the class, who can work with audio-visual aids and materials when presenting and consolidating linguistic material and who can use modern methods and teaching techniques in order to stimulate pupils' activities in listening comprehension and speaking. The more experienced the teacher is in this respect, the longer he is able to teach pupils hearing and speaking without turning to reading and writing for the reinforcement of his pupils' auditory perception. However, to meet modern requirements in teaching foreign languages in our schools, and to be considered "the oral introductory course" it must not be shorter than 4 weeks (16 periods). In the textbook by A. P. Starkov, Z. V. Starkova the oral introductory course goes on for a term (the first two months).

The oral introductory course allows the teacher: (1) to develop pronunciation habits and skills both in articulation and intonation since pupils are taught spoken language only; the teacher can give his full attention to teaching correct pronunciation by saying each sentence very carefully and quietly, by asking the pupils to say it correctly following the pattern, by listening intently to detect faults in the pronunciation of his pupils so as to help each pupil in his effort to pronounce as close to the pattern as possible; (2) to introduce the material necessary for conducting lessons in English, namely, greetings, requests, orders, names of school objects and actions, words and expressions which are necessary for commenting, for instance, *good, very good, better, but not good enough, wrong, right this time*; (3) to create the

situations in which pupils may speak about themselves and their friends, about objects and things they can see and use in the classroom, and so on.

The oral introductory course is designed for developing pupils' skills in hearing and speaking before they are taught to read and write in the target language. This makes the learning of the language easier. Teachers who want to follow this approach in teaching English should select the textbook for the 5th form by A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon. In the Teacher's Book they will find all necessary directions as to how to teach children during the oral introductory course. When pupils have acquired habits and skills in listening comprehension and speaking during the oral introductory course, the oral approach is suggested in teaching the foreign language.

Oral approach. The Russian for the oral approach is устная основа обучения. This means that the learner receives his initial contact with the material through the ear. The oral approach centres attention fundamentally upon learning a language as a set of symbols to be spoken and understood when heard. The oral approach is a name primarily for an end to be attained in the first stage of language learning, i. e., the building up of a set of habits for the oral production of a language and for the receptive understanding of the language when it is spoken.

The oral approach allows the teacher:

(1) to centre attention on teaching the pupils how to pronounce correctly the language material they assimilate;

(2) to have plenty of time for hearing, repetition, and reproduction since all the work is done orally;

(3) to train pupils in assimilating the material through the ear and, in this way, not to become eye-learners;

(4) to arouse pupils' interest in learning as they deal with the language as a means of communication; ′   ′

(5) to provide the natural sequence in language assimilation: hearing, speaking, reading, writing.

Pupils are taught a foreign language through hearing and speaking it. At every lesson they enrich their knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, and therefore they can understand and say more and more. Pupils develop their reading and writing skills first within the material assimilated orally.

When the teacher is to use the oral approach the following procedure should be adopted.

The objective is: to teach pupils to understand and use a grammar item in speech. The grammar item should pass through the following stages to be grasped and retained by pupils.

1. Listening comprehension.
2. Listening repetition in imitation of the teacher.
3. Numerous repetitions of the sentence patterns; the words being changed.
4. Transformations.
5. The usage of the grammar item in various situations.

For example, the grammar item is "The Future Indefinite".

1. The teacher selects the situations suitable for presenting the grammar item. He may use a real situation. Imagine the class decided to go on a hike.

T e a c h e r: Next Sunday (*he points to the calendar*) we shall go on a hike. We shall get up at 5 o'clock (*he looks at his watch*). We shall take everything we need for the hike. We shall leave at 7 o'clock. We shall have a good time, we are sure. We shall be back at 10.

Pupils listen to the teacher trying to understand what he says. Now and then the teacher may repeat a sentence or ask one of the pupils (the slowest one) to translate what he has said. After he has finished, he says it again.

2. Pupils repeat the sentences in imitation of the teacher.

Attention is given to the intonation. Pupils may repeat the sentences both individually and in unison.

3. The teacher arranges a talk.

T e a c h e r: Tomorrow I shall go to the library, and what about you, Mike?

M i k e: Tomorrow I shall go to the cinema, and what about you, Lena?

L e n a: Tomorrow I shall go to school, and what about you, Sasha?

S a s h a: I shall read a book, and you, Pete?

P e t e: I shall not read a book. I shall watch TV and what about you, Ann?

A n n: I shall not watch TV. I shall do my lessons, and you Andrew?

A n d r e w: I shall listen to music, etc.

4. Then the teacher suggests that the pupils should change the person in the sentences following the model.

Teacher: We shall go on a hike. (*He points to the children playing in the yard.*)

Pupil₁: They will stay in town. (*The teacher points to Pete.*)

Pupil₂: I shall play chess. (*He points to Mike.*)

Pupil₃: He will watch TV, etc.

The pupil asks for confirmation.

Teacher: Dan will help us.

Pupil₁: Will he help us?

Teacher: Ann will be on duty tomorrow.

Pupil₂: Will Ann be on duty tomorrow? etc.

5. The teacher gives a pattern dialogue. He may use a tape-recording and a picture:

— Will you help me, John?
— What shall I do, father?
— Will you polish the floor?
— With pleasure.

Or:

— What will you do tonight?
— I think I shall do my lessons first, then I shall go to see my friend or I shall watch TV.

The work results in assimilating the Future Indefinite, and more than that, in reviewing a great number of words and phrases.

If the objective is to teach pupils to understand and use in speech 6—8 words a similar procedure should be adopted:

1. Listening and comprehension.

2. Listening and repeating the word over and over.

3. Listening and repeating the word in different word combinations.

4. Using the word in various sentence patterns.

5. Using the word in the act of communication.

1. The teacher selects situations for presenting the new words. He selects a method for conveying the meaning of each word. For example, the word is *dance.* It is not difficult to find pictures with dancing people in it. So the direct method

may be applied. The teacher says a number of sentences with the word *dance* in the situations selected for the purpose.

2. Pupils pronounce the word in different forms *(dance, dances, is dancing, are dancing, danced)* in imitation of the teacher. Pupils are taught to pronounce it correctly as "a whole" (a unit).

3. They pronounce word combinations: *dance well, dance badly, dance at the party, dance in the hall, dance with somebody.*

4. Pupils use the word in different sentence patterns: *The girl* (in the picture) *can dance well. The people are dancing in the hall. We shall dance at the party,* etc.

5. The teacher arranges a talk (Teacher — Pupil, Pupil — Pupil).

— Can you dance?
— Do you like to dance?
— Who can dance well in our class?
— Who will dance at the party? etc.

The oral approach in teaching the language material forces the teacher to plan his work carefully. It provides a systematic revision of vocabulary and grammar. Indeed, pupils, assimilate a grammar item through the revision of words and phrases they need to use this particular grammar item. Pupils assimilate new words in different sentence patterns, therefore, they review grammar while learning the words.

Various exercises may be suggested which pupils are to perform to retain grammar and vocabulary, among them:

— Make statements following the model.

— Answer the questions. (Various types of questions are asked — general, alternative, and special.) The teacher asks a question, e. g., *What will you do after classes?* Many pupils answer this question.

— Ask questions.

T e a c h e r: I shall read a book. Ask me questions to get more information.
P u p i l₁: Will you read a Russian book?
P u p i l₂: Will you read an English book?
P u p i l₃: Will you read it at home or in the library?
P u p i l₄: When will you read the book? etc.

— Make up a dialogue.
— Speak about a picture, a situation, a topic suggested.

Various audio-visual aids should be used. After pupils perform various oral exercises and use the material in speech for 1—2 lessons they read the text in which the grammar item or the words they have assimilated orally occur. They also perform various written exercises.

The relationship of oral language and written language in the junior stage must be approximately 3 : 1 , that is, oral language receives the greatest time and emphasis in pupils' activity.

Reading is developed on the basis of the material assimilated orally. However, the teacher should bear in mind that oral-aural competence does not automatically create reading ability. It only helps pupils to acquire this skill. Among the exercises designed for developing reading, graphemic-phonemic and structural-information exercises should prevail. Pupils are encouraged to read a text for thorough comprehension and not for translation since the aim is to acquire proficiency in reading and not in translating (see Chapter IX).

Writing is developed on the material pupils can use in speaking and reading. In this stage writing is a means of teaching since it helps pupils in fixing words, phrases or sentence patterns in their memory. The leading type of written work at this stage is copying, though dictations and elementary compositions are available (see Chapter XI).

In the junior stage the role of the teacher is great: he presents the language material, stimulates and directs pupils' correct usage of the material presented. However it does not mean that his activity should "dominate" during the lesson. On the contrary, care should be taken to increase pupil-practice time. Special investigations have shown that teachers are often too active during the lesson. Sometimes the teacher's activity takes 75 per cent of the lesson time and 25 per cent is left for the class. In this case we cannot expect much learning on the part of the pupil. Indeed 45 min. = 2 700 sec. The teacher is talking (and doing something else, reading, for instance) 30 min. or 1 800 sec. Thus 900 sec. are left for the class. If there are 20 pupils in the class, each child has 45 sec. at his disposal. Which is not so much for learning the language.

Of course in the initial lessons we cannot minimize the teacher's participation in this bilateral process, and 1 : 1 may be considered a reasonable relationship. The teacher manages the class activities by giving directions; he shows

the pupils how to pronounce something, or what and how to say in this or that situation, he presents new words and grammar items by giving vivid examples and using audio-visual materials; he guides the class by pointing out his pupils' errors; he praises good work and encourages the class to further perfect their habits and skills; he evaluates the work of the class. All this requires time, and if we take into consideration that pupils are slow in grasping much of what the teacher says and he is sometimes forced to repeat what he utters a second time to be understood by the pupils, the time utilized by the teacher is not wasted and the ratio fifty-fifty is justified. However the relationship should be gradually changed in favour of pupils, for every child to be able to have practice in speaking, reading, and writing. Thorough unit and daily planning can ensure rational distribution of time during the lesson between the teacher and the class so that favourable conditions may be created for the pupils' learning a foreign language.

Given below is a general outline of a daily lesson for the 5th form during the oral introductory course with its interpretation.

1. The beginning of the lesson 2—3 min.
2. Pronunciation drill 8—10 min.
3. Oral practice 30—35 min.
4. Homework 1—2 min.

The beginning of the lesson is used by the teacher for greeting the class and getting everyone ready for the lesson, for telling his pupils what they will learn and how that will be achieved. The latter is said in the pupils' mother tongue because the class is not prepared for understanding the foreign language.

Pronunciation drill enables the teacher to concentrate pupils' attention on sounds, sound combinations, rhythm, and melody. The teacher usually utilizes the material already covered to get the pupils to practise in producing sounds, words with these sounds, phrases and sentences correctly by asking the class to pronounce all this in unison and individually. Since learning to pronounce properly in the target language is the most important objective for beginners during the oral introductory course, eight-ten minutes' drill is needed to achieve necessary pronunciation habits. To help pupils to acquire these habits the teacher either conducts pronunciation drill himself or uses audio-visual materials so that pupils

can watch how to produce sounds, words, phrases and sentences, i. e., how wide or narrow the teacher opens his mouth, whether the voice goes up (the teacher moves his hand up) or it falls (the teacher moves his hand down).

If the pupils find difficulties, they can get some further help by listening to the teacher's explanation and watching how to produce this or that sound, word, etc. When the teacher has only an audio means, for instance, a tape-recording or a record, he uses this to support his efforts in teaching pronunciation.

Since pronunciation in the English language differs greatly from that of the Russian language, the teacher should not hurry and should do his best to help each pupil to make progress in discriminating and producing English sounds to be able to aud and speak this language. As there are 18—20 pupils in the group and each needs special attention on the part of the teacher, eight-ten minutes should be devoted to pronunciation drill.

Oral practice implies the revision of the material covered and the presentation and assimilation of some new linguistic material for further developing pupils' hearing and speaking activities. This is the core of each lesson providing the theme or topic as well as the new vocabulary and structure. They are all woven into natural English whether in simple questions and answers, dialogue or monologue. Thus within this part of the lesson we can easily distinguish:

R e v i s i o n. Pupils perform exercises which make communication possible, however elementary the level of such communication may be. Their speech is stimulated by the teacher's commands and requests, objects and pictures. The work is done mainly individually and in pairs.

P r e s e n t a t i o n of new words and new sounds (if there are any) and sentence patterns. The teacher uses direct and translation methods by choice. Pupils perform drill exercises: repetition, substitution, extension, etc. Audio-visual aids and various visual materials are used as stimuli. The work is done in unison and individually for all the pupils to be able to pronounce new words and sentences presented as many times as possible.

A s s i m i l a t i o n. Pupils perform speech exercises within the new and old material. The teacher creates favourable conditions for the pupils to use the material presented in speech, both in dialogue and monologue using classroom

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situations and other stimuli for the purpose. Oral practice takes 30—35 minutes.

Homework during the oral introductory course or the pre-reading phase may include: drawing objects whose names the pupil has learnt and giving them names; simple structural drill; contrastive phonology drills; learning the rhyme at which the class has worked during the lesson by heart; practising a dialogue they have learnt in class. It is desirable that the pupil should have a model to be able to compare his pronunciation with the one given; non-controlled practice might bring about the learning of incorrect forms, structures and pronunciation. The practice records that accompany the text-book are a common source of model pronunciation. To save the quality of the record which usually inclines to scratches, it is recommended that the text should be re-recorded on a tape. A language laboratory may be used as a homework centre to which pupils may come during free hours to do their home-work. Of course pupils need to be taught how to work with this kind of home study material. The content of homework during the oral introductory course will depend on the length of the latter. If it is short, for instance two-four weeks, then pupils need not be given any homework, at least no homework which requires the use of audio materials. If it lasts for a term pupils should have some homework, otherwise the lack of conventional homework may establish negative attitude to the subject on the part of both pupils and parents; they may classify it as something that is not serious. In any case, the teacher informs his pupils, and, if necessary, their parents, what will be done in class and how to practise effectively at home.

During the oral introductory course some preparatory work in reading begins. Pupils may be taught to discriminate English letters.

The teacher shows a letter, for example, *P* and says it stands for [p]. He invites pupils to name the words in which they hear this sound. Pupils recollect the words: *pen, pencil, picture,* and so on. 2—3 minutes may be devoted to this work during the lesson, beginning with the middle of the course.

Possessing an outline for a daily lesson the teacher fills it in with concrete material. Here is one of the possible ways to write a daily plan. In may look like this:

L e v e l: 5th form.   September 18

O b j e c t i v e s: 1. To teach pupils the sound ... and to

understand the use of the words ... in the sentence patterns
... .
2. To develop hearing and speaking skills on the material covered.

1. The beginning of the lesson. (2 min).
Greeting.
Classroom expressions.

2. Pronunciation drill. (8 min.)

Use . . . .
Have every pupil pronounce in chorus and individually
... .

3. Oral practice. (30—35 min.)

Review:
— Ask questions for every one to answer.
— Use objects (movements) and pictures of ...
— Have pupils make statements about the objects shown.
— Require pupils to ask and answer questions: T — class; P — class; P — P (work in pairs). (10 min).
— Present the words ... . Introduce the sound ... . Use the direct method for conveying the meaning of ... and translation for ... . Have pupils listen to the sentences ..., repeat them in unison and individually. (10 min).
Develop pupils' skills:
— In hearing. Each child receives a picture (or an object). I say sentences ... for them to recognize the one which relates to the object each has. Then they change the pictures and listen to the speaker from the tape-recorder.·
— In speaking. Each speaks about the picture he has following the model. (14 min.)

4. Homework. (1 min.)
Draw ... and practise saying ... .

A general outline for a daily plan for the junior sᵗage when pupils learn hearing, speaking, reading, and writing may look like this:
1. The beginning of the lesson 3—5 min.
2. Pronunciation drill 3—5 min.
3. Oral practice 15—20 min.

4. Reading 7—12 min.
5. Writing 3—8 min.
6. Homework 1 min.

The beginning of the lesson is used not only for the pupils to get ready for the lesson, but also for "free talk", of course within their ability to understand the language spoken and to speak it.

Pronunciation drill remains one of the main points of the lesson. Pupils are trained to pronounce sounds, phrases, sentences, rhymes. For example, *cat, map, cap, in the garden, on the skating-rink. Don't go home alone.*

> Father, mother, sister, brother
> Hand in hand with one another.

Pupils listen either to the teacher, or to the tape-recording or the record. They repeat the words, phrases and sentences in imitation of the teacher or the speaker individually and in chorus. Special attention is given to individuals. The teacher corrects mistakes, if there are any. Songs and poems may serve as material for pronunciation drill at this stage. If the teacher uses a song or a poem he explains briefly to the pupils in Russian what the song or the poem is about.

The teacher plays or sings the entire song once while the pupils listen. He reads or recites the poem to the class.

The teacher drills the lines to be taught. The lines are broken up into phrases and pronounced by the teacher in the rhythm in which they are to be sung or recited. The pupils repeat first in chorus and then individually. The teacher and pupils sing the song or recite the poem softly at first.

The teacher divides the class into groups and has each group sing or recite separately. Errors are immediately corrected.

Then the teacher calls on individuals to come up in front of the class to recite for the class or to sing; the latter can be suggested to volunteers only.

Pupils develop their hearing and speaking skills:

— when assimilating new words, phrases, and sentence patterns presented in performing drill and creative exercises (this is the case when oral language is used as a means of learning the language (see "Teaching Vocabulary" and "Teaching Grammar");

— when hearing and speaking in the English language in connection with the situations suggested (this is the case

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when the target language is used as a means of communication). The materials used for the purpose are: sentence patterns and words for substitution, pattern dialogues, pattern utterances related to the situations in which pupils can use them.

Pupils develop their reading skills:

— when reading aloud;

— when reading silently.

The materials used for the purpose are: exercises mostly with flash cards and texts in the textbooks, and supplementary readers (see "Teaching Reading").

Pupils develop their writing skills when assimilating the English graphic system (see "Writing") and performing various written exercises.

Homework should include reading, writing, and speaking and require approximately 20 minutes a day. Pupils need to be shown how to work at home. They should be cautioned against translation and be encouraged to read the text aloud, grouping the words in sense-groups; to read for meaning and sequence of ideas; to answer the questions given before or after the text; to compose questions on the text, and so on. Pupils should know that when copying words, phrases or sentences they should first read them aloud, look at them attentively and then write a whole word, a whole phrase, or a whole sentence. This will help them in learning the words and structures and in mastering English spelling.

Here is one of the possible approaches to compiling a daily plan.

L e v e l: 6th form.   Date ...

O b j e c t i v e s: 1. ....

                  2. ....

                  3. ....

1. The beginning of the lesson. (3—5 min.)

    A. Greeting.

    B. A short talk with a pupil on duty.

    C. A "free talk" about ...

    (The subject of "free talk" changes with the growth of vocabulary and grammar.)

2. Pronunciation drill. (3—5 min.)

    Material: sounds ....

            words ....

            word combinations ....

sentences ....

a rhyme (proverb, saying) ....

a poem ....

(The choice depends on the content of the lesson.)

Source: teacher, tape-recorder or record-player. (The choice depends on the material and conditions.) Activities: listening to the pattern, repeating it in unison and individually until adequate pronunciation is attained.

3. Oral practice. (15—20 min.)

V e r s i o n A

O b j e c t i v e: To teach pupils the words ... (or the grammar item ...) so that they can use them in speaking on sentence level.

Present the words ... in the following sentence patterns ... .

Use pictures ... , objects ... , real situations for conveying the meaning of ... , and translation for ... .

A c t i v i t i e s. Pupils perform the following exercises with the words presented:

(1) listen to the words, word combinations, and sentences and repeat them in chorus and individually;

(2) compose word combinations with the following old words ... .

(3) Answer the questions:

— Yes — No .....

— Special: What ... Where ... When ... etc.?

— Alternative ... or ... ?

(4) Ask questions with the new words.

(5) Make statements using the new words.

Use the pictures, objects and real situations utilized for presenting the material, and add some new ones ...

V e r s i o n B

O b j e c t i v e: To teach pupils to use the words presented at the previous lesson on utterance level.

A c t i v i t i e s. Pupils go through the following exercises:

(1) review the words by listening to the word combinations and sentences in which they occurred.

(2) make statements on the new pictures and objects

...

(3) combine the following two sentences into one ...

(4) say three-four sentences about the object (picture)

... ...

Use pictures, objects, real situations and tape-recording. Every pupil participates in oral practice.

Version C

O b j e c t i v e: To develop hearing and speaking skills on speech level on the material covered.

A c t i v i t i e s. Pupils

(1) say several sentences about the object every pupil has chosen and prepared at home (check five-seven individuals on their ability to speak about the object);

(2) aud story "..." from the record and answer the questions;

(3) aud it a second time and retell the story (pupils retell the story in a chain-like way first, and then two pupils give a summary of the story).

4. Reading. (7—12 min.)

Version A

O b j e c t i v e s: 1. To check five or six individuals on their ability to read aloud (control reading. Text "...")

2. To teach pupils silent reading on text "...".

A c t i v i t i e s. Pupils

(1) look through text "..." read at home;

(2) read this text aloud (call on 5—6 pupils in turn to read the text, the class follows their reading and corrects mistakes if any);

(3) read text "..." silently to be able to answer before-questions (explain what they should do and how to work at the text to understand it);

(4) answer the questions.

Version B

O b j e c t i v e: To teach pupils to read the words ..... (they have assimilated orally), sentences (in which they occur) and text "..." aloud.

A c t i v i t i e s. Pupils

(1) read the words aloud from flash cards (or from the textbook);

(2) read word combinations and sentences first silently, then aloud, ex. ... , p. ... ;

(3) read text "..." first silently, then aloud (give pupils time for looking through the reading material before they start reading aloud. Then they pass through diagnostic and instructive reading. Use the record for instructive reading. Pupils listen to the text with their books open and read it in a low voice. Then partially choral and individual reading follows).

5. Writing. (3—8 min.)

Version A

A c t i v i t y. Pupils write down the answers to the questions on the text.

Version B

A c t i v i t y. Pupils copy out topical sentences from the text they read silently.

Version C

O b j e c t i v e: To teach pupils to write the words ... (assimilated orally).

A c t i v i t y. Pupils copy the words and sentences from the blackboard. Ask pupils to spell the words ... and recollect other words which have similar and different spelling (chair — air, write — right).

Version D

O b j e c t i v e: To check pupils' ability to write the words ... .

A c t i v i t y. Pupils write a dictation. (Dictate the text from Teacher's Guide, p. ... .)

6. Homework (1 min.). Read ...;
write ex. ...;
compose 3—4 sentences about ... .

N o t e: The content of homework depends fully on the work done in the classroom.

Intermediate stage. This stage includes the 7th and the 8th forms. Pupils are thirteen and fourteen years old. They already have some experience in learning a foreign language. If pupils have had good achievements in language

learning, they are usually interested in the subject and work willingly both in class and at home. If their proficiency in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing is poor they begin to lose interest in the foreign language. Their desire to learn depends fully on the teacher's ability to involve each pupil in language activities during the lesson by asking questions which require thinking on the part of the learners, by presenting new facts that may be interesting to pupils, by stimulating their hearing and speaking with audio-visual materials which should not be too childish in form and content since pupils at this age think they are nearer to grown-ups than to children, and sometimes feel insulted when the teacher "dares" to use pictures or techniques he has used in the junior stage. In other words, they want to be treated as adults.

Pupils give preference to those exercises which require thinking on their part, therefore, the teacher should change the relationship between drill and creative exercises in favour of the latter. Since learning a foreign language requires drill, this must be provided through seatwork when each pupil learns for himself. The teacher's chief concern is to supply pupils with exercises, explain what and how they have to do these, provide time for solitary work, think of the proper techniques for checking and evaluating their work. At this stage most of the drill exercises can be done through mass work and work in pairs. The teacher wanders around the room while the pupils are involved in seatwork. As to creative exercises, they are to be performed under the direction of the teacher. To do an assignment pupils need a period of time for thinking after the task is set so the teacher must provide the necessary time.

Praising good work and encouragement are desirable since these stimulate the pupil's language activity and his desire to learn, whereas critisizing, constant interruptions for corrections, demands for repetition irritate pupils and make them dislike the subject.

In this stage pupils have three periods a week in the 7th form, and two in the 8th form. However they may have two more periods as an optional subject. The time allotted to learning a foreign language, including pupils' homework, should be evenly distributed between oral language and written language, and be in the ratio of 1 : 1. This means that half the time is spent on learning to speak, whereas the other half on learning to read and write in a foreign language.

Oral language is used both as a method of instruction and a means of communication as in the junior stage. As far as the material for developing auding and speaking is concerned, pattern dialogues, texts, and study guides should be more widely used. Moreover, oral exercises must be more communicative, therefore the teacher should seek ways for creating real, or close-to-real situations. When hearing is taught care must be taken that comprehension drills do not become exercises of memory and recall, except in cases when pupils have to memorize the material which is drilled.

The topical arrangement of linguistic material allows the teacher to extend the use of audio-visual aids and audio-visual materials including educational films. The teacher also turns to pupils' experience, and he may use it as a starting point for discussion. It has been proved that pupils lose their interest in a language that is presented to them by means of endless repetitions, pattern practices, various substitutions. Consequently, in the intermediate stage speech exercises should prevail. Pupils want to use the target language as a means of intercourse. The teacher should do his best to create the necessary conditions for their conversations. At this stage both forms of speech — dialogue and monologue — are developed with preference to unprepared speech.

In the intermediate stage reading becomes more important in language learning. The teacher develops pupils' skills and habits in oral reading. Individual and reading in chorus following the pattern should be used. Among the special exercises designed to teach reading, structural-information and semantic-communicative exercises should prevail. Much attention should be given to the development of pupils' skills in silent reading both during the class period and at home. Pupils should be taught to read texts containing various difficulties. The teacher instructs them how to work at the text, how to consult the vocabulary list at the end of the textbook and the dictionary, how to use explanatory notes to the text.

Writing is used both as a means of learning vocabulary and grammar and as a means of testing pupils' achievements in language learning. In this stage writing plays a great role in language learning; pupils perform many exercises in written form, including those which develop their skills in arranging and rearranging the material in their own way. Written exercises should be done mainly at home.

Much attention should be given to pupils' independent work in the classroom and at home because pupils, who have only 2—3 periods a week, can achieve proficiency in the target language if they work hard during seatwork and homework when every pupil learns for himself, and if they take an active part in the work which is done in class under the guidance of the teacher.

Homework is an important ingredient of pupils' language learning. It may include drill exercises designed for retention of new vocabulary and grammar performed orally or in written form; practice and learning of a dialogue or a story; oral composition based on vocabulary and structures acquired; reading aloud a paragraph, a few paragraphs or a short text; silent reading for obtaining information through various assignments accompanying the text; reading a new text; consulting a dictionary and so on. The amount of time necessary for homework should not exceed twenty-five minutes each day.

Proceeding from these considerations the teacher can succeed in achieving good results in pupils' learning the language if he thoroughly plans their behaviour in the classroom, how he and his pupils interact. A class should be "pupil dominated", that is, most of the time pupils speak and perform other language activities, thereby getting the lion's share of the lesson time for practice in the target language.

In compiling a unit and a daily plan the teacher follows the recommendations given in the Teacher's Book and takes into account the concrete conditions he has in the classroom.

Here is a general outline for a daily lesson (the 7—8th forms)ı

1. The beginning of the lesson 1—2 min.
2. Pronunciation drill 3—5 min.
3. Oral practice 15 min.
4. Reading 12—18 min.
5. Writing 4—10 min.
6. Homework 1—2 min.

At the beginning of the lesson the teacher sets the class to work. He has a short conversation with a pupil on duty, and announces the objectives of the lesson in the foreign language. (It is obvious that by this time pupils should understand the objectives said in the target language.)

Since teaching pronunciation should take place at every

stage, pronunciation drill is still one of the important points of the lesson. The material suggested for the purpose may be: words, mainly polysyllabic words, phrases, sentences, and songs. It is desirable that a tape-recorder or a record player should be utilized to provide pupils with some adequate model of speech. Through hearing authentic models and guided pronunciation work pupils impove their habits from lesson to lesson. Songs and poems are especially useful at this stage. In conducting pronunciation drill the teacher starts with words and proceeds to sentences in the following sequence: listening — comprehension — full choral repetition — individual repetition. Three to five minutes should be spent on pronunciation drill.

Oral practice is one of the essential points of the lesson. It implies presentation of the linguistic material (the oral approach to teaching vocabulary and grammar structures) and its retention in pupils' memory through performing various exercises; the development of pupils' habits and skills in using the material presented alongside of that already covered in guided dialogues and monologues; the development of prepared and unprepared speech on situations simple, unexpected and amusing, to keep the class lively and entertained. The teacher determines the objective and calculates the amount of time necessary to achieve it bearing in mind that he cannot afford more than fifteen to twenty minutes during the lesson, since there are other language skills that should be developed under his supervision.

Reading is another essential part of the lesson. The teacher should select the type of exercises in reading for each particular lesson, and decide whether he will give his pupils oral reading or silent reading for getting information from the text which can be achieved either through developing their skills in guessing the meaning of new words in the text or by using a dictionary (the 8th form).

Reading and speaking may be connected if the text pupils read is suitable for discussion or can serve as a subject for conversation.

Writing in the classroom at this stage may be used for fixing the vocabulary and grammar in the form available for their further usage by the pupils; for testing the pupil's mastery of the material covered; as a servant in the pupil's work at a text (the pupil finds topic sentences and copies them out; compiles a plan of the story, shortens the text by

excluding details and thus achieves better comprehension); to help the pupil with a conversation topic (the pupil puts down the words, phrases and sentences he needs to speak on the topic, or composes an outline of his speech). The teacher selects the type of writing proceeding from the objectives of the particular class-period. Eight to ten minutes of the class-period may be devoted to writing under the teacher's direction. But the use of classroom time for writing must be justified; pupils should not copy from the textbook or do exercises which can easily be done at home.

Homework, as a rule, should include the assignments which promote further development of habits and skills pupils have acquired during the lesson.

Here is one of the possible ways to represent a daily plan in the intermediate stage proceeding from the outline given above.

L e v e l: 8th form.   Date: ...

O b j e c t i v e s: 1. ...

                    2. ...

                    3. ...

1. The beginning of the lesson. (1—2 min.)

    Greeting.

    A pupil's on duty report.

2. Pronunciation drill. (3—5 min.)

    Words ...

    Word combinations ...

    Sentences ...

    Song "..."

3. Oral practice.

<div align="center">V e r s i o n A</div>

O b j e c t i v e: To teach pupils the grammar item ... so that they can use it in hearing and speaking in short dialogues.

Present ... in the following sentences ... .

Use real situations for conveying the meaning and the usage of ... and pattern dialogue ... ... from the record (tape).

A c t i v i t i e s. Pupils

(1) listen to the sentences with the new grammar item and relate them to the situations in which they are utilized;

(2) repeat the sentences following the model pronunciation (full choral repetition and individual repetition);

(3) listen to the pattern dialogue;

(4) reproduce the pattern dialogue in imitation of the speaker;

(5) dramatize the dialogue (work in pairs);

(6) substitute ... words in the pattern dialogue;

(7) make up dialogues of their own (work in pairs) (call on two or three pairs to enact the dialogues).

Version B

Objective: To teach pupils to speak on the topic ... .

Activities. Pupils

(1) listen to the text looking at the plan (the map);

(2) answer the questions on the text heard;

(3) speak about ... using the plan (the map);

(4) have a conversation about ... .

Use the plan (the map) of ... , the record player (the tape-recorder).

Version C

Objective: To develop pupils' speaking skills on text "..." (home reading).

Activities. Pupils

(1) speak about the main characters of the story;

(2) give a summary of the story;

(3) express their own opinion about different problems touched upon in the story.

Use cards with assignments for individuals.

4. Reading. (12—18 min.)

Version A

Objective: To teach pupils oral reading on text "..." (2 paragraphs).

Activities. Pupils

(1) read the words from the blackboard;

(2) read the sentences, ex. ... p. ... ;

(3) read the text first silently and answer the questions on the contents of the paragraphs and then read it aloud.

Use the blackboard, the textbook p. ... and the tape-recorder (the record player).

Version B

O b j e c t i v e: To teach pupils to consult the dictionary while reading text "...".

A c t i v i t i e s. Pupils

(1) review the alphabet;

(2) read the title and anticipate the contents of the text;

- (3) read silently one or two paragraphs to be sure whether the anticipation is right or wrong;

(4) read the whole text silently;

(5) read sentence by sentence looking up unfamiliar words in the dictionary;

(6) give adequate translation of the text.

Use dictionaries.

Version C

O b j e c t i v e: To teach pupils to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words in text "...".

A c t i v i t i es. Pupils

(1) listen to the teacher's explanations how to attack the meaning of unfamiliar words through (a) the context, (b) word-building elements, (c) mother tongue equivalents (international words);

(2) read the sentences (paragraphs) in the text "..." (the teacher points out) searching for the examples;

(3) read the text silently marking the words whose meaning they guessed;

(4) answer the questions on the text.

5. Writing. (4—10 min.)

Version A

A c t i v i t y. Pupils write the words and expressions on the topic ... .

Version B

A c t i v i t y. Pupils do ex. ... , p. ... (make various transformations to fit new situations).

Version C

A c t i v i t y. Pupils compose a plan on the story heard (read).

Version D

Activity. Pupils write an annotation on the text.

Version E

Activity. Pupils write a test.

6. Homework (1—2 min.)
Read ...
Write ...
Be ready to speak on ...

Senior stage. This stage involves the 9th and 10th forms. Pupils are at the age of fifteen to seventeen. They can realize the importance of foreign language proficiency in the contemporary world. However their attitude to foreign language learning depends firstly on the achievements they have attained during the previous four years of studying this subject (if they meet the syllabus requirements, pupils preserve their interest in the foreign language and go on working hard at it); secondly, on the pupil's needs in the target language in his long-term goals for the future after finishing school, whether his needs require a command of the foreign language or they do not. If they require it, he works hard.

In this stage the emphasis in foreign language teaching changes from equal treatment of oral and written language to noticeable preference to reading. The time allotted to foreign language learning should be distributed between oral language and written language including both class and homework in the ratio of 1 : 3, i. e., most of the time is devoted to reading, and mainly silent reading with various assignments which make pupils read with a purpose in mind. As to oral language, it undergoes further development through performing various drill and speech exercises in hearing and speaking, most of which are based upon reading material.

Writing retains its helping function; the pupil turns to writing whenever he feels a need for fixing the material in his memory, for composing questions or plans, for writing a short composition on the topic covered, etc.

Ideally, the classroom time should be devoted to imparting the techniques pupils need for seatwork or any kind of solitary learning, for creative exercises where the teacher's supervision and direction are indispensable and, occasionally, for

checking and evaluating pupils' achievements in language learning.

In this stage pupils have two periods a week in each form and they may have two additional periods as an optional subject.

Taking into consideration pupils' age, the stage of instruction, the conditions of foreign language learning, and the material pupils deal with, it is desirable that lessons should be at least of two types — speaking lessons and reading lessons — so that the learners may concentrate their attention on one language activity and work at it thoroughly. Proceeding from this the following general outlines may be suggested.

The general outline of a speaking lesson may look like this:

1. The beginning of the lesson 1—2 min.
2. Pronunciation drill 4—5 min.
3. Oral practice 37—39 min.
   a) drill exercises (10—15 min.)
   b) speech exercises (24—27 min.)
4. Homework 1—2 min.

The teacher announces the objectives of the lesson and sets the class to work seriously to achieve them.

The material for pronunciation drill ·is closely bound up with the objectives of the lesson; pupils are taught to pronounce correctly the words, phrases, sentence patterns they will need for performing drill and speech exercises on the topic or subject for auding and speaking during the lesson. The work is conducted in chorus and individually. The teacher gives due attention to every pupil and correct errors when they occur.

Oral practice, in the first part (drill exercises), implies revision and presentation of the new material (words, phrases, idioms) pupils need to aud and speak on the topic. They may write something in their exercise-books if necessary. Pupils perform various exercises aimed at developing their hearing and speaking habits and skills. Drills are performed at a normal speed. They are quite indispensable.

In the second part (speech exercises) pupils either listen to a story and then use it as a subject for conversation, or see a filmstrip or a film with subsequent discussion.

The teacher uses those teaching aids and teaching materials which allow him to involve each pupil and make him an active participant of the lesson. The success of speaking

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lessons fully depends on the teacher's preparation for the lesson because the pupil needs to be guided cautiously through the difficulties he usually encounters when hearing and speaking the target language. To achieve the desired learning on the part of the pupils the teacher should foresee these difficulties and select carefully the material for revision, the techniques more suitable for the case, the "props" in hearing and speaking and, finally, the stimuli, first, for guided conversation when pupils use "props", and then free conversation.

Homework may include:

— writing a short reproduction of the text they heard and discussed during the class period;

— making up a dialogue;

— making up a story on a picture, a topic either in writing or orally, etc.

The general outline of reading lessons may look like this:

1. The beginning of the lesson 1—2 min.
2. Pronunciation drill 3—5 min.
3. Teacher's narration, for instance, about the author who wrote the text, or the book from which the text was extracted 3—5 min.
4. Pupils' silent reading 15—20 min.
5. A discussion on the text read 11—22 min.
6. Homework 1—2 min.

After the teacher sets the class to work he draws their attention to the words, phrases and sentences of the text which may present some difficulties in pronunciation, namely, stress in some words, stressed words in some phrases and word combinations, proper names, geographical names, terminology, international words, correct division into thought units, and intonation in some sentences which may influence the pupils' comprehension. Word cards, phrase and sentence cards are helpful because pupils should not only hear but see all these.

Teacher's narration about the author should include some information additional to that given in the textbook or the reader.

In all cases, it must help pupils in comprehending the text by extending their knowledge of the subject.

When pupils are invited to read a text silently, they are to follow a certain sequence in their work at the text. They

should read the title and accordingly try to make a guess at its contents. Then they look through the text and read the first paragraph to make sure whether their anticipation is correct. The teacher may interfere in pupils' reading by asking a few questions and, in this way, show them whether they are right or wrong in their anticipation. The teacher directs his questions to slow, average, and bright pupils, in the order mentioned, to encourage all pupils in their work at the text. After pupils' anticipation is reinforced they read the text while the teacher wanders around giving some help to those who need it, or he writes communicative tasks (if there are no such tasks in the textbook or the reader) on the blackboard to start a discussion (see Chapter VIII).

If the teacher wants to individualize the classwork, he may use individual cards which he places in front of each pupil. In distributing the cards he, of course, proceeds from each pupil's aptitude, intelligence and proficiency in reading and speaking so that everyone will be engaged in the discussion.

Before the discussion begins the teacher asks a few questions which cover the contents of the text to check his pupils' comprehension, or he may use other techniques for the same purpose. Then the discussion follows. The teacher only directs the pupils' participation.

Homework may include a short summary of the text in writing, a written annotation of the text, etc.

Silent reading in the classroom is also used for developing pupils' skills in reading a text which requires the use of a dictionary or a manual for comprehension. The teacher furnishes the class with dictionaries and manuals and instructs them how to utilize these while reading a difficult text. The teacher's chief concern in this case is not his pupils' understanding the text. His concern lies in imparting techniques to them which they should acquire to be able to overcome difficulties while reading a text containing unfamiliar words or phraseological units and grammar forms. For instance, pupils have learnt the Present and Past Indefinite Passive, the text contains the Future Indefinite Passive, they have to find the "generalized" table of the verb in the Passive Voice in the textbook or grammar and look up this form there to be able to understand the sentences with verbs in this tense form. In other words, pupils should be taught to work at a difficult text in the classroom under the teacher's supervision for them to be able to do similar work at home independently.

There is another approach to differentiating lessons in the senior stage. For example, the authors of the book[1] distinguish lessons of two types: (1) lessons at which pupils are taught how to use sentence patterns and vocabulary in various situations and contexts; the objective of such lessons is to enrich pupils' knowledge in grammar and vocabulary, and to develop their habits and skills in using all these in various exercises; (2) lessons at which pupils develop their language skills in reading and speaking (both monologue and dialogue), and in writing. The objective of these lessons is close interrelation of all the language skills pupils should acquire.

A few words should be said about pupils' independent work at the language both in class and at home. Thus,

(a) in class pupils:

— can learn a rule from the textbook if there is such (i. e., the teacher need not retell the rule as is so often done instead of asking his pupils to read it to perform exercises on a conscious ground);

— can consult a dictionary, read lexical and other commentaries, if there are any in the textbook or the reader, perform lexical exercises;

— listen to a text in English and give a short reproduction either in English or in Russian;

— watch a film-strip or a film, and give a summary;

— read a text silently and write an annotation, or a plan;

— read a text and translate it using a dictionary; etc.

(b) at home pupils:

— learn words, phrases, sentence patterns, grammar items while performing oral and written exercises;

— learn a song, a poem, a pattern dialogue by heart;

— read a text (a part of it) out loud;

— read a text silently and do all kinds of work with the text;

— prepare a topic to speak on;

— make up a dialogue; etc.

Success in learning English will depend on how much the pupil learns for himself both during the lesson and at home, and that is the chief concern of the teacher while planning a lesson.

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[1] Курс обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. Под ред. проф. В. С. Цетлин. М., 1971, с. 155—157.

Recommended Literature:

Андреевская-Левенстерн Л. С. О преподавании иностранного языка на разных ступенях обучения в школе. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1974, № 3.

Предисловие к книге для учителя к учебникам V класса.

Рогова Г. В. Вопросы организации обучения иностранным языкам в старших классах. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1965, № 5.

Гез Н. И., Фоломкина С. К. Организация и планирование работы в старших классах. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1966, № 4.

Беседы об уроке иностранного языка. Авт.: Пассов Е. И., Колова Т. И., Волкова Т. А. и др. Л., „Просвещение", 1975. (Беседы девятая и десятая.)

Курс обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. Под ред. проф. В. С. Цетлин. М., 1971, с. 155—157.

Рогова Г. В. О речи учителя на уроке. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1964, № 5.

Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. Под ред. А. А. Миролюбова, И. В. Рахманова, В. С. Цетлин. М., 1967, гл. X.

Teacher's Books and Pupil's Books by choice.

Якушина Л. З. Методика построения урока в средней школе. М., „Педагогика", 1974, гл. III.

Questions for Discussion:

1. The teacher should change teaching techniques and teaching materials depending on the stage of instruction. State what factors he is to take into consideration. Give some examples to prove your statements.

2. Pupils sometimes lose their interest in language learning. State the reasons and make some suggestions for avoiding this.

Activities:

1. Compare two plans of the first lesson for beginners (the 5th form) in two Teacher's Books by different authors. Compile your own plan of the first lesson for beginners.

2. Compile a plan of your first lesson in the intermediate stage.

3. Compile a plan of your first lesson in the senior stage.

Chapter XIV

Optional Course

THE AIMS OF THE OPTIONAL COURSE

In 1967 a new curriculum for ten-year schools was adopted. The curriculum includes both compulsory subjects and optional ones (or subjects of special interest field) for those pupils who show a great interest in learning some subjects. Each school leaver gets uniform education and at the same time has an opportunity to get a profound knowledge in the subject or subjects he is interested in. For example, if a learner displays a special interest in chemistry or in biology, or in mathematics, he may have additional lessons in the subject. If some of the pupils are fond of literature, or history, or a foreign language, they may join the group that will have extra hours for studying the subject they are interested in. The fact that the curriculum includes optional courses is of great importance. On the one hand, optional subjects will help teachers to see pupils' interests and gifts, on the other hand, they will ensure better achievements of graduates for entering a higher school. Indeed, if a pupil, for instance, wants to become a physicist, he joins a group which will have extra lessons in physics. Learning the subject in this way for three years running the pupil can get a profound knowledge of physics.

If a pupil is fond of a foreign language and he wants to have a good command of the language the optional course will help him to attain the goal.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE OPTIONAL COURSE

The organization of the optional course in a foreign language differs greatly from that of other subjects since learning a foreign language is carried on in accordance with a uniform syllabus which includes both the essential and the optional courses, special groups of no less than 15 pupils being organized. This principle of organization of the optional course in a foreign language should be considered a most reasonable one since consistent and effective acquisition of knowledge and the development of speech habits on the part

of the learners are ensured. Besides, it becomes possible to divide the class into two groups which is usually done for foreign language lessons. State expenditure on the optional course is within the school budget. For instance:

Forms	Amount of pupils	English Learning Groups				Periods	
		essential	optional	essential	optional	in ordinary group	in optional group
8a	40	20	20	1	1	2	4
8b	40	25	15	1	1	2	4
8c	40	23	17	1	1	2	4
8d	40	21	19	1	1	2	4

In a case like this the school must pay for 24 class hours of the essential course and for 8 class hours of the optional course; that makes 24 class periods. This is the amount of class periods that should be covered by the school budget, as the majority of pupils in each class forms a group for optional studies, the rest forming another group for essential lessons only.

It is difficult to organize the optional course in the foreign language if there are few pupils in each group who are enrolled for learning a foreign language as an optional subject. For example:

Forms	Amount of pupils	English Learning Groups				Periods	
		essential	optional	essential	optional	in ordinary group	in optional group
8a	40	24	16	1	1	2	4
8b	35	30	5	2	—	4	—
8c	38	32	6	2	—	4	—
8d	40	28	12	2	—	4	—
				7	1	14	4

In a case like this it is impossible to organize additional groups, as the rest of the pupils should be divided into two groups (30: 2; 32: 2, etc.). It is necessary that special optional courses should be organized for pupils who can attend them after classes.

Pupils who want to join the optional course in the foreign language may do so beginning with the 8th form, therefore, optional groups may be arranged in the 8, 9, 10th forms. If pupils join the optional course in the 8th form they learn a foreign language for three years. Those who join it in the 9th form learn it for two years and those who join it in the 10th form learn it as an optional subject for a year. In future pupils will be allowed to join the optional course for learning a second foreign language if they succeed in mastering the first one, and have a desire to know one more foreign language.

The optional course in a foreign language is undertaken voluntarily. It is desirable, however, that those enrolled should be well prepared for such a course. If a pupil makes slow progress in a foreign language in the essential course he must not join the optional group. The optional course in a foreign language should be recommended only to those who are not only interested in the subject but make good progress in it and have a certain aptitude for foreign languages. Pupils who wish to take the optional course in a foreign language should be enrolled at the end of the school year before they are dismissed for summer holidays. Having done this the staff forms groups and determines the teachers for these groups.

Since the optional course is not an essential one but a course taken voluntarily by the learners, it is necessary to dwell upon the conditions under which a desire to learn the language thoroughly might appear.

Firstly, such desire may develop when pupils make progress in the foreign language in the essential course, when they feel that learning the language is not a waste of time. They realize, that if they had more time for learning the language they would read and speak it much better, though they do not display a special interest in it. For example, a boy is interested in electronics. He knows there is a lot of interesting English literature in the field. So he will try to do his best to enroll in order to be able to read what he wants.

Secondly, such desire may appear when a pupil is fond of the language, when it becomes his hobby. In this case he will look for any chance to learn a foreign language: essential, optional courses, reading with and without a dictionary, listening to the radio, watching TV, speaking to foreigners, etc.

Thirdly, such desire may appear when a pupil himself, or under the influence of his parents, decides to enter a special college, in other words, when he wants to make it his profession.

There are, of course, other motives which stimulate pupils' wish to learn the foreign language as an optional subject.

The optional course in a foreign language is possible provided there is a highly qualified teacher who can arouse his pupils' interest, foster a desire to learn, and encourage his pupils' love of independent work at the language.

Unfortunately, a foreign language as an optional subject is not popular among pupils. This proves that pupils see little value in their class and home work in the foreign language. The main reason is lack of highly qualified teachers who can teach a foreign language effectively.

THE CONTENT OF THE OPTIONAL COURSE

The content of the optional course should be hearing, speaking, and reading. Spoken language should be used for enriching pupils' vocabulary and grammar knowledge and as a means of communication• in a foreign language. This approach to the problem determines the organization and methods of teaching.

1. Various oral exercises for consolidation and assimilation of linguistic material must be extensively used.

2. Every pupil should be an active participant of the lesson.

3. The reasonable distribution of time within the class period between the teacher and pupils should be observed.

4. The use of various stimuli: visual and audio and their combinations to stimulate pupils' speech activity are a must.

Reading, as well as spoken language, should be extensively used both as a means of teaching and as a means of getting information. Reading must be the essence of pupils'

independent work at home and during the lesson. In order to develop the skill of reading, one ingredient is important — interest. "Where there is interest, there can be speed, accuracy and improvement in reading efficiency; without it all will suffer. Indeed, without interest, success perhaps is unobtainable. Interest is all-important because understanding and imagining are more active where there is true interest. In fact, they become fully active when interest is aroused." [1]

It is the teacher who can arouse interest in reading; he can recommend texts suitable to the tastes and abilities of every pupil. That is why it is desirable that texts for reading should be of two kinds: essential for the whole group and optional for individuals depending on their interest and aptitude. The reading of texts essential for the whole group should be closely connected with development of speaking skills. Various tasks may be given to direct pupils' speech on the one hand, and to make pupils use the words, phraseological groups, and grammar items the teacher chooses, on the other hand. This will help pupils assimilate the vocabulary and enrich it. Questions on the text should not be connected with the contents of the text, such as *who, what, when,* and *where*-questions. If everyone has read the text such questions are nonsensical. Questions should draw pupils' attention to something they would be unable to grasp for themselves or might interpret differently, and make them express their opinion on the subject. These are *why-, what for-, what would you do if you were*-questions.

Pupils should be taught (a) to annotate what they read (e. g., they read an article from a newspaper; the task is to write an annotation, that is to furnish it with notes explaining the contents of the article and giving opinions of their own); (b) to give a short summary of the text they have read (e. g., pupils read a text of 2—3 pages and give a summary of 8—10 lines in writing or in a few sentences orally); (c) write an essay (e. g., pupils read 2—3 texts about space flights, they are told to write an essay on the subject).

Individual reading should be conducted differently. This kind of reading allows the teacher to develop various types of reading; skimming or rapid silent reading, searching or

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[1] *Gurrey P.* Teaching English as a Second Language. Longmans, London, 1963, p. 113—114.

detailed reading, reading for pleasure (F. French) and in the direction pupils desire or pupils need. Individual reading may also be used for developing speech, namely, for developing hearing. A pupil tells his classmates what he has read about. The information pupils get may be used as a stimulus for a talk between Pupil and Class, and for discussion.

To teach reading successfully the following rules should be observed:

1. The teacher must be well acquainted with the class to be able to select texts both for the whole class and for individual reading.

2. He must stimulate wide reading through the School Library, or by working up a small Form Library.

3. He must prepare assignments to direct pupils' reading.

4. The teacher must determine what and how much pupils should read (obligatory and of their own choice).

5. The teacher must think over the methods and techniques he will use while working at the text: what should be read in class and what at home.

6. He should think over the tests for checking pupils' reading.

As to the methods and techniques of teaching vocabulary, grammar, and phonetics, as well as speaking, hearing, reading, and writing, they are similar to those used in the teaching of a foreign language as an obligatory subject.

Since 1970 a foreign language has become an optional subject in evening schools. There is a special syllabus [1] and textbooks [2] for the purpose.

Recommended Literature:

Программа факультативных курсов. Для восьмилетней школы. М., „Просвещение", 1969, с. 44—62.

Программы факультативных курсов. Для средней школы. М., „Просвещение", 1972.

Шемарулина Л. А. Факультатив в школе; Островский Б. С. Учебное пособие для факультативных занятий по английскому языку в VIII классе. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1975, № 3.

Стрезикозин В. П. Некоторые вопросы факультативной подготовки учащихся. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1968, № 3.

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[1] Программы вечерней (сменной) средней общеобразовательной школы. М., „Просвещение", 1970.

[2] См., например: Слободчиков А. А. Учебник английского языка для вечерней школы. М., „Просвещение", 1973.

Островский Б. С. Пособие для факультативных занятий по английскому языку в VIII классе средней школы. М., 1975.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Success in the organization of the optional course is fully in the hands of the teacher. Do you agree? Support your answer with some arguments for or against this statement.

2. Should methods and teaching techniques in foreign language instruction as the optional subject differ greatly from those used for the essential course or should they be the same? Express your opinion on the problem.

Activities:

1. Read and compare several articles on the teaching of a foreign language as an optional subject.

2. Prepare a short report on the use of the optional course in one of the local schools.

Chapter XV

Extra-Curricular Work

Extra-curricular work in foreign languages becomes more and more popular. This work is carried out both in town and village schools. Various books and articles on the subject recently published are a proof of the popularity of this work among foreign language teachers and its importance in attaining the aims and objectives set by the syllabus. [1] However there are many schools where teachers either do not carry out extra-curricular work at all, or do it occasionally and monotonously. They probably think that work of this kind is not obligatory; it is just additional, therefore they may do it only if time permits. These teachers do not realize that their

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[1] See: „Иностранные языки в школе", раздел „Внеклассная работа" и Приложение; *Рожкова Ф. М.* English for Enjoyment. М., 1968; *Вятют-нев М. Н., Рогова Г. В.* Английский диалог в картинках. М., 1967; *Дубро-вин М.* The Everyday English Almanac for Boys and Girls. Для учащихся восьмилетней школы. М., 1966; Для IX класса. М., 1966; Для X класса. М., 1966; *Бурлакова А. П.* Увлекательный досуг. М., 1959; One Act Plays. Сборник. Сост. Н. Г. Снесарева. М., 1962; и др.

success in foreign language teaching depends to a great extent on what interest they can evoke in their pupils.

Practice proves that extra-curricular work helps the teacher to promote greater interest in learning the language. It is necessary to bear in mind that extra-curricular work in our schools must be an integral part of the educational process. It is a mistake, therefore, to consider this work as optional, additional.

THE ROLE OF EXTRA-CURRICULAR WORK IN LANGUAGE LEARNING IN SCHOOL

At present the Soviet Union is extending its international, economic, political, scientific, and cultural ties. The practical knowledge of foreign languages becomes therefore a necessity. Thus, the aims of foreign language teaching in schools are to develop pupils' ability to speak and read in a foreign language. The curriculum emphasizes it. It is obvious that extra-curricular work is of great importance under such conditions: it gives an opportunity to create a language atmosphere for pupils; besides, pupils consider the language not as a school subject but as a means of communication, they use it to understand or to be understood in a situation where only English could be used, for example, when corresponding with children of foreign countries, meeting a foreign delegation, seeing sound films in the English language, listening to English songs, issuing school wall-newspapers, etc. Extra-curricular work helps the teacher to stimulate his pupils' interest in the target language. The language becomes alive to them. Extra-curricular work is of great educational value. The teacher can give his pupils a broader knowledge in geography, history, literature and art of the English-speaking countries.

Finally, extra-curricular work in a foreign language helps the teacher in fostering proletarian internationalism. Correspondence with the children of foreign countries provides the fulfilment of this task to a certain extent.

The experience of the best school teachers proves that extra-curricular work can be of great value and it is helpful in all respects if it is carefully organized, the material is thoroughly selected, and if the teacher can encourage his pupils to work hard at the target language by using modern methods and techniques of teaching.

HOW TO ORGANIZE EXTRA-CURRICULAR WORK
IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

In organizing non-class activities for pupils the teacher should bear in mind that work of this type differs greatly from that carried out during the class period both in form and content, though it is closely connected with it. Indeed, the class-work must prepare pupils for non-class activities. For example, during the lessons pupils in the 5th, 6th forms assimilate the following sentence patterns.

Give me (him, her, us) ... a ... .
Take ...! Have you ...? Is it a ...?
Has he (she) ...?

During extra-curricular work the teacher suggests the pupils should play lotto or a guessing game where these sentence patterns are needed.

Extra-curricular work is voluntary. However, for those who wish to take part in this work it becomes obligatory. Since through extra-curricular work the teacher can raise the level of the pupils' command of the language in general, it is bad practice to draw only the best, bright pupils into the work, as some of the methodologists and teachers recommend. No marks are given to the participants for non-class activities, although the teacher keeps a careful record of the work done by each of them. The results of extra-curricular work done can be evaluated when the school holds contests, pioneer assemblies, reviews of wall-newspapers, amateur art reviews, pleasure parties, etc., in the foreign language.

Since extra-curricular work is voluntary and based upon pupils' activity, initiative and creativeness, the Young Pioneer and Young Communist League Organizations should render help to the teacher to carry out this work. The teacher recommends various kinds of non-class activities to his pupils, selects the material and elaborates methods and techniques as to how this or that work should be carried out. The Young Pioneer and Young Communist League Organizations choose participants in accordance with their aptitude, and keep a record of the work done. Extra-curricular work may be closely connected with the work of the Young Pioneer Unit. It cannot be fulfilled, however, within the framework of the Unit only.

Since extra-curricular work is voluntary and based on active and creative work of school organizations and individual pupils, when organizing non-class activities the teacher ought to take into consideration the fact that the motive for the activities is the interest the teacher stimulates in his pupils for learning the language both during class-periods and extra-curricular work.

It is quite obvious the teacher may succeed in promoting greater interest for studying the language provided he works skilfully in class, explaining new material in a clear and comprehensive way, using various methods and devices to make his pupils active and interested in the work done, applying audio-visual aids, preparing exercises which give the pupils satisfaction of a job well done, making them feel their own progress in the target language after every lesson.

In carrying out extra-curricular work various forms should be used so that the majority of the class is able to take part in it. The following forms of extra-curricular work are used at schools: individual, group and mass work.

Group work includes: (1) 'hobby' groups that work systematically; they are: play and game sections, chorus section, conversation section, reading and translation hobby groups, drama section, literature and art sections; (2) groups for temporary activities, namely to make up an album, to make a display-stand or a bookstand with English books and booklets, to illustrate a story read, to organize a school library, etc.

Mass work includes: the organization and holding of a pioneer assembly in the foreign language; talks in that language; pleasure parties, conferences, olympiads and contests, excursions to films in a foreign language with following discussion; dramatization of the stories read; holding of guessing games; issuing wall-newspapers; making up school display-stands, etc. One of the most entertaining types of mass work that wins more and more popularity among pupils is club work. The foreign language club gives an opportunity to have natural situations for communication in the foreign language. The work of the club may contribute to international friendship among young people, as one of the main activities of the members of the club is establishing contacts with foreign friends, mainly through correspondence. Sometimes guests from foreign countries may

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be invited to view performances of the club, in which case direct association with foreigners is established. Club work is varied in form and content. The work of English clubs is described in „Иностранные языки в школе" and some other journals.

The club work of one of the Moscow schools is a good example. Many pupils of the school took part in the club work. They worked in different sections, for example, the section of philatelists which made interesting stamp albums, or the section of young naturalists, who got different seeds from remote corners of the world. Its members grew flowers in the flower-beds of the schoolgarden.

Unfortunately there are but few clubs in our schools. Teachers underestimate this mass work in foreign languages, and do not realize that work of this kind is of great educational and practical value.

To organize both class and non-class activities of pupils properly it is necessary to have a special classroom for the study of the foreign language. The classroom must be decorated with portraits of revolutionaries, writers, poets, artists, composers, and other outstanding people of the countries whose language the pupils study. Decorations should be regularly changed, otherwise pupils get used to them and no longer notice them. Besides, changing decorations will help teachers to mark current events in life (e. g., centenary of some writer, scientist, or the visit of a prominent government leader to our country). The room must be equipped with modern technical aids, such as a tape-recorder, an opaque projector, a film strip projector, a film projector, etc., and a set of slides, tapes, films, film-strips. The teachers should regularly enrich this stock. A map of the country whose language we study should be a permanent visual aid in class. There must be a book-case in the room with books in foreign languages, the stock of books being regularly increased, too. There must be various visual aids such as lotto, dominoes and other games in the room. To crown it all, a notice-board which shows pupils' activities must be hung there. On the notice-board one might find lists of pupils engaged in sections, non-class activity programmes in the foreign language, hobby group work schedule, lists of recommended literature for independent reading.

THE CONTENT OF EXTRA-CURRICULAR WORK
AND HOW TO CONDUCT IT

The content of extra-curricular work is determined by the tasks set for each form by the syllabus, pupils' interests and their age characteristics. For example, after the pupils have assimilated the linguistic material of lesson 4 (A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon) of the text-book for the 6th form, during non-class activities the pupils are told to use those words and sentence patterns they have assimilated in a talk during tea. Some of the girls are told to lay the table.

The pupils have learned the following words:

. 1) tea, milk, water;
2) bread, butter, apples, sugar, salt, pepper, fish, meat, soup;
3) lay the table, be ready, pass, prepare, serve, have breakfast, have tea, have dinner, for breakfast, pour, spread (the table-cloth), wash, clean, help, put, please, thank you;
4) spoon, fork, knife (knives), plate, dish, saucer, cup.

The following words may be added:

1) coffee, cocoa;
2) sweets, gruel, sausage, cake;
3) brown, white (bread);
4) clear (the table), wash (dishes).
Help yourself. Not at all. Don't mention it.

The following conversation may take place:

1. *While the girls are laying the table*

— Get some bread and put it on the table, please.
— What bread shall I get?
— The white bread.
— We have white bread. We do not like to have brown bread for breakfast. We have it for dinner.
— Now get some butter and sugar and put them on the table, too.
— Where is the sugar-basin?
— I don't know.
— Oh, I see the sugar-basin there with sugar in it.
— Is the tea ready?
— Yes, it is.

— Do we have milk on the table?
— Yes, we do.

The girls ask the teacher and the children to take their seats at the table.

— Take your seats, please. Everything is ready.

2. At table

— Do you prefer tea or milk?
— I like milk better.
— As for me, I don't like milk. I like coffee.
— Do you like sugar in your milk?
— No, I don't like sugar in my milk.
— Which do you like better, fish or meat?
— I like fish. And you, N.?
— I like meat better.
— Give me some bread, please.
— Here you are.
— Thank you.
— Not at all.

The material covered and that which has been introduced is reviewed and learned beforehand.

In the 8th form, after the pupils have learned the linguistic material of "Great Britain", the following work may be done. It may be connected with travelling about the country. The map of Great Britain should be used on this occasion, but not the one that was used during the lesson. The work should be done so that it permits the pupils to broaden their knowledge in geography and learn some additional words and expressions. They may travel by air and sea, by train and by car or bus, and even on foot.

In the 9th form the text "London" gives pupils an opportunity to learn and become familiar with the map of London, its places of interest, its monuments, great people who lived there, etc. There are slides, film-strips, post-cards, and films about London which are to be used to foster pupils' interest.

Texts dealing with the life and deeds of outstanding people should be used for deepening pupils' knowledge and developing their interest in language learning. Here are some examples which illustrate the use of such forms of work as round table conferences. [1]

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[1] The examples were borrowed from the lectures delivered by E. V. Gorokchova in the Latvian State University named after P. Stuchka.

An extremely valuable round-table conference on the theme "How V. I. Lenin Studied Foreign Languages" was arranged in one of the secondary schools of Riga. V. I. Lenin's experience in studying Russian, Old Slavonic, Latin, Greek, German, French, Ukrainian, English, Italian, Polish, Dutch, Swedish, Czech, Finnish and Bulgarian was discussed by the pupils of the 9th form and could not but encourage the pupils to study languages.

A similar conference on the theme "V. I. Lenin Abroad" was arranged in the 10th forms of the same school. The conference was arranged as follows: nine "delegations" from various countries occupied their seats around a nicely decorated table. In front of each delegation was a small flag of the respective country and the name of this country: USSR, Great Britain, Poland, Finland, Germany, France, Switzerland, Czechoslovakia and the flag of the Latvian SSR. The delegates spoke Russian, Latvian, German, English, French, Czech, Polish, and Finnish. Some interpretors were also present. The actual air of an international gathering pervaded the hall. The pupils had prepared their speeches in the given languages carefully and the participants were most attentive when their classmates began to speak an unfamiliar language.

A third example, illustrating the injected international character of foreign language teaching dealt with Rockwell Kent. A press conference on the theme "Rockwell Kent's gift to the Soviet Union" took place in the 10th form. The purpose of choosing this type of lesson was to excite the pupils' interest in learning English. The process of the lesson can be described as follows. At the beginning of the lesson a tape-recorder was switched on and a noise peculiar to such gatherings filled the classroom.

Teacher: We are present at a press conference organized by the Ministry of Culture of the USSR. Some American correspondents have been invited to this conference.

Chairman: This press conference is dedicated to Rockwell Kent. My task is to announce the news of his gift to the Soviet people. The famous American artist and author R. Kent was a great fighter for peace, a great friend of the Soviet Union. He died on March 12, 1971, at the age of 88. Long before his death R. Kent present-

ed a large collection of his paintings, drawings, and books to the Soviet Union.

S e c r e t a r y: Some years ago there was an exhibition of R. Kent's paintings in the Soviet Union. The pictures were exhibited in many cities and everywhere the people showed great interest in them. R. Kent's books have been translated into Russian and Latvian. Now you will see some illustrations to the Latvian translation of his book "Skarba pirmatniba". (The pictures were projected on a screen.)

A participant of the conference: For R. Kent painting was a means of communication, a form of speech. He met understanding and friendship in our country. R. Kent said: "Art belongs to those who love it most, and I want the Soviet people to have all my life's work."

A participant of the conference: Why has R. Kent not presented his paintings to the American people? Why didn't he ask an American museum to take his pictures?

A progressive American correspondent: Several years ago he asked the Farnsworth Museum in Rockland to take his collection. The director of the museum said they would be glad to receive such a wonderful collection. But soon after that R. Kent was asked to Washington by the McCarthy Committee where he was questioned about his political views. He refused to answer the questions. Immediately after this event the museum refused to take his pictures.

C h a i r m a n: Why did the American museum refuse to take R. Kent's collection?

A reactionary American correspondent: I am a correspondent of the *New York Times*. I express the opinion of the ruling classes of our country. R. Kent visited the Soviet Union and found many friends there. He supported the communist ideology. He has presented many paintings to Soviet Russia. But who cares?

C h a i r m a n: A correspondent of the progressive magazine *New World Review* wants to answer your question, Mr. Green.

The correspondent: The fact is, that many people in America do care. People, who are tired of the

cold war and who want peace and friendship, understand the purpose of R. Kent's gift and are happy about it. Extracts from his books were read and more illustrations projected.

A few words should be said about additional material to cover the topic. There are several points of view on the subject. Some teachers believe that extra-curricular work must only consolidate the linguistic material the pupils assimilate during classes and the task is to develop their speech habits on the material covered. So it is not necessary to give any additional material for the pupils to learn. There are some objections to this point of view. It is necessary that pupils should learn something new during non-class activities. Otherwise it will be difficult to stimulate their interest and make them active and anxious to do the work. Besides, it is difficult to make up natural situations to use the language as a means of communication within the material studied during the lesson. Everything must be done to provide favourable conditions for the pupils to speak, read, and write in a foreign language for their own needs. They need words and sentence patterns which they may use. And it is the teacher who should always be ready to help them. He shows the pupils how to apply their knowledge to the purpose. He presents some new words or structures which are necessary for this particular situation. The teacher need not be afraid of presenting some new material. Pupils will definitely memorize it, if the new material is connected with their activity, their interests, their emotions and feelings. Of course, the material presented must be limited in amount, carefully selected, and necessary for the given situations. Consequently some fresh, material which is necessary to express a certain situation must be presented to pupils. And they .will be able to assimilate it, as it will be closely connected with their activities.

Others think that extra-curricular work requires special linguistic material which may or may not be connected with the material the syllabus involves. These teachers are mistaken, too. The success of extra-curricular work depends on many factors:

(1) the correlation of extra-curricular work with classwork;

(2) the vividness of situations in which the additional material is needed;

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(3) the enthusiasm of the pupils when new material is introduced.

Therefore extra-curricular work must be based upon class-work. Some linguistic material should be added.

In conclusion it is necessary to say that little is done in selecting material suitable for the purpose in each form for conducting extra-curricular work successfully. However, there is a lot of material for the teacher to use for extra-curricular work and he can choose the one he needs. [1]

Methods and techniques the teacher uses for conducting extra-curricular work must aim at developing pupils' initiative and creative power, on the one hand, and for providing language surroundings, natural situations, making pupils use the language for their practical needs, on the other. The role of the teacher is to set up a goal, to draw up a plan to supply his pupils with necessary material and help them whenever they are in difficulty. All the rest is done by the pupils themselves. The more they do themselves the better for them. It is necessary that the pupils of senior forms should help the pupils of junior forms. For example, a pupil is learning a poem by heart which he will recite at a pleasure party. The teacher asks one of his senior pupils to help the child. Or many boys are known to be fond of mechanical aids. Why not employ them in demonstrating a film slide or a film? Of course, first they must be taught how to do it.

To sum this up we must say:

1. Extra-curricular work in a foreign language is an inseparable part of educational work, proceeding from the aims the syllabus sets.

2. Various forms of extra-curricular work should be developed in schools to involve as many pupils as possible.

3. Technical aids should be extensively utilized to make the work interesting and effective.

4. Study of progressive experience both in our schools and schools abroad is one of the main tasks for the further development of extra-curricular activities.

5. Carrying out investigations dealing with the content and methods of extra-curricular work is one of the main problems to be solved.

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[1] See: „Иностранные языки в школе"; *Бурлакова А. П.* Think and Answer; Plays, Games, Dialogues, Short Stories; Let's Have a Rest; Stories, Poems, Jokes and Games; English in Pictures, etc.

Recommended Literature:

Программы восьмилетней и средней школы. Объяснительная записка.

Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. Под ред. А. А. Миролюбова, И. В. Рахманова, В. С. Цетлин. М., 1967, гл. XII.

Приложение в журнале „Иностранные языки в школе".

Questions for Discussion:

1. Extra-curricular work can stimulate pupils' desire to learn a foreign language. How?
2. Extra-curricular work should be closely connected with classwork. Give some examples to support it.
3. Extra-curricular activities provide excellent grounds for the political upbringing of pupils. Give some examples to illustrate it.
4. Extra-curricular work permits the teacher to get to know his pupils more intimately thereby creating more favourable conditions for classwork. Do you agree with it? Support your answer with some examples.
5. If you had to conduct extra-curricular work, how would you begin?

Activities:

1. Prepare a press-conference programme.
2. Make a report on the club work in a local school of your choice.

Chapter XVI

Testing and Evaluating Pupils' Achievement

THE IMPORTANCE OF TESTING
AND EVALUATING PUPILS' ACHIEVEMENT

Properly organized testing of pupils' achievements gives the teacher an opportunity to get a clear idea of his pupils' progress in foreign language learning. Analyzing the results of testing, the teacher will see his shortcomings both in methods and techniques applied and in the progress of each pupil. It allows him to improve his own work. In this connection P. Oliva writes, "A test measures not only the student's performance but also the effectiveness of the teacher's instruction. Tests serve a diagnostic function. They show where

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students have difficulties. They provide information which should lead the teacher to modify his instruction." [1]

Testing and evaluating pupils' achievements in language learning is of great importance. Pupils get used to working systematically at the target language. The latter ensures favourable conditions for the mastering of the foreign language, that is, for learning words, phrases, grammatical structures, and developing habits and skills in using all these while hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. Thus the problem of learning is not so much how to get things into the mind (in our case vocabulary, grammar, etc.), as it is how to get them out again when they are needed for aural comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing. "The problem is less one of storage than it is of ready access." [2] Through testing every pupil can show how he can use what he learns, that is his "ready access" to the knowledge he receives.

Although tests are used for measuring the achievement of the objectives in language learning, they fulfil educational functions as well, namely, each test makes pupils concentrate their attention on certain language material and language skill and thereby mastering it successfully. Since testing is accompanied by the evaluation of the achievement of every pupil this stimulates pupils' desire to learn. Evaluation is an integral part of teaching; it is a process of determining the extent to which objectives have been achieved.

TESTING LANGUAGE SKILLS
AND LANGUAGE KNOWLEDGE

The teacher tests the pupil's command of the target language, that is, his ability to use it in its two forms, oral and written. Therefore, the items of testing should fully correspond to the aims and objectives. They are: (1) aural comprehension, (2) speaking (monologue and dialogue), (3) reading (oral and silent), (4) writing (words, sentences, dictations, written reproductions, etc.).

We distinguish regular testing when the teacher administers frequent, short tests to measure his pupils' achievement

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[1] *Oliva P.* The Teaching of Foreign Languages. N. Jersey, 1969, p. 204.

[2] *Ebel R.* Measuring Educational Achievement, N. Jersey, 1965, p. 40.

and assigns marks for their work at a given lesson (unit) or a topic; and final testing or examination at the end of the course. The teacher administers tests in two forms: oral and written.

In our schools oral testing often takes the form of questioning the class or some individuals. The manner in which each pupil reacts to the teacher's questions shows his readiness for the lesson and his achievement in learning some particular material. This often results in assigning marks to several pupils. Since there are many items of testing as well as pupils in the class the teacher needs special tests, objective and easy to administer, to measure his pupils' achievement. At present the following tests are available: teacher-made tests, ready-made tests (for example, in the *Teacher's Book*), and standardized tests (made by the Department of Education). Naturally, teacher-made tests are the best because he knows the material his pupils have covered better than anyone else, that is why he can administer a test which will correspond to his pupils' capacities. However, in administering tests he should always keep in mind the items of testing, that is, the syllabus requirements for this particular form.

Some possible approaches to testing are described herewith.

The testing of listening comprehension may be administered in two ways depending on pupils' reaction to the material they hear.

1. A text is presented either by the teacher or on tape. Each pupil is given a set of pictures (3—4) one of which corresponds to the item that he hears. The pupil listens attentively to the text and identifies the picture correctly by raising it (*immediate testing*) or by putting a mark (*a number*) in a special place provided for it (*delayed testing*).

2. A text is presented, preferably on tape. The class or each pupil is given a definite task before being invited to listen to the text. Pupils listen to the text and then they are asked to react to the material according to the given assignments. These may be answering *yes-no*-questions, choosing answers from multiple-choice items on cards distributed beforehand, etc.

The testing of speaking is the most difficult as the teacher will want to test pronunciation, intonation, stress, sustained speaking, use of vocabulary and grammatical structures. The best way to measure achievement in speaking is by testing each pupil individually. But

this is very time-consuming and, although the teacher does his best to question as many pupils as he possibly can, he fails to cover all the individuals on a given topic, and as a result this leading language skill is often not controlled in any way whatsoever. Instead the teacher tests knowledge of words, structures; ability to ask and answer questions in written form; ability to write about a situation or topic suggested. In order to avoid this the following testing technique may be proposed. Each pupil gives his response on tape. The teacher plays back the tape as he has time and evaluates each pupil's performance. Contemporary teaching aids make this available (see Chapter IV).

It has been calculated that it takes a pupil 1—1,5 minutes to make a response containing 3—4 sentences. The test must be constructed in such a way that the pupil need not give a lengthy answer but his response must show his ability to pronounce and intone, use of certain vocabulary and grammatical structures, and whether his speech is sustained or not. It will not take the teacher more than half an hour to evaluate the achievement of all his pupils in a given form and get a clear picture of each individual on a given topic. Regular oral tests will increase pupils' sense of responsibility and desire to master the spoken language.

T h e t e s t i n g o f r e a d i n g deals with comprehension and speed. The former is more important than the latter. Testing reading may be administered aloud or silently. Each pupil gets a passage, accompanied by a set of questions on cards which can be true-and-false type, multiple-choice, or a type that requires a statement for an answer. In case of reading aloud the test may be administered in the language laboratory with each pupil reading on tape. Subsequent evaluation is carried out in the manner described above for measuring speaking skills. If pupils read silently the teacher collects cards and evaluates comprehension by every pupil from the answers.

T h e t e s t i n g o f v o c a b u l a r y a n d g r a m-m a r is carried out indirectly or directly. All the above-mentioned tests imply the testing of vocabulary and grammar since the pupil cannot give a satisfactory answer to any test if he does not know the words and grammar items required. This is indirect testing. However the teacher may administer direct testing when he proposes a vocabulary test (see Chapter VI) or a grammar test (see Chapter VIII).

All the suggested tests are easy to evaluate and the marks that the teacher assigns are objective because tests measure exactly what the pupil has learnt. Marks are assigned on the basis of the work done in a particular class.

In schools we have a five-mark grading system. There are a good many teachers who are not satisfied with the five-mark system, they extend it to a fifteen-mark grading system when they give "five with a minus", "four with a plus", etc., though this is not supported by the authorities. The teacher must strictly follow the five-mark grading system.

It is the responsibility of the teacher to assign marks and to report progress to parents. It is easy to give a pupil a good mark particularly if it is higher than he really expected. But there are more occasions when marks bring more disappointement than pleasure. The disappointment may be of two kinds. We may call them "outer" and "inner". By the first we mean the disappointment of a pupil when he receives a lower mark than he expected and expresses his feelings somehow. By the second we mean the disappointment of a pupil who receives a good mark in the foreign language, but feels that he does not deserve it, that there is something wrong with the evaluation of his achievement. He knows there are many "fours" and "fives" in class though he cannot say all his schoolmates have a good command of English. This is sometimes the case in our schools. There is a paradox in measuring the achievement of pupils. The less experienced and qualified the teacher is the more pupils have good marks. Therefore, "... teacher's marks... are partly fact and partly fancy." [1]

To serve effectively the purpose of stimulating, directing, and rewarding pupils' efforts to learn, marks must be valid. The highest marks must go to those pupils who have earned them. "Marks must be based on sufficient evidence. They must report the degree of achievement as precisely as possible under the circumstances. If marks are assigned on the basis of trivial, incidental, or irrelevant achievements or if they are assigned carelessly, their long-run effects on the educational efforts of students cannot be good." [2]

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[1] R. Ebel. Measuring Educational Achievement. N. Jersey, 1965, p. 399.

[2] Ibid., p. 400.

The shortcomings in marks are twofold:

(1) the lack of clearly defined, generally accepted definitions of what the various marks should mean, as a result the meanings of marks tend to vary from teacher to teacher, from school to school, which reduces the validity of the marks;

(2) the lack of sufficiently relevant objective as a basis for assigning marks. The result is marks tend to be unreliable.

Many investigators found wide differences on what various marks should mean and the standards that should be followed in assigning them, among them V. P. Bespalko. [1]

The department of FL of APS made an attempt to give a definition of what the various marks (5, 4, 3, 2, 1) should mean and what the standards are in assigning each of them [2]. The complexity of the problem, however, and the lack of profound scientific research in the field did not allow the authors to give a reliable solution to the problem. It still wants its investigators to work out a system of objective foreign language tests for every level of instruction and language skill. Such a system of tests will make valid marking possible. At the present time the procedures for assigning marks are about as good or as weak as the teachers who apply them. Since there is no objective approach to measuring the achievement of pupils, the teacher relies upon his intuition, the traditions that are observed in school, his personal experience, and other chance factors.

Recommended Literature:

Контроль речевых умений в обучении иностранным языкам. Под ред. проф. В. С. Цетлин. М., 1970.

Вайсбурд М. Л., Климентенко А. Д. Требования к речевым умениям. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1972, № 3.

Игнатенок Г. Ф. Индивидуальный контроль с помощью карточек. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1967, № 6.

Витковская Ж. В. Объекты контроля в тестах по чтению. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1972, № 5.

Володин Н. В.· Контроль понимания иноязычного текста. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1972, № 5.

Солдатов Г. А. Об оценках. — „Иностранные языки в школе", 1972, № 2.

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[1] Беспалько В. П. Критерии для оценки знаний учащихся и пути оптимизации процесса обучения. — В сб.: Теория поэтапного формирования умственных действий и управление процессом обучения. Изд. МГУ, 1967.

[2] Контроль речевых умений в обучении иностранным языкам. Под ред. проф. В. С. Цетлин. М., „Просвещение", 1970.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Foreign language proficiency is difficult to test. Why?
2. When testing, the teacher instructs. Support this statement.
3. Contemporary teaching aids help the foreign language teacher to administer efficient and objective tests. Do you agree? Give some examples to illustrate your opinion.
4. Can the teacher test one skill by means of another? Give your arguments for or against.
5. What should be done to enforce the validity of marks? State your reasons.

Activities:

Prepare a short test on (1) aural comprehension, (2) reading comprehension, (3) pronunciation, (4) speaking on utterance level.

Chapter XVII

Teaching English to Pre-School Children and Children in a Primary School

The problem how to teach a foreign language to pre-school children and the children of a primary school has not been solved either in this country or abroad, though some methodologists and teachers have shown an interest in it and there are some books, papers and theses dealing with this problem. For instance, soon after World War II the Modern Language Association in the USA, with Theodore Anderson at the head, began a campaign for the teaching of foreign languages in primary schools. A broad experiment was organized in many elementary schools throughout the country. It was done to prove that it is necessary to begin the teaching of a foreign language in the first grade and even in the kindergarten if good results are to be achieved. Otherwise the younger generation will not master foreign languages.

In our country the interest for teaching young children a foreign language was aroused soon after the first schools with a number of subjects taught in a foreign language were opened in Moscow and other cities, i. e., in the 50's. Experience has proved that the earlier the children begin to learn a language, the better they master it. Besides, some teachers, first in Leningrad, then in other cities and towns, volun-

teered to instruct children in a foreign language in kindergartens. The experience and the results they have achieved are described in a number of articles published in „Иностранные языки в школе", „Дошкольное воспитание". A few guides [1] for teachers have appeared. To help teachers and parents in teaching children a foreign language lotto in four languages (Russian, French, English, German), dominoes in the English language, and various pictures have been issued.

It is necessary to distinguish between teaching pre-school children in the kindergarten and teaching children in primary grades in the elementary school, as there are some psychological age characteristics which should be taken into account. Here are some of them.

1. A child of 5 or 6 easily learns words and sentences of a foreign language and associates them directly with the things, actions, etc. He learns a sentence as a sense unit withoJt any strain as easily as he learns isolated words. He encounters the same difficulty in learning the sentences *My name is Mike. I like this black cat. Give me a bear, please* and words *a cat, a bear.* Moreover, it is easier for a child to learn a sentence than isolated words.

For example, if a child knows only isolated words, he ¹..cludes them in Russian speech: *Дай мне doll. Закрой door.*

Sometimes a child does not notice that he uses English words in a sentence said in Russian. *Я сейчас shall show you.* English words live side by side with Russian words and the child uses those words which first come to his mind. Therefore in teaching English the children must be given words in connection with selected sentence patterns.

For example: *a doll.*

> *Give me* a *doll.* (There are some dolls on the table.)
>
> *Give me* the *doll.* (The teacher points out the doll she wants the child to give her.)

Under these conditions the children will not mix up English and Russian words in a sentence. They will use sentence patterns, and include the words they need (*Give*

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[1] See: *Короглуев Г. X., Магдесян Ф. М., Немков В. П.* Английский язык на начальном этапе. М., 1963; *Хапова О. С.* Занятия по английскому языку в детском саду. М., 1965; *Skulte V.* English for little ones.

me a doll. Give me a bear, a ball, etc.,), though there is a tendency to continue the thought in Russian: *Give me a bear,* я буду с ним играть.

This phenomenon does not occur in the elementary school. The children of primary classes are more careful in their speech. They use either English or Russian sentences. Their Russian speech habits are much stable. They do not learn a sentence only as a sense unit, but as a model, a stereotype to be used for building up other sentences by analogy.

2. The imitative ability of pre-school children is better than that of school-children. They experience fewer difficulties in the assimilation of English pronunciation. Besides, they like to repeat sounds, words, and sentences. They try to pronounce in imitation of the teacher, and they usually succeed in imitating. Teaching pronunciation to school-children is also based on their imitative abilities though some explanation may be given. Thus, the teacher may not only show his pupils how to pronounce, but explain to the children how to produce this or that sound. For example, place the tongue a little bit back, while producing [ɑː] — *car.*

3. The natural activity of a child of 5—6 is a play. He lives in a world of various games. Moreover, if the child helps grown-ups in doing a room, cleaning a garden, in dusting chairs, watering plants, etc., he is playing because he pretends to be a grown-up. In teaching the English language to pre-school children the teacher must take this factor into consideration and suggest different games to them. This is one of the ways to make them learn words and sentences in a foreign language. Playing is, therefore, the best motivation for children to work at assimilating the language.

A child of 7—9 likes playing very much as well. He can and must work hard, however, in overcoming the difficulties he encounters. He is taught to do many things: to read, write in the mother tongue, count, make various things of paper, etc. Therefore in teaching him English playing, though very important, is not the only means to encourage him to learn the language. Various exercises should be performed alongside.

AIMS OF TEACHING

The Ministry of Education of RSFSR has issued a draft programme on foreign languages for kindergartens. The aims and objectives of teaching a foreign language according

to the programme are: to develop elementary skills in oral language, i. e., the understanding of the spoken language and talking in a foreign language. Learning a foreign language will stimulate the development of a child's intellect. As a result of learning a foreign language in the kindergarten pre-school children should be able (1) to understand orders and requests in a foreign language and little stories on familiar linguistic material within the topics of the programme; (2) to answer questions and use sentences connected with games and children's activities; (3) to recite little rhymes, sing songs, etc.

CONTENT OF TEACHING

Pre-school children must assimilate about 200—250 sentences, these sentences may include 100—150 words; learn 8—10 rhymes and little songs by heart.

The material is arranged in the following topics:

(1) greetings, acquaintance, requests;

(2) games (the names of some toys, some words denoting actions with the toys, sentences the children say while playing);

(3) words (phrases) and sentences connected with children's daily activities: washing, playing, laying the table, clearing up, going home;

(4) holidays, the names of some holidays, some sentences connected with children's preparation for the holidays.

Pre-school children begin to learn the language at the age of 5—6. Children should have 4 periods a week, each lasting 25—30 minutes.

METHOD AND TECHNIQUES
OF TEACHING PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN

In teaching English to pre-school children in the kindergarten the aural-oral method is used since spoken language is the aim, the only means, and the only approach available here. No speech is possible unless the speaker associates a word with the thing it denotes, or a sentence with the thought it expresses directly within the target language so the direct method is most natural here. It must be borne in mind, however, that the use of the method requires a careful, thorough

selection of the material for the pupils to assimilate. Its amount for each lesson must be within the children's ability to retain the linguistic material the teacher introduces. The teacher must strictly follow the rule: "never pass to new material until your pupils have thoroughly assimilated the previous one". For example, at the English lesson the teacher tried to apply the direct method. The children were able to answer the teacher questions of the *What is it?* type.

T e a c h e r: What is it?
C l a s s: It is a book (a dog, a cat, a pen).

The new material the teacher was going to present was a general question: *Is it a pen (a dog*, etc.)? What did the teacher do? She took a pen and holding it in her hand asked: *Is it a pen?* Seeing no response she repeated this question several times which did not help either. So the teacher was obliged to turn to Russian: Что я сказала? The children answered at once: Где ручка? Their answer was logically justified, because they had learned *What is it?* question and now they naturally expected to learn the question with где?. So the teacher had to translate this question and the questions following. Then she asked the children to repeat the question several times. The method did not work because it was applied in the wrong way. The teacher should have done the following if she wanted her pupils to understand the questions of that type directly. She should first ask and answer question herself: *Is it a pen? Yes, it is. It is a pen.* (She takes a pen.) *Is it a pencil? Yes, it is. It is a pencil.* (She takes a pencil.)

Sometimes the method fails, however. And this is not usually due to its drawbacks as a method but to unskilled application, on the part of the teacher.

Is it a pen? No, it is not. It is a pencil. (She holds a pencil.)

Is it a pencil? (She takes a pen again.) *No, it is not. It is a pen.*

And so, children! Is it a pen? (She addresses the group.) *Yes, it is.* (The group answers.)

The pupils follow the teacher's questions and answers. They listen to her attentively and try to understand what she says. Time is not wasted as they listen to the spoken

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language and make efforts to understand it. Soon by their faces the teacher sees they have grasped the question. Then drill exercises are performed by the pupils to retain the new material.

This example shows that in the hands of unexperienced teacher the method does not work. The use of the direct method requires skill and experience on the part of the teacher, more than that, his emotions and enthusiasm. If the teacher does not possess such qualities he had better not work with small children with whom these qualities are a must.

There are many techniques the teacher can use in teaching English to pre-school children, such as:

1. *Show me (him, her, Natasha, Nina) a doll (a bear, flag, etc.).* — The child the teacher calls on must show the object. In this way the teacher checks comprehension.

2. *Name the thing.* — The teacher points to a thing, a child names the thing either with a single word *(a doll, a car, a dog)* or with a sentence *(It is a dog; It is a doll;* or *This is a dog; That is a doll.).* The pupils fulfil the teacher's request in turn. In this way the teacher checks both comprehension and reproduction, i. e., the children's ability to say a word or a sentence.

3. *Guess what it is.* The teacher names some qualities of an object the children may see in their room. The children are to name this object in English.

T e a c h e r: It is big and yellow and has no tail.
C h i l d r e n: A bear (in chorus).

This exercise is very useful. It develops pupils' ability to analyse the situation given in a foreign language and to find the word required in their memory. The children's responses at the same time help the teacher check their progress in language learning (their knowledge of vocabulary and comprehension of English at hearing).

4. *Speak about an object.* — The teacher either shows some object or the child sees it in a picture. He says: *It is a cat. The cat is black. I like it. It is nice* (or, *I don't like it. It is ugly.).* The children speak in turn. In this way the teacher develops their speech at the utterance level.

5. *Answer the questions.* — The teacher asks questions and the children answer them. These questions may be:

Is it a ...?
Have you a ...?
Has he (she, Natasha ...) a ...?
What is it?
Where is the ...?
What colour is the ...?

Of course the questions are introduced gradually. The way the children answer shows the teacher how they have assimilated the material.

6. *Ask a question.* — The teacher shows objects or pictures to the children. They ask questions in turn. This work is not so difficult, because they reproduce the models they have assimilated in listening to the teacher asking questions.

7. *Say a rhyme.* — A child or children say a rhyme. Their recitation may be accompanied by some movements.

8. *Sing a song.* — Children sing a song. Singing may be followed by dancing or some movements expressing the idea of this or that sentence in the song.

The programme on foreign languages for primary schools states:

T h e   a i m   of the foreign language lessons in primary schools is to develop pupils' skills in understanding English speech and participating in conversation based on the topics covered. As a result of teaching children should be able:

1. To understand the teacher's speech, carry out the teacher's direction (instruction), understand short oral stories on the material and topics included in the programme.

2. To ask and answer questions on the pictures.

3. To use the sentences they learned during the lesson and know the isolated words these sentences include.

4. To recite a poem assimilated orally.

5. To read words and sentences assimilated orally.

T h e   c o n t e n t   o f   t e a c h i n g. Children must learn about 600—800 sentences and phraseological units and 350—500 word units.

The following topics are suggested:

1 s t — 2 n d   f o r m s.

Room. Toys. Meals. Dressing. Going for a walk. (The topics are covered through playing shop and guests.)

3 r d   f o r m.

Family. Seasons. Nature. Animals. (They are covered through playing lotto.)

4 t h f o r m.

School. Sports. Joining the pioneer organization. Holidays. (Through playing during the lessons.)

During the first two years pupils assimilate the language orally.

(It is better to begin studying a foreign language with the 2nd form. The teacher begins with the 1st form provided there are pupils who studied the language in the kindergarten.)

In the 3rd and the 4th forms they are taught to read.

Flashcards and the alphabet in pictures should be widely used for teaching children to read.

The following plan of teaching is suggested:

1st form: 5—20 min., 4—5 periods a week;
2nd form: 25—30 min., 4 periods a week;
3 rd, 4th forms: 40—45 min., 4 periods a week.

The group should consist of 13—20 pupils.

The method and techniques the teacher should use in teaching children of primary school are similar to those applied in teaching pre-school children, i. e., the aural-oral method, and various techniques which can develop pupils' listening comprehension and speaking. Games should be more complicated, for instance, the teacher can use lotto, dominoes, the game *Check your answer* and others. Guessing games can be widely used. Pupils are also given various exercises, connected with the situational use of words and sentence patterns. Various audio-visual aids and materials are to be used.

Naturally English or any other foreign language can be taught in kindergartens and primary classes (except those in specialized schools) if parents want their children to learn the language, and they are ready to pay teacher for the lessons.

Recommended Literature:

Программа по иностранным языкам для детских садов и для начальной школы (проект).

Ханова О. С. Занятия по английскому языку в детском саду. М., 1965.

Короглуев Г. Х., Магдесян Р. М., Немков В. П. Английский язык на начальном этапе. М., 1963, с. 99—115.

Царапкина Е. С. Немецкий язык в детском саду. М., 1965.

Обучение иностранным языкам в детских садах. Пособие для учителей. Под ред. В. С. Цетлин. М., „Просвещение", 1964.

Questions for Discussion:

1. The younger the children, the better for foreign language learning. Do you agree? Give reasons for your statement.
2. If you had to teach a foreign language to pre-school children, how would you begin?
3. What qualities should the foreign language teacher possess to teach pre-school children and children of a primary school successfully? Do you think you have such qualities?

Activities:

1. Read several articles on foreign language teaching in kindergartens in „Дошкольное образование" and make a report on teaching pre-school children.
2. Make a survey of games recommended for pre-school children.

RUSSIAN-ENGLISH LIST OF WORDS
AND EXPRESSIONS USED
IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

автоматизм automaticy; а. в произношении automaticy in pronunciation.

авторитет (учителя) (teacher's) authority/prestige; завоевать а. win authority; потерять а. у учащихся lose prestige in the eyes of pupils; пользоваться а. have authority among; не пользоваться а. lack prestige; воспитывать уважение к а. (учителя) foster respect for (the teacher's) prestige; поддерживать а. (учителя) raise the authority/prestige of (the teacher); подрывать а. (учителя) undermine (the teacher's) prestige.

активизировать stimulate; а. учащихся на уроке stimulate pupils to work at the lesson; а. внимание stimulate one's attention; а. мышление stimulate one's thinking; а. работу liven up the work.

активизация внимания stimulation of attention; а. педпроцесса activisation of the teaching process.

активно работать на уроке be active at the lesson; а. пользоваться приобретенными знаниями и умениями actively use the acquired knowledge and skills.

активность activity; а. в обучении activity in teaching; поддерживать а. учащихся на уроке maintain pupils activity during the lesson; развивать а. в детях develop activity in children.

активный active; обеспечивать а. работу каждого учащегося на уроке see that all pupils are active at the lesson; а. владение языком good command of the language; а. словарь учащихся pupils active vocabulary.

анализ в обучении analysis in teaching; а. урока analysis of a lesson; а. языка linguistic analysis; а. текста study of a text; а. отдельных трудностей текста analysis of difficulties in the text; а. ошибок учащихся analysis of the mistakes made by pupils; всесторонний а. thorough analysis; частичный а. partial analysis; выборочный а. selective analysis; подробный а. detailed analysis; смысловой а. semantic analysis; структурный а. structural analysis; фонетический а. phonetic analysis; звукобуквенный а. sound-and-letter analysis; психологический а. psychological analysis; злоупотребление а. overanalysis; схема а. scheme of analysis.

анализировать текст analyse the text; а. слово в контексте и вне контекста analyse a word in the context and outside the context; развивать умение а. develop analysing ability.

анализатор analyser; двигательный а. kinesthetic analyser; зрительный а. visual analyser; слуховой а. aural analyser.

аналогия в обучении analogy in teaching; по а. by analogy (with); проводить а. draw an analogy (with).

анкета questionnaire/form заполнять а. fill in a form/questionnaire.

анкетный метод в методике questionnaire method in methodology.

аннотация annotation; составлять а. annotate.

артикулировать articulate; артикуляционная база articulation basis; а. навыки articulation habits.

артикуляция articulation; правильная а. exact/precise articulation; неправильная а. defective articulation; нечеткая а. blurred articulation; место а. place of articulation; способ а. manner of articulation.

аспект aspect; обучать по а. teach various aspects as individual subjects.

аспектизация в обучении aspect approach in teaching.

ассоциация association; а. по сходству association by similiarity; а. по противоположности association by contrast; а. по смежности association by contiguity; зрительные а. visual association; слуховые а. auditory association; создавать прочные ассоциации establish permanent association.

аттестат certificate; а. зрелости school leaving certificate.

аудирование auding/hearing/listening comprehension.

аудировать aud/hear.

балл отметка (оценка) mark/score; высший б. top/hignest mark; общий б. total mark/score; выводить оценку give/assign a mark.

беседа talk/discussion; вести б. на иностранном языке carry on a conversation in a foreign language; проводить беседу give a talk (about, on).

билет экзаменационный examination card; составлять б. make up examination cards.

вариант version; английский в. English version; исправленный в. corrected version; окончательный в. final version; черновой в. draft version/rough copy; сокращенный в. abridged version; варианты контрольной работы alternative test` papers; предложить свой в. suggest one's own variant.

варьировать задания vary assignments/tasks; в. приемы обучения vary teaching techniques; варьировать темп чтения vary the speed of reading; в. характер примеров упражнений и т. п. vary the type of examples, exercises, etc.

введение материала presentation/introduction of material.

вводить новые слова present/introduce new words.

вводная беседа introductory talk; в. курс introductory course; устный в. курс oral introductory course.

вера в себя self-confidence;,укреплять в ученике веру в свои силы build up/strengthen the pupil's confidence in himself, foster a feeling of self-confidence in the pupil; терять веру в себя lose faith/confidence in oneself.

верить в свои силы и способности have confidence in one's own strength and abilities/have faith in what one can do.

вести (руководить) direct/lead; в. класс be in charge of a class; в. кружок conduct (run a club) society; в. собрание conduct a meeting/preside over a meeting; в. беседу на иностранном языке carry on a conversation in a foreign language; в. несложную беседу speak on a simple topic; в. беседу на заданную тему carry on a conversation on a set topic; в. урок conduct a lesson; в. наблюдение carry on observations; в. записи keep a record (of); в. конспект make a synopsis/an outline; в. тетрадь keep a note-book; в. словарную тетрадь keep a vocabulary note-book; в. классный журнал keep a class register; в. учет посещаемости record

daily attendance; в. учет успеваемости keep a record of the pupils' progress; в. дневник keep a day book; в. учет проделанной работы keep a record of the work done; в. переписку с кем-либо correspond (with smb)/be in correspondence (with smb); в. к правильному, неправильному ответу lead to a correct (wrong) answer; в. к нарушению дисциплины result in loss of discipline/in poor discipline; в. к потере навыков lead to loss/break down of habits.

владение языком knowledge/command of a language; хорошее в. языком a good command of the language.

владеть аудиторией hold one's audience; в. вниманием класса hold the attention of the class; в. голосом, жестом control one's voice, gestures; в. приемами обучения be skilled in the techniques of teaching; в. классом manage the class; в. материалом have a good grasp of one's subject-matter; в. своим предметом be thoroughly familiar with one's subject.

внимание attention; произвольное в. secondary/voluntary attention; непроизвольное в. primary/involuntary attention; сосредоточенное в. concentrated attention; рассеянное внимание dispersed attention; устойчивое в. sustained attention; неустойчивое в. non-sustained attention; воспитание в. cultivation/training of attention; колебание в. fluctuation of attention; объем в. range/span of attention; распределение в. dividing of attention (among, between); сосредоточенность в. concentration of attention; активизировать в. stimulate attention; добиться в. класса compel/secure the attention of the class; обращать в. pay attention to; отвлекать в. divert attention from; привлекать в. draw attention (to); овладевать в. engage/get pupils' attention; ослабить в. diminish one's attention (to); переключать в. turn/shift smb's attention (from ... to); уделять в. каждому ученику give individual attention to each pupil; уделять одинаковое в. всем видам работы give equal stress to all aspects of work; уделять ребенку слишком много в. show undue attention to a child; уделять чрезмерное в. деталям overemphasize details.

вовлекать детей в активную работу на уроке bring all the pupils into the class activity/involve all the pupils in the work of the class; в. в кружки draw into club work.

возбуждать promote/stimulate; в. активность учащихся promote greater activity among pupils; в. желание учиться stimulate the desire to learn; в. интерес promote/stimulate an interest (in, for).

воздействие influence; воспитательное в. educational influence; прямое (косвенное) в. direct (indirect) influence; средства педагогического в. means of pedagogical influence.

возможность possibility/opportunity; давать (предоставлять) в. provide with an opportunity for...; дать в. проявить инициативу ensure one's initiative; учитывать в. учащихся keep in mind the pupils' aptitude.

возраст age; в. поступления в школу school entry age;

возрастные особенности age characteristics; учитывать в. особенности take into account the age (of).

вооружать знаниями, умениями, навыками equip with knowledge, skills, habits; в. учащихся приемами самостоятельной работы equip pupils with correct techniques of independent study/seat/solitary work.

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вопрос problem/question; в. воспитания problems of education; в. дисциплины discipline problems, в. к классу questions to the class; в. по картинке questions on a picture; в. по содержанию content questions; в. по теме topical questions; дополнительные в. additional questions; наводящие в. leading questions; обобщающие в. generalizing questions; непонятные в. vague questions; предложить в. всему классу propose a question to the whole class; обращаться с в. к отдельным учащимся direct (one's) questions to individuals in the class; засыпать в. bombard with questions; в. к тексту questions on the text.

воспитание ребенка child upbringing; в. коммунистической морали training in communist morality; в. советского патриотизма fostering soviet patriotism; в. привычек habit formation; воспитывать и обучать детей educate and teach children; в. ребенка bring up a child.

воспитатель (педагог) teacher, master, educator.

воспитывающее обучение educative instruction.

восполнять пробелы make up deficiencies (in)/fill up in the gaps.

воспринимать новый материал assimilate new material; в. иностранную речь assimilate foreign speech; в. зрительно perceive visually/by sight; в. со слуха receive/accept orally; pick up by ear; в. непосредственно perceive directly.

восприятие новых знаний reception of new knowledge; готовить учащихся к в. новых знаний get pupils ready to receive new knowledge; в. устной речи aural comprehension; слуховое в. auditory perception; зрительное в. visual perception; первичное в. initial perception; неправильное в. false perception; при первичном в. at first hearing (seeing); объем в. perceptual span; развитие в. development of perception; точность в. accuracy of perception.

воспроизведение изученного материала reproduction of the material covered; в. прослушанного текста reproduction of the text heard; письменное в. written reproduction; устное в. oral reproduction; свободное в. free reproduction.

время time; в., отведенное на time allotted to; учебное в. school time/teaching time/classroom time; потеря в. на уроке loss of classroom time; распределение в. distribution of time; чувство в. sense of time; во время урока at the lesson/during the classhour; в указанное в. in a given time; к определенному в. within a stated time/by a given time; вести точный учет в. на уроке take careful account of the time; выделять в. allot/give time (to); занимать много в. take up a lot of time; рационально использовать учебное в. use the teaching time to the best possible advantage; ограничивать в. на подготовку limit the time allotted to preparation; сокращать в. cut down the time for; укладываться в положенное в. prepare within a definite time limit.

второгодник repeater; оставаться на второй год have to repeat the year.

выбирать (выбрать) choose, select; в. задания, упражнения choose assignments, exercises; в. новые слова pick out new words; в. методы, приемы choose/select teaching methods, techniques; в. метод adopt/select a method.

вызывать ученика call (on) a pupil; в. к доске call to the blackboard; в. родителей ученика в школу invite the pupil's parents to the school.

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выполнять do, perform, в. задание perform/fulfil a task; в. задание в указанный срок complete a task within a given time; в. домашнее задание do one's homework; в. письменное задание do a written assignment; в. программу cover the programme; в. работу do the work; в. указания fulfil/carry out directions/recommendations (of).

выпускник school leaver.

выпускной экзамен school-leaving examination.

вырабатывать навыки develop habits; в. динамический стереотип elaborate the dynamic stereotype; в. единые требования work out uniform requirements/demands; в. критерии оценок outline criteria of evaluation.

высказывать свое мнение об уроке express one's opinion of/about the lesson; высказываться по уроку speak about the lesson.

говорить speak; г. быстро, бегло speak quickly; fluently.

график проведения контрольных работ test schedule; составлять г. schedule; соблюдать г. keep the schedule.

двуязычие bilingualism; проблема д. bilingual problem.

действие act/action; умственное д. mental act; поэтапное формирование умственных д. stages of mental acts; выполнять д. execute an act; ориентировочная основа д. orienting points of an act.

делить класс на группы divide the class into groups; д. текст на смысловые группы divide the text into sense units.

демонстрация картин demonstration of pictures; д. диапозитивов lantern slide projection; д. диафильмов show/demonstrate film-strips; д. кинокольцовки show sound film loop.

держать экзамен take an examination; д. класс в руках handle the class; держаться/придерживаться темы keep to the subject.

деятельность activity; речевая д. speech activity; высшая нервная д. higher nervous activity; мыслительная д. mental activity; организовать мыслительную деятельность direct pupils' mental activity(ies).

диалог dialogue; вести д. enact a dialogue; составлять д. make up a dialogue.

диафильм film-strip.

дидактика didactics; принципы д. principles of didactics.

диктант dictation; контрольный д. spelling test; д. объяснительный explanatory dictation; д. тренировочный dictation drill; д. зрительный visual dictation; д. слуховой aural dictation; проводить д. give a dictation.

диктовать по предложениям dictate sentence by sentence; д. по частям dictate in sections; писать под диктовку write from dictation/to smb's dictation.

дисциплина (порядок) discipline; строгая д. strict/firm discipline; плохая, хорошая poor (good/sound) discipline; воспитывать сознательную д. cultivate self-discipline; справляться с д. maintain discipline; установить д. establish good (sound) discipline; не следить за д. be careless of discipline.

дисциплинированный (ученик, класс) well-behaved (pupil, class).

дневник daybook; вести д. keep a daybook; проверять д. check pupils' daybooks.

догадка inference, guessing; по д. by inference/by guessing; д. по контексту inference drawn from the context.

дошкольник pre-school child.

единство unity, uniformity; е. методов в обучении uniformity in teaching methods; е. программных требований uniformity in syllabus/programme requirements; е. требований unity of standard; е. теории и практики unity of theory and practice; е. учебного процесса uniformity of teaching procedure; е. взглядов identity of views.

журнал классный class register.

задавать задание set/give an assignment; з. вопросы по тексту ask questions on the text.

задание assignment; з. на дом home assignment/work; записывать з. write down the assignment; индивидуальное з. individual task/assignment; групповое з. group assignment; чрезмерное з. excessive assignment; з. возрастающей трудности assignments of increasing difficulty.

заданный материал assigned material; з. тема set topic.

задача обучения objective; цели и задачи обучения aims and objectives of teaching; посильная для ученика з. task within the pupil's power.

зазубривание урока cramming a lesson; механическое з. mechanical cramming/learning by rote.

зазубривать learn by rote, cram.

заинтересовывать учащихся get pupils interested (in)/arouse pupils' interest (in).

закрепление знаний consolidation/retention of knowledge; з. пройденного материала retention of the material covered; первичное з. initial retention/consolidation; окончательное з. final/complete retention/consolidation.

закреплять знания consolidate knowledge; з. лексику (грамматику) drill/practise vocabulary (grammar).

занятия classes; вечерние з. evening classes; внеклассные з. extra curricular classes; дневные з. day classes; дополнительные з. с классом supplementary classes; дополнительные з. с неуспевающими supplementary classes for underachievers; проводить з. hold classes (in); проводить дополнительные з. have supplementary classes (for); посещать з. attend classes; оставаться после з. stay at school after classes; на з. during the lesson; в конце з. в школе at the close of the school day; после з. after classes; посещение з. attendance of classes; полезное з. useful occupation; любимое з. hobby, favourite pastime.

запас знаний stock of knowledge; з. слов stock of words; бедный з. слов poor vocabulary.

запечатлевать в памяти учащихся imprint upon (the pupil's) memory.

заставлять произносить что-либо make smb pronounce smth; з. учащихся думать make pupils think.

звонок на урок the bell for the lesson; з. с урока the bell announcing the end of the lesson.

знания учащихся pupils' knowledge; плохие з. poor knowledge; прочные з. lasting knowledge; непрочные з. impermanent knowledge;

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твердые з. sound knowledge; пробел в з. gap in one's knowledge; уровень з. standard of knowledge; пополнять з. enlarge/increase knowledge; теоретические з. theoretical knowledge; сообщить з. impart knowledge; активно пользоваться з. actively use the knowledge; расширять з. extend one's knowledge; прочность з. soundness of knowledge; з. языка command of knowledge.

значение слова meaning of a word; раскрывать з. convey the meaning; воспитательное з. educational value/instructive importance; практическое з. practical value; иметь з. (о слове) have the meaning (of); знать з. слов know the meaning of words.

игра game; индивидуальные и групповые игры individual and group games; классные и. classroom games; играть в различные и. play different games; обучающая и. educational game.

излагать материал present the material; при изложении материала in presentation of the material.

изучать (овладевать) иностранным языком master/learn a foreign language.

изучение предмета study of a subject; изученный ранее материал material previously studied.

иллюстрировать конкретными примерами illustrate with/by concrete examples.

индивидуализация в обучении individualization in teaching.

индивидуальные особенности individual peculiarities; и. способности individual abilities; и. обучение individual instruction; и. подход individual/divided approach; и. план individual plan.

интерес к предмету interest in a subject; живой и. keen interest; большой и. great interest; пробуждать и. arouse/stimulate pupils'interest; поддерживать и. учащихся encourage pupils' interest; развивать и. develop interest (in); отсутствие и. lack of interest.

использовать метод правильно make correct/proper use of (the method); и. правильно (неправильно) время на уроке make correct (incorrect/wrong) use of one's time at the lesson; и. полностью возможности урока fully exploit the possibilities of the lesson; не и. полностью возможности урока miss one's opportunities; и. полностью материал use the material in full; и. частично материал use the material in part.

кабинет study; к. иностранных языков foreign language study; методический к. methodological centre.

кадр frame.

картинка picture; введение материала по к. pictorial presentation of material; рассказывать по к. tell a story suggested by a picture; рассказ по к. composition on a picture.

качество преподавания quality/standard of teaching.

квалификация учителя teacher's qualification; повышение к. teacher's professional improvement; курсы по повышению к. учителей refresher courses for teachers.

класс grade, class, form; класс (комната) classroom/schoolroom; начальные к. primary forms; средние к. intermediate forms; старшие к. upper/senior forms; наполняемость к. size of the class.

классный руководитель class teacher/master.

конспект урока notes of a lesson/lesson notes; краткий к. brief outline/notes; развернутый к. detailed notes; составлять к. урока make an outline of a lesson; пользоваться к. refer to one's notes; вести урок по конспекту teach from notes.

консультировать give a consultation.

контроль за успеваемостью check on one's progress; к. за усвоением материала check on the assimilation of material; повседневный к. regular/daily control (over); строгий к. strict control; держать под к. have in control; ослаблять к. relax/slacken control; осуществлять к. exercise control (over); устанавливать к. establish control; усиливать к. strengthen control.

контрольная проверка test (of)/check on; к. работа (по) test (in); проводить к. работу administer a test.

критика деловая concrete/constructive criticism.

кружок club/hobby group/society; к. по переводу translation society/club; записаться в к. join a club/society.

лексика vocabulary; введение новой л. introduction of new vocabulary; закрепление л. drilling/consolidating of new vocabulary; на знакомой л. on familiar/known vocabulary.

лексический запас vocabulary; л. минимум vocabulary minimum.

любознательность inquiring curiosity; вызывать л. у детей arouse curiosity in children.

материал material; изучаемый м. material studied (under discussion).

методика methodology/Methods.

метод method; аудио-визуальный м. audio-visual method; активный м. active method; грамматико-переводный м. grammar-translation method; прямой м. direct method; сознательно-сопоставительный м. conscious-comparative method; индуктивный (дедуктивный) м. inductive (deductive) method; сознательно-практический м. conscious-practical method; современные м. modern methods; м. устного опережения oral approach; традиционные м. traditional methods; прибегать к м. use the method; м. обучения teaching methods.

методист methodologist.

методическая разработка illustrative unit of a topic; м. помощь учителю helping teachers in methods; м. кабинет methodological centre; м. концепция methodological credo.

мысль thought, idea; выражать свои м. express one's thoughts.

мышление thinking; абстрактное м. abstract thinking; конкретное м. concrete thinking; развитие м. development of thinking; творческое м. creative thinking.

наблюдение observation; вести н. carry on observations; быть под н. учителя be supervised by a teacher.

навык habit; формирование н. formation of habits(in); выработка н. development of habits (in); привитие н. inculcation of habits/habit training; перенос н. transfer of training; отсутствие н. lack of habits; совершенствовать н. perfect/improve habits; твердые н. set habits; утрачивать н. lose one's habits.

наглядное обучение visual teaching.

наглядность в обучении visual presentation/use of visual methods in teaching; средства н. visual means.

направлять внимание учащихся direct pupils' attention (to); н. мысль учащегося direct the thought of a pupil (towards).

наушники ear-phones.

облегчать задание make a task easier; о. запоминание make memorizing easier.

обобщать опыт учителя generalize the experience of a teacher; о. пройденный материал formulate generalization of the material covered.

обогащать словарь учащихся enrich pupils' vocabulary. ´

образование education; начальное о. primary education; неполное среднее о. secondary education; полное среднее о. high education; высшее о. higher education.

обсуждение методов работы consideration of methods of work; предмет о. subject for discussion.

обучать teach; о. на родном языке teach in the mother tongue.

обучение teaching; индивидуальное о. individual training.

объединение учителей teachers' association; методическое районное (городское) о. учителей local (town) teachers' committee.

объем знаний amount of knowledge; установленный о. знаний established amount of knowledge.

объяснение explanation; о. нового материала explanation of new material; о. с помощью вопросов explaining with the help of questions.

объяснять новый материал explain new material; о. значение слова interpret the meaning of a word.

овладевать навыками и умениями master habits and skills; о. знаниями acquire/master knowledge; о. разговорной речью acquire a command of the spoken language; о. вниманием класса gain/get the attention of the class.

овладение языком mastery of a language.

оживление в классе animation in the room; вносить о. в работу enliven (the work); оживлять урок give vitality to the lesson.

опрос устный oral quiz; беглый о. running quiz; индивидуальный о. questions to individuals/quiz; фронтальный о. questions to the class; проводить фронтальный о. give an oral quiz to the whole class; систематический о. systematic questioning; обстоятельный о. thorough/detailed questioning; о. по новому материалу questions on new material; о. по старому материалу questions on material covered; о. по теме questions on a topic; охватить всех учащихся при о. involve all the pupils in question-and-answer work; переходить к о. pass/proceed to questions.

опыт experience; передовой о. advanced experience.

основа basis/fundamentals; о. воспитания fundamentals of education; о. наук fundamentals of sciences; дидактические о. обучения didactic foundations of teaching; заложить о. чего-либо equip pupils with the foundations (of); овладеть о. master the fundamentals; принять/брать за о. accept as a basis (for); на о. пройденного материала on the basis of the material covered.

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особенности развития детей characteristics of children's development; учитывать возрастные о. take into account the age peculiarities; индивидуальные о. individual differences/characteristics.

оставлять после урока keep after school/lessons; о. на второй год keep in the same class/to repeat the year; о. без внимания disregard.

осуществлять цель achieve/attain one's goal; о. контроль exercise control (over).

отбор материала selection of material; о. лексики selection of vocabulary; о. грамматического материала selection of grammar material; о. моделей для обучения selection of sentence patterns.

ответ на вопрос answer to a question; о. с запинкой halting answer; о. без запинки smooth answer; исчерпывающий о. exhaustive answer; краткий о. brief answer; сбивчивый о. confused/rambling answer; готовность учащихся к о. pupils' readiness to answer; при о. when answering.

отвечать у стола (у доски) answer at the teacher's desk/at the blackboard; о. с места answer at one's seat; о. требованиям meet the requirements (of).

отвлекать внимание ученика divert/turn the child's attention (from).

отводить главное место на уроке give priority (to); на эту работу о. десять минут ten minutes are given/allotted to this kind of work.

отсутствие интереса lack of interest; о. связи между lack of coherence; о. такта lack of tact; о. по уважительной причине excused absence; о. по неуважительной причине inexcusable absence.

отсутствие на уроке absence from class.

отсутствующие those absent/absentees.

отчет по педпрактике student teaching report; о. об успеваемости учащихся scholarship report.

оценивать знания учащихся evaluate pupils' knowledge; о. успеваемость учащихся appraise pupils' progress.

оценка знаний evaluation of pupils' knowledge; норма о. standard for grading/assigning marks; пятибальная система о. five-mark system; спрашивать ученика на о. ask a pupil questions and assign/give a mark for the answer; определить о. decide a mark; проставлять о. в журнал put down pupils marks in the class register; завышать о. be lax in marking a pupil; занижать о. be overstrict in assigning marks to a pupil; выставлять о. за четверть fill in the marks for the term.

ошибка mistake, error; работа над о. work on errors/mistakes; исправлять о. correct mistakes/errors; пропускать о. skip/overlook errors/mistakes; избегать о. avoid mistakes/errors; устранять о. eliminate errors/mistakes; предупреждать о. prevent errors/mistakes; считать за о. regard/consider to be a mistake/an error.

память memory; п. зрительная visual memory; п. слуховая aural/ auditory memory; п. моторная motor/kinesthetic memory; п. механическая rote memory; п. хорошая retentive memory; п. плохая poor memory; п. произвольная voluntary memory; п. непроизвольная involuntary memory; п. кратковременная immediate memory; п. долговременная long term memory; развитие п. memory training; перегружать п. overburden one's memory; закрепить в п. fix in one's memory.

педагогика pedagogics/pedagogy.

педагогический институт teachers' training college; п. система educational system; п. образование teacher education/training; п. приемы teaching techniques; п. эксперимент educational experiment; п. подход pedagogical approach; п. воздействие educational influence (upon); п. практика student teaching.

перевод на иностранный язык translation into a foreign language; п. с иностранного языка translation from a foreign language; обратный п. retranslation; свободный п. free translation; адекватный п. adequate translation; дословный п. word for word translation; точный п. exact/accurate translation.

перегрузка overloading/overburdening; п. учебных программ overloading of programmes; п. учащихся overburdening/overloading pupils (with).

перенос навыков transfer of training; п. значения transfer of meaning.

переносить навыки и умения transfer skills, habits (to).

пересказ текста relating/retelling a text; п. по ключевым словам narration from key words.

пересказывать текст целиком relate/retell the whole text; п. по частям relate/retell the text in parts.

переход от одного вида работы к другому shifting from one type of activity to another; п. от одного приема работы к другому change from one technique to another; п. к опросу going over to questioning.

переходить от легкого к трудному proceed in an order of complexity; быстро п. от одной темы к другой move rapidly from one topic to another.

письмо (умение) writing; учить п. teach writing.

план работы школы school programme/study plan; учебный п. curriculum; поурочный п. учителя daily plan/teacher's plan for each lesson; индивидуальный п. individual plan; тематический п. unit plan; п. внеклассной работы plan of extra-curricular activity/work; изменять п. урока change the lesson plan; продумать п. урока think out the plan of a lesson carefully; отступление от п. урока departure from the plan of the lesson.

пленка магнитная tape; записывать на п. record.

побуждать учащихся к занятиям motivate pupils to study.

повторение материала revision of material; п. пройденного материала revision of the material covered; п. материала предыдущего урока revision of the material of the previous lesson; постоянное п. constant revision; обобщающее п. summary revision; основательное п. thorough revision; завершающее п. final/concluding revision; частое п. frequent revision.

повторять старый материал review the old material; п. урок go over the lesson; п. упражнение repeat the exercise.

повышать квалификацию учителя improve teacher's qualifications; п. успеваемость improve results in studies.

подача материала presentation of material.

подбор материала selection/choice of material.

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подготовить оборудование к уроку prepare teaching aids for the lesson; п. задание prepare the task/assignment.

подготовка учителей teachers' training; п. к уроку preparation for a lesson; профессиональная п. vocational training.

поднимать руку raise one's hand.

подражание учителю imitation of one's teacher.

подстановка substitution.

подстановочная таблица substitution table.

подход индивидуальный individual approach; п. сознательный conscious approach.

показ show/demonstration; п. фильма showing of a film.

пользоваться словарем use/consult a dictionary; п. вопросами при повторении use questions for revision; п. влиянием have great influence (with, over); п. доверием учащихся enjoy pupils' confidence.

понимание предмета comprehension of the subject; п. речи на слух aural comprehension; п. беспереводное direct comprehension; полное п. full/complete comprehension; общее п. general comprehension.

понимать устную речь understand spoken language.

понятие concept/notion; основные п. basic concepts; абстрактные п. abstract concepts; конкретные п. concrete concepts.

последовательность введения sequence in presenting; логическая п. logical order(in).

пособие наглядное visual aid; динамическое наглядное п. dynamic visual aid.

поставить отметку assign a mark; п. пять give a five.

постепенность в обучении gradation in teaching; п. перехода gradual change (from ... to).

постоянный контроль constant supervision/control; п. общение constant contact (with;) п. тренировка constant drill.

правило rule; выводить п. deduce a rule; применять п. apply a rule (to); нарушать п. violate a rule.

практика practice; педагогическая п. student teaching; устная п. oral practice.

предлагать задачу set a problem (before); п. тему suggest a topic.

предмет учебный subject; разнообразие п. variety of subjects; знания по п. knowledge of the subject.

преподавать предмет teach a subject; п. свой предмет умело teach one's subject skilfully.

преподаватель teacher.

прививать любовь encourage (a) love (of) in smb; п. интерес develop an interest (in).

привычка к чтению habit of reading.

прием методический technique; п. объяснения technique of presentation; варьировать п. vary teaching techniques.

прилежание diligence; отличаться п. be distinguished for one's diligence.

принципы обучения principles of education; п. отбора словаря principles of vocabulary selection; принцип наглядности principle of visualization; п. сознательности principle of conscious approach; п. систематического обучения principle of systematic teaching; п. активности principle of activity; п. устного опережения oral approach.

приобретать знания acquire/obtain knowledge; п. навыки и умения acquire habits and skills.

приобретение знаний acquisition of knowledge.

приобщать учащихся bring pupils into contact (with).

приспособляться к классной обстановке adapt/adjust oneself to the classroom situation.

приучать детей работать быстро и аккуратно train children to work with speed and accuracy.

проверка знаний учащихся check on pupils' knowledge; п. усвоения check on assimilation; п. домашнего задания check on homework; устная п. oral quiz.

проверять знания check pupils' knowledge/test the knowledge of pupils; п. упражнения по ключу check the exercises with a key; п. тетради correct pupils' exercise-books.

проводить урок conduct a lesson; п. опрос give an oral quiz; п. контрольную работу, тест administer a test.

программа programme/syllabus; руководствоваться п. follow the programme/syllabus.

программированное обучение programmed instruction.

произношение pronunciation; недостаток п. deficiency (defect) in pronunciation; п., усвоенное со слуха pronunciation acquired aurally.

произносительные навыки pronunciation habits.

психическая деятельность mental activity; п. функции mental functions; п. развитие mental development.

психологическая основа обучения psychological basis of teaching; п. особенности psychological peculiarities.

работа домашняя homework; р. классная classwork; р. самостоятельная independent work/study/seatwork/solitary work; внеклассная р. extra curricular work/activity; внешкольная р. public activity; проводить предварительную р. carry on preliminary work; устная р. oral work/activity.

развивать интерес develop/stimulate interest; р. память develop memory; р. мысль develop smb's idea; р. тему develop a topic.

развитие мышления development of intellect; умственное р. intellectual/mental development.

разговор на свободную тему free conversation; начинать р. start a conversation.

расписание time-table/study schedule.

распределение времени на уроке distribution of classroom time; р. внимания dividing (of) attention.

распределять материал distribute/arrange the material.

рассказ ученика pupil's narration; р. по картинке composition on a picture; р. по ключевым словам narration from key words; составить р. на тему make up a story/composition on a topic.

расширение кругозора учащихся expansion of pupils' outlook; р. словаря growth of vocabulary.

расширять знания extend one's knowledge; р. словарь enlarge/ increase one's vocabulary; р. кругозор broaden one's outlook/extend one's horizons.

речь speech/language; правильная р. accurate speech; неправильная р. inaccurate/faulty speech; внутренняя р. inner speech; внешняя р. vocal speech; подготовленная р. prepared speech; неподготовленная р. unprepared speech; диалогическая р. dialogue; монологическая р. monologue; устная р. oral language; связная р. connected speech.

речевая деятельность language activity.

руководить педпрактикой студентов supervise student teaching; под руководством учителя under supervision of a teacher.

самостоятельная работа independent work/seatwork; с. подготовка independent preparation for a lesson, время с. работы seatwork time.

самостоятельно выполнять задание carry out an assignment by oneself; с. работать work on one's own/independently.

следить внимательно за объяснением attend closely (to the teacher's explanation); с. за объяснением follow an explanation; с. за успеваемостью ученика follow/watch a pupil's progress.

словарь (запас слов) vocabulary; ограниченный с. limited stock of words/limited vocabulary.

слово ключевое key word; изолированные с. isolated words; незнакомые с. unfamiliar/unknown words.

слушание listening; см. аудирование.

совет педагогический teachers' council.

содержание обучения content of teaching; с. урока content of a lesson; с. текста contents of a text; краткое с. summary; усложнять с. increase the complexity of contents.

сознательное усвоение знаний conscious learning, с. усвоение материала conscious assimilation of material.

сознательность в обучении conscious/cognitive-code learning.

сообщение нового материала imparting/presentation of new material; подготовленное с. prepared talk; неподготовленное с. unprepared talk; сделать с. в классе give a talk in class.

соотношение между теорией и практикой interrelation between theory and practice.

сопровождать рассказ показом наглядных средств illustrate the narration by visual aids/materials.

составлять вопросы form questions; с. план make a plan; с. дополнительные упражнения compile additional exercises.

сочетание всех аспектов языка combination of all the aspects of the language.

сочинение (школьное) composition, essay.

специфика предмета (учебного) specific character of a subject.

списывать с доски copy from the blackboard.

способ подачи материала method of presentation of material; единственный с. the only possible way; разными с. in a variety of ways.

способности учащихся pupils' aptitude; умственные с. intelligence; знать с. каждого know each child's capacity; проявлять с. show one's aptitude for smth.

средства обучения means of teaching/teaching aids.

ставить вопросы к тексту ask questions on the text; с. оценку assign/ give a mark; с. цель set a goal.

статья paper/article; научная с. proceedings.

стереотип динамический dynamic stereotype.

стимулировать интерес stimulate one's interest.

ступени обучения stages of teaching; начальная с. primary forms/ grades; младшая с. junior stage/forms/grades; средняя с. intermediate stage/forms/grades; старшая с. senior stage/forms/grades.

текст для перевода text for translation; т. для пересказа text for reciting/telling; знакомый т. familiar text; незнакомый т. unfamiliar text; первоначальный т. original text; т. средней трудности text of average difficulty; составлять т. compile a text; анализ т. analysis of a text; толкование т. interpretation of a text.

тема урока subject/topic of a lesson; переходить от одной т. к другой pass over from one subject to another; говорить на т. speak on a topic; бытовые т. everyday topics.

трансформация transformation.

требования учителя teacher's demands (upon); программные т. syllabus/programme requirements; предъявлять посильные т. к учащимся make demands within pupils' range; повышать т. increase demands/ standards.

тренировка устная oral drill.

трудности работы в классе classroom difficulties; преодолевать т. overcome difficulties.

уважать личность ребенка be respectful to the personality of a child.

уверенность в себе self-condidence; терять у. в свои силы lose confidence in oneself; приобретать у. acquire/gain confidence in oneself.

уделять время find time (for smth); у. внимание give attention to.

указания instructions; подробные у. detailed instructions.

умение читать reading ability; практические навыки и у. practical habits and skills.

употреблять use, make use (of); неправильно у. misuse.

упражнение exercise; у. на узнавание recognition exercises; у. на повторение revision exercises; тренировочные у. drill exercises; подготовительные у. preparing exercises; грамматические у. grammar exercises; подстановочные у. substitution exercises; устные у. oral exercises; письменные у. written exercises; у. на противопоставление contrasting exercises; у. в повторении imitative exercises; у. на трансформацию

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transformational exercises; у. в слушании exercises in hearing; ситуативные у. situational exercises; программированные у. programmed exercises.

уровень знаний standard of knowledge; у. подготовки (учащихся) level of preparation; у. понимания level of comprehension; у. преподавания standard of teaching; на низком (высоком) у. at a low (high) level.

урок (учебника) lesson/unit; у. (в классе) lesson/period/class-period; у. чтения reading lesson; у. устной речи conversation lesson; у. объяснения и закрепления lesson imparting and consolidating fresh knowledge; у. повторения revision lesson; комбинированный у. lesson with multiple aims/objectives; у. с магнитофоном tape lesson; у. по радио radio lesson; открытый у. demonstration lesson; пробный у. test/open criticism lesson; полноценный у. adequate lesson; неполноценный у. inadequate lesson; начинать у. begin the lesson; у. с применением наглядных пособий illustrated lesson; у. с применением предметов object lesson; построение у. lesson construction; содержание у. content of a lesson; цель урока objective of a lesson; конспект у. notes on a lesson; план у. plan of a lesson; типы у. types of lessons; составные части у. component parts of a lesson; вести у. conduct a lesson; готовиться к у. prepare for the lesson; давать у. give a lesson; брать у. по take lessons (in); оставлять после у. keep after school; активно работать на у. be active at the lesson.

усваивать знания assimilate knowledge.

усвоение сознательное conscious assimilation.

условия благоприятные для занятий favourable study conditions; создать у. provide conditions (for).

успеваемость (ученика) (pupil's) progress; низкая у. poor progress; текущая у. daily progress; повысить у. make better progress.

устанавливать тишину establish silence; у. дисциплину establish/ impose good discipline.

учебник textbook, manual.

учебный год (полугодие, четверть) school year (term); у. процесс teaching procedure; у. план curriculum; у. фильм educational/instructional film; у. нагрузка учителя teaching load; у. время teaching time, потеря у. времени loss of teaching time.

ученик pupil; у.-отличник bright pupil; у. средний average pupil; у. плохой slow/dull pupil; лучший у. top/best pupil; неуспевающий у. underachiever; отстающий у. backward pupil.

учет и оценка знаний учащихся measuring and evaluating pupils' achievement; у. посещаемости учащихся recording of attendance; текущий у. regular recording; индивидуальный у. recording the progress of individuals; вести у. keep a record (of).

учитель строгий strict teacher; у. требовательный exacting teacher; у. на полной ставке full-time teacher; у. на неполной ставке part-time teacher; хорошо подготовленный у. well-trained teacher; плохо подготовленный учитель badly-trained teacher.

учить (обучать) teach; у. учащихся пользоваться словарем train pupils to consult a dictionary; у. урок study a lesson; у. наизусть learn by heart/memorize.

учиться learn, study; у. в школе go to school/attend school.

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фильм учебный educational/instructional film; ф. цветной colour film; звуковой ф. sound film; немой ф. silent film; мультипликационный ф. cartoon; художественный ф. feature film; показывать ф. show a film.

фильмоскоп film-strip projector.

фонокабинет language lab(oratory).

форма изложения manner of presenting; в устной ф. in verbal form/orally.

ход урока course of the lesson; ход рассказа flow of a narration; в х. работы in the course of work.

хор chorus; говорить х. speak at once; читать х. read in chorus/ unison.

хоровое чтение reading in chorus/unison.

цель goal/aim; поставленная ц. goal set/goal to be achieved; ц. урока objective of the lesson; конечные ц. terminal behaviour; добиваться достигать ц. achieve/gain one's end.

час академический class-period.

четверть учебная school term.

читать вслух read aloud; ч. про себя read silently; ч. наизусть recite; читать быстро read rapidly; чтение вслух reading aloud/oral reading; ч. про себя silent reading; аналитическое ч. analytical/intensive reading; синтетическое ч. synthetical/extensive reading; объяснительное чтение explanatory/interpretative reading; домашнее ч. home reading; беглое ч. skimming reading; быстрое ч. rapid reading; самостоятельное ч. independent reading; техника ч. technique of reading; учебное ч. study reading; собственно ч. reading per se; образцовое ч. pattern reading; диагностирующее ч. diagnostic reading; обучающее ч. instructive reading; контрольное ч. control/test reading.

чувство языка feeling for language.

школьная система school system; ш. образование school education; ш. возраст school age; ш. товарищи schoolmates.

экзамен переводной promotion examination; повторный э. repeat examination; государственный э. state examination; сдавать э. take/ have an examination; выдерживать э. pass an examination; провалиться на э. fail in an examination.

экзаменационный билет examination card.

язык речь language, tongue; родной я. mother tongue; бедный я. poor language; живой я. living language; обиходный я. everyday speech; местный я. vernacular; изучаемый я. the target language.

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